

THE NEW LARNED HISTORY

FOR READY REFERENCE
READING AND RESEARCH

VOLUME II

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THE BEST WORDS OF THE WORLD'S BEST HISTORIANS
BIOGRAPHERS AND SPECIALISTS

A COMPLETE HISTORY OF ALL USES EXTENDING TO
THE PRESENT TIME
His Taisi, leader of advance guard and
friend of the founder of Ming Dynasty
(14th century A.D.)
Tchiao, Knol Pui Tchang, the hero of
Are of China, leader of corps of vol-
unteers (about 800 A.D.)

THE NEW LARNED

WITH A LARGE NUMBER OF ILLUSTRATIONS
MANY OF THEM
DUBBLE

THE HISTORY OF

THE NEW LARNED

Wu Tse Tien, empress (627-705 A.D.)
Lo Fei, national hero and patriot (1103-1181 A.D.)



THE HISTORY OF
HEROES AND HEROINES OF CHINESE HISTORY
PUBLISHED BY THE
YANGMUN COMPANY
(From old Chinese prints)

Tchiao Kuo Fu Tchen, the Joan of
Arc of China, leader of corps of vol-
unteers (about 600 A.D.)

Hu Tahai, leader of advance guard and
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A COMPLETE SYSTEM OF HISTORY FOR ALL USES, EXTENDING TO
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THE BETTER AND NEWER LITERATURE
OF HISTORY

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IN 12 VOLUMES

VOL. II. — BALKH TO CHONT



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VOLUME II

BALKH, important ancient city on the Balkh river in Turkestan, and originally termed "Mother of cities."

Its destruction by Jenghiz Khan (1221).—From his conquest of the region beyond the Oxus, Jenghiz Khan moved southward with his vast horde of Mongols, in pursuit of the fugitive Khahrezmian prince, in 1220 or 1221, and invested the great city of Balkh,—which is thought in the east to be the oldest city of the world, and which may not impossibly have been one of the capitals of the primitive Aryan race. "Some idea of its extent and riches [at that time] may possibly be formed from the statement that it contained 1,200 large mosques, without including chapels, and 200 public baths for the use of foreign merchants and travellers—though it has been suggested that the more correct reading would be 200 mosques and 1,200 baths. Anxious to avert the horrors of storm and pillage, the citizens at once offered to capitulate; but Chinghiz, distrusting the sincerity of their submission so long as Sultan Mohammed Shah was yet alive, preferred to carry the place by force of arms—an achievement of no great difficulty. A horrible butchery ensued, and the 'Tabernacle of Islam'—as the pious town was called—was razed to the ground. In the words of the Persian poet, quoted by Major Price, 'The noble city he laid as smooth as the palm of his hand—its spacious and lofty structures he levelled in the dust.'—J. Hutton, *Central Asia*, ch. 4.

Early commercial importance. See **COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.**

ALSO IN: H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, v. 1, ch. 3.

BALL, Albert, British captain, aviator whose exploits in bringing down German airmen during the World War have classed him among the greatest aces (q. v.).

BALL, John (d. 1381), English priest in Wat Tyler insurrection. See **ENGLAND: 1381.**

BALL, Sir Robert Stawell (1840-1913), British astronomer. Lowndean professor of astronomy and geometry, Cambridge; director of Cambridge observatory; royal astronomer of Ireland, 1874-1892. Wrote a number of popular works on astronomy, mathematics and physics.

BALLAD: Definition.—"The popular ballad . . . is a narrative poem without any known author or any marks of individual authorship such as sentiment and reflection, meant, in the first instance, for singing, and connected, as its name implies, with the communal dance, but submitted to a process of oral tradition among people free from literary influences and fairly homogeneous. Conditions favourable to the making of such poetry ceased to be general after the fifteenth century; and, while it was both composed and preserved in isolated rural communities

long after that date, the instinct which produced it and the habit which handed it down by word of mouth were, alike, a heritage of the past. Seen in critical and historical perspective, balladry takes its distinguishing marks mainly from this process of oral tradition. Owing to this process, the ballad has lost its dramatic or mimetic and choral character and become distinctly epic; it has, in many cases, even forfeited its refrain, once indispensable; but it has kept its impersonal note, lacks, last as first, all trace of deliberate composition and appeals to the modern reader with a charm of simplicity quite its own. Nearly all critics are agreed that no verse of this sort is produced under the conditions of modern life; and the three hundred and five individual ballads, represented by some thirteen hundred versions, printed in the great collection of Child, may be regarded, practically, as a closed account in English literature. Diligent gleanings of the field in the ten years following the completion of that work has brought little or nothing that is new; and little more can be expected. Here and there a forgotten manuscript may come to light; but, in all probability, it will contain only a version of some ballad already known. The sources of tradition have, apparently, at last run dry."—F. B. Gummere, *Ballads (Cambridge history of English literature, v. 2, p. 449).*

Distinguished from "ballade."—This should not be confused with the highly technical "ballade" of the Continent which "was a poem of three stanzas. It might have from six to ten lines each, but the last line was always the same, and so were the rhymes in each stanza, while the poem was often finished off with what was called *l'envoy*, an address in four lines to some person, real or imagined, and ending like the other stanzas with the refrain."—G. Saintsbury, *Primer of French literature*, pp. 36-37.

Development.—"English and Scottish ballads as a distinct species of poetry, and as a body, can be followed back through the fifteenth century, occur sporadically, or find chance mention, for a century or so before, and then altogether cease. Owing to the deplorably loose way in which the word 'ballad' is applied, not only the references of early historians, like William of Malmesbury, to the 'popular songs,' the *cantilenae*, the *carmina vulgaria*, from which they draw for occasional narrative, but also the passages of older epic that tell a particular deed or celebrate a popular hero, are, alike, assumed to indicate a body of ballads, similar to those of the collections, extending back to the Norman conquest, back even to the Germanic conquest of Britain, but lost for modern readers by the chances of time and the lack of written record. Such a body of ballads may, indeed, be conjectured; but conjecture should not pass into inference. Not a single specimen is preserved. It

is, to be sure, unlikely that the primary instinct of song, the tendency to celebrate heroes and events in immediate verse, and the habit of epic tradition, main constituents of balladry, should cease as we cross the marches of the Transition period and pass from the modern speech and modern metres, in which our ballads are composed, into that more reflected language, that wholly different form of rhythm, which prevailed in Old English and, with some modifications, in all Germanic verse. To claim for this older period, however, ballads of the kind common since the fifteenth century in England, Scandinavia and Germany, is an assertion impossible to prove. The Old English folk must have had popular ballads of some sort; but it cannot be said what they were. Singing, to be sure, implies a poem in stanzas; and that is precisely what one cannot find in recorded Old English verse—the one exception, Deor's song, being very remote from balladry. It is true that the subject of a popular ballad can often be traced far back; Scandinavian ballads still sing the epic heroes of 'Old Norse.' Community of theme, however, does not imply a common poetical form; and it is the structure, the style, the metrical arrangement, the general spirit of English and Scottish ballads, which must set them apart in our literature and give them their title as an independent species. . . . In the absence of texts, conjecture is useless. The earliest recorded piece of English verse which agrees with balladry in all these important characteristics is the famous song of Canute, preserved in the chronicles of Ely. . . . This desire of the warrior to sing the battles he has fought did not pass away with the lost songs. A passage in Bishop Leslie's *History of Scotland*, used in part by Andrew Lang for the solution of the problem of ballad origins, declares that 'our bordir men,' as Dalrymple translates, delight in their own music and in the songs that they themselves make about their deeds and about the deeds of their forbears. . . . Gaston Paris, on good evidence, has made a similar assertion about the early Germanic and English warriors, who, before the days when the minstrel existed in a professional class, sang their own deeds and furnished the prime material of later epics. Even in *Beowulf* (q.v.) a warrior is described improvising a song on the defeat of Grendel. There is, thus, a presumption that border ballads, like *Cheviot* and *Otterburn*, owed their earliest form to the improvisation of fighting men who could sing their own deeds; and thus, too, one draws a faint line, mainly touching theme and conditions of origin, from the 'old song of Percy and the Douglas' back to those last lays that inspired the poet of *Beowulf*. But this is all. Of the actual structure and form of those old lays nothing is known. . . . All that can be said of material gathered from older chronicles, or suspected in older poems, is that it lends itself to conjecture, not to proof. The one exception is this song of Canute, which may pass as a genuine ballad fragment.

"Short work can be made of other assumptions. In the fourteenth century, 'rimes of Robin Hood and Randolph, earl of Chester,' are mentioned in *Piers the Plowman* as known to the common men of that day. Robin Hood ballads are preserved; the Randolph cycle is lost. But the outlaw literature must have been popular long before that. . . . Ballads of the outlaw, indeed, would be of a popular and traditional type, as the Robin Hood cycle shows; but political songs, which also had their vogue, were doubtless made by the minstrel, who, also, retouched and sang again the rude

verses which warrior or outlaw had improvised, taking them out of their choral conditions, smoothing, adding, connecting, and making them fit for chant and recitation *de longue haleine*, precisely as the *jongleurs* of early France, according to Gaston Paris, remade the improvisations of an age that knew no minstrel class at all into the *chansons de geste* and into the epic itself [See Music: Medieval: 11th-13th centuries]. Such remade poems could again be broken into ballads, popular enough, sung and transmitted by very humble folk. . . . Minstrels, moreover, as actual authors of the ballads recorded at a later day, are utterly out of the question. Barring a few wretched specimens labelled by Child with the minstrel's name, and inserted in the collection because they still may retain some traditional note, that 'rogue by act of parliament' to whom Percy ascribed the making of practically all English and Scottish ballads is responsible for none of them. It has been pointed out by Kittredge as 'capable of practically formal proof that for the last two or three centuries the English and Scottish ballads have not, as a general thing, been sung or transmitted by professional minstrels or their representatives. There is no reason whatever for believing that the state of things between 1300 and 1600 was different, in this regard, from that between 1600 and 1000.' Still stronger proof lies in the fact that we have the poetry which the minstrels did make; and it is far removed from balladry. 'The two categories are distinct.' When, finally, one studies the structure and the elements of the ballad itself as a poetic form, a form demonstrably connected with choral dramatic conditions in its origin but modified by a long epic process in the course of oral and quite popular tradition, one is compelled to dismiss absolutely the theory of minstrel authorship, and to regard ballads as both made and transmitted by the people. . . . Tradition is something more than a confusion of texts; a choral throng, with improvising singers, is not the chance refuge, but, rather, the certain origin, of the ballad as a poetic form; and, while one is not to regard the *corpus* of English and Scottish ballads as directly due to such singing and improvisation, it is thither that one turns for origins, and it is to tradition that one turns for the growth and spread of the versions themselves. Once choral, dramatic, with insistent refrain and constant improvisation, the ballad came to be a convenient form for narrative of every sort which drifted into the ways of tradition. This traditional process has been mainly epic, although oral tradition alone would not and does not force the ballad out of its choral structure, its dramatic and lyric purpose. What slowly reduces the importance and, therefore, the function of these old elements is the tendency of ballads towards the chronicle, the story, the romance. Literary influences worked upon it for these ends.

"A close study of the material demands that we distinguish two general classes. One, demonstrably the older in structure, tends in form to the couplet with alternating refrain or burden, and in matter to the rendering of a single situation. As, however, epic purposes prevailed, this typically oldest ballad was lengthened in plot, scope, details, and was shorn entirely of its refrain. Hence a second class, the long ballad, recited or chanted to a monotonous tune by a singer who now feels it to be his property, a kind of enclosed common. Instead of the short singing piece, steeped in repetition, almost borne down by its refrain, plunging abruptly into a situation, describing no

characters and often not naming them, telling no long story and giving no details, here is a deliberate narrative, long and easy of pace, free of repetitions, bare of refrain, abounding in details and covering considerable stretches of time. By a happy chance, indeed, this epic process can be followed into its final stage. We have a number of ballads which tell different adventures in the life of Robin Hood; and we have an actual epic poem, formed upon these ballads or their very close counterparts, which embodies the adventures in a coherent whole. Between the style of the *Gest of Robyn Hode*, however, and the style of the best Robin Hood ballads, there is almost no difference at all; and these, for all their age of record, may well represent the end of the epic process in balladry. Apart, now, from chronology of the record, this material may be grouped according to its subjects, its age in tradition and its foreign or local origins. Oldest in every way, and quite independent of place, are the riddle-ballads which open Child's first volume. They are far simpler than the Old English riddles and are closely related to those ballads of question and answer made in many countries at the communal dance, and used to determine the choice of a partner or the winning of a garland. . . .

"The epic tendency, always working out of situation into narrative, now takes us to a very large group of ballads, which seldom content themselves with the dramatic crisis, but deal in a more intricate plot, furnish the details and even add a store of romantic incidents. This ballad of domestic complications, the tragedy of kin, looms large in all European tradition; borrowing, however, or a common source, is not always to be assumed even where the story is the same, since certain primary instincts must bring about like results wherever men are set in families or clans and human passions prevail. Still, there is, in many cases, abundant reason for identification, and, even, for alliance with more distant branches of balladry and tales. . . . Complications of kin make up ballads of domestic tragedy, a most important group; and even the inroads of a doggerel poet upon the old material, even the cheap 'literature' of the stalls, cannot hide that ancient dignity. . . . Finally, there is the true-love. . . . Ballads of the funeral, echoes of the old *coronach*, *vocero*, whatever the form of communal grief, are scantily preserved in English. . . . Superstition, the other world, ghost-lore, find limited scope in English balladry. . . . Epic material of every sort was run into the ballad mould. . . . Refusing classification, there stand out those two great ballads, probably on the same fight, *Cheviot* and *Otterburn*. The version of the former known as *Chevy Chase*, 'written over for the broadside press,' as Child remarks, was the object of Addison's well-known praise; what Sidney heard as 'trumpetsound' is not certain, but one would prefer to think it was the old *Cheviot*. One would like, too, the liberty of bringing Shakespeare into the audience, and of regarding that ancient ballad as contributing to his conception of *Hotspur*. . . . Last of all, the greenwood; . . . with these ballads of Robin Hood, balladry itself crossed the marches of the epic, and found itself far from the old choral, dramatic improvisations, though still fairly close to the spirit and motive of traditional verse."—F. B. Gummere, *Ballads (Cambridge history of English literature, v. 2, pp. 450-456, 464-473)*.

Ballad and history.—The ballad, aside from its literary interest, is a primary source for history. "History had its origin in poetry," says the old Danish author, and this is undoubtedly true

as to much of the early history of our own country [England]. . . . In the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, two complete historical ballads, and fragments of eight or ten others, are inserted as integral parts of the *Chronicle*. While some of our earliest writers mix together truth and fiction, without attempting to distinguish between them, others, like William of Malmesbury, divide records for which there was some shew of authority from those which were only derived from ballads sung about the country. In this way we learn the subjects of many of the legends and historical songs which delighted our ancestors for successive centuries. . . . A volume might be filled with the stories which these early chroniclers derived from ballads, and, among them, not a few that have descended to the present day."—W. Chappell, *Old English ditties, Introduction pp. iii-iv*.—"At a very early period in the progress of a people, and long before they are acquainted with the use of letters, they feel the want of some resource, which in peace may amuse their leisure, and in war may stimulate their courage. This is supplied to them by the invention of ballads; which form the groundwork of all historical knowledge, and which, in one shape or another, are found among some of the rudest tribes of the earth. They are, for the most part, sung by a class of men, whose particular business it is thus to preserve the stock of traditions. Indeed, so natural is this curiosity as to past events, that there are few nations to whom these bards or minstrels are unknown. Thus, to select a few instances, it is they who have preserved the popular traditions, not only of Europe, but also of China, Tibet, and Tartary; likewise of India, of Scinde, of Belochistan, of Western Asia, of the islands of the Black Sea, of Egypt, of Western Africa, of North America, of South America, and of the islands in the Pacific. In all these countries, letters were long unknown, and, as a people in that state have no means of perpetuating their history except by oral tradition, they select the form best calculated to assist their memory; and it will, I believe, be found that the first rudiments of knowledge consist always of poetry, and often of rhyme. The jingle pleases the ear of the barbarian, and affords a security that he will hand it down to his children in the unimpaired state in which he received it. This guarantee against error increases still further the value of these ballads; and instead of being considered as a mere amusement, they rise to the dignity of judicial authorities. . . . We therefore find, that the professed reciters and composers of these songs are the recognized judges in all disputed matters; and as they are often priests, and believed to be inspired, it is probably in this way that the notion of the divine origin of poetry first arose. These ballads will, of course, vary according to the customs and temperaments of the different nations, and according to the climate to which they are accustomed. In the south they assume a passionate and voluptuous form; in the north they are rather remarkable for their tragic and warlike character. But, notwithstanding these diversities, all such productions have one feature in common. They are not only founded on truth, but making allowance for the colorings of poetry, they are all strictly true. Men who are constantly repeating songs which they constantly hear, and who appeal to the authorized singers of them as final umpires in disputed questions, are not likely to be mistaken on matters, in the accuracy of which they have so lively an interest."—H. T. Buckle, *History of civilization in England, v. 1, pp. 211-214*.

See also ENGLISH LITERATURE; GERMAN LITERATURE

TURE: 1050-1350; **MUSIC:** Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Scotland; Celtic: Ireland; Celtic: England; also **MUSIC:** Modern: 1750-1870; **SPANISH LITERATURE:** 10th-12th centuries.

ALSO IN: F. J. Child, *English and Scottish popular ballads*.—F. B. Gummere, *Beginnings of poetry; Popular ballads*.—H. L. Cohen, *Ballade*.

BALLADE. See **BALLAD**: Distinguished from ballade.

BALLANCE, John (1839-1893), New Zealand statesman. During 1875-1893 was in that Colony's parliament (except 1881-1884). Premier 1891-1893, during which time he inaugurated the progressive land-tax and income tax. See **NEW ZEALAND:** 1890-1900.

BALLANCE-SEDDON GOVERNMENT. See **NEW ZEALAND:** 1890-1900.

BALLARAT, second city of the state of Victoria, Australia; seat of Anglican and Roman Catholic bishoprics. After the discovery of gold in 1851, became chief gold-mining center of the state. Chartered 1855, raised to the rank of city 1870.

BALLARD, Samuel Thurston (1855-), American flour mill owner; appointed member of the National Industrial Commission in 1913. See **INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COMMISSION.**

BALLET, Origin of French opera. See **MUSIC:** Modern: 1645-1764.

BALLIN, Albert (1875-1918), director-general of the Hamburg-American line from 1866. German promoter of steamship navigation and maritime passenger traffic. Enjoyed the confidence of the Kaiser, but in 1917 lost favor because of alleged criticism of the government's policy in the war. At the same time he was accused of having advised Germany's ruthless submarine warfare.

BALLINGER, Richard Achilles (1858-), secretary of the interior, United States, 1909-1911. See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES:** United States: 1910-1912; U. S. A.: 1909 (March): Inauguration of President Taft.

Action against water power monopoly. See **TRUSTS:** 1909: Threatened combination to control water power of the country.

Ballinger vs. Pinchot.—Controversy over Alaskan coal lands. See **ALASKA:** 1904-1911.

BALLIOL, Edward (d. 1363), head of English Barons' invasion of Scotland. See **SCOTLAND:** 1332-1333.

BALLIOL, or Baliol, John de (1249-1315), King of Scotland. See **SCOTLAND:** 1290-1305.

BALLOONS. See **AVIATION:** Development of balloons and dirigibles.

BALLOT. See **AUSTRALIAN BALLOT;** **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD;** **PRIMARIES:** United States: Arrangement of names on primary ballots; **SHORT BALLOT;** **BULGARIA:** 1908-1914.

Corruption of. See **CORRUPT AND ILLEGAL PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS.**

Ballot at Rome. See **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD:** B. C. 3rd century.

BALLOT ACT, British. See **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD:** British empire: 1832-1885.

BALLOT BILL, Defeat of. See **ENGLAND:** 1871.

BALLOU, Hosea (1771-1852), American Divine. See **UNIVERSALISTS.**

BALL-PLATZ, the ministry of foreign affairs of the former Austro-Hungarian empire. See **WORLD WAR:** Diplomatic background: 68.

BALL'S BLUFF, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1861 (October: Virginia): Affair at Ball's Bluff.

BALMACEDA, José Manuel (1858-1891), president of Chile, 1886-1891; one of the representatives of Chile at the South American congress at Lima (1865). After discharging diplomatic mis-

sions abroad, he was minister of foreign affairs and of the interior and introduced liberalizing bills, such as one for civil marriage, etc. He was senator in 1885 and was elected president of Chile in 1886; at once instituted numerous reforms. Dissensions in his own party culminated in a civil war (1891), which ended in his overthrow and suicide, Sept. 18, 1891. See **CHILE:** 1885-1891; and **VALPARAISO:** 1536-1906.

BALMACEDISTS. See **CHILE:** 1891-1892.

BALMORAL CASTLE (Gaelic, "the majestic dwelling"), a private residence of the British sovereign in Aberdeenshire, Scotland, situated on the right bank of the Dee about forty-five miles west of Aberdeen. The property was purchased in 1852 and presented to Queen Victoria. The castle was erected 1853-1855 in Scottish baronial style.

BALLOCH TRIBE. See **BALUCHISTAN.**

BALUCHISTAN. See **BALUCHISTAN.**

BALTA, Don José (1816-1872), Peruvian colonel and statesman; elected president of Peru in 1868; murdered in a military mutiny at Lima 1872. See **PERU:** 1826-1876.

BALTA-LIMAN, Convention of (1849). See **RUMANIA:** 1828-1858.

BALTHI, or Balthings.—"The rulers of the Visigoths, though they, like the Amal kings of the Ostrogoths, had a great house, the Balthi, sprung from the seed of gods, did not at this time [when driven across the Danube by the Huns] bear the title of King, but contented themselves with some humbler designation, which the Latin historians translated into *Judex* (Judge)."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders, int., ch. 3.*—See also **BAUX, LORDS OF.**

BALTIC AND NORTH SEA CANALS. See **GERMANY:** 1895 (June); and 1900 (June); and **CANALS:** European canals: Germany.

BALTIC AND WHITE SEA CONFERENCE.—"The Baltic and White Sea Conference, which was created in 1905, is an International Association . . . with a central bureau and a regular organ of government, and an annual conference. It consists of the ship owners of eleven different countries interested in shipping in the North of Europe. It controls [written in 1916] 905 ships of 1,764,603 tons out of 1,816 ships of 2,088,635 tons interested in the trade, and only the smaller ship owners have remained outside. It originated from the realization of owners that competition had cut freights for wood from the Baltic to next to nothing. The object of the Association was to regulate competition and to fix a minimum freight tariff. It must be admitted that a rather similar attempt to regulate international competition during a period of contracting trade had failed. But the Baltic Conference was established during a time of expanding trade, and up to the [World] war had undoubtedly succeeded in its objects. The members met in annual conference, and by a majority vote fix a minimum rate binding upon the members. The formation of the Conference was certainly followed by a rise in freights. The Baltic Conference succeeded through a regular organ of government in limiting international competition between capitalist groups and in fixing an international minimum rate. In other words, the ship owners discovered that their group interests were international rather than national, and could best be served by international regulation and government instead of by competition."—L. S. Woolf, *International government, p. 328.*

BALTIC FLEET, Russian: Voyage and destruction. See **JAPAN:** 1902-1905.

BALTIC LANGUAGES: History and distribution. See **PHILOLOGY:** 21.

BALTIC MYTHS. See MYTHOLOGY: Slav mythology: Baltic myths.

BALTIC PROVINCES.—**Geography.**—**Area and population.**—"The Baltic Provinces consist of Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland. Esthonia faces the Gulf of Finland; Livonia and Courland face the Baltic and are deeply indented by the large Gulf of Riga, which is half closed by the islands of Dagö and Ösel. . . . The glaciers of Scandinavia and Finland have left their mark on these provinces. They are dotted with numerous lakes and even more numerous swamps. They are strewn with erratic boulders and glacial ridges of earth or sand (äsar). They are covered with great coniferous forests; even today, in spite of the areas cleared, forests occupy nearly a third of the total area of the Baltic Provinces, or one-quarter of Esthonia, two-fifths of Livonia, and one-fifth of Courland. These 100,000 square kilometers of inhospitable northern lands contained a population of barely 3,000,000 in 1913, or about 30 to the square kilometer."—*Geographical Review, December, 1918.*—"The prevailing population of the Baltic Provinces is Esthonian, Couronian and Lettish. Numerically they outnumber the Germans in the country, but the Germans are the ennobled class, and in the cities the tradesmen and artisans are German."—*Bellman, Mar. 30, 1918.*—This status of the German population in the cities which had gained a firm foothold on the Baltic through the traders of Lübeck, the first German settlers in the Baltic provinces, who preceded the German missionaries, has existed since the time of the Hanseatic league.

The approximate percentage figures of the population in the three provinces are in Courland, 8.25 per cent Germans, 70 per cent Letts; in Livonia 5.4 per cent Germans, 39.3 per cent Letts, 39.9 per cent Esths; and in Esthonia, 3.8 per cent Germans and 88.6 per cent Esths.

Resources.—**Cities.**—The chief industries in the Baltic provinces are agriculture and dairy farming. The soil is favorable for the production of rye, oats, flax, and potatoes. Fruit and vegetables are also grown. Nearly half of the tilled lands in Courland and Livonia is devoted to the growing of rye which yields the largest crop. All three provinces have a thriving cattle raising industry. In other industries Livonia takes the lead. In its capital, Riga, the greater part of Russia's timber trade was concentrated. It was also the center of the flax trade, the large flax fields of the region being located about fifty miles north of Riga. The chief manufactures of the 393 factories in Livonia are textiles, metal and rubber goods. The principal manufacturing industries in the other two provinces are iron and machinery works, match factories, flour and saw mills in Courland and Esthonia; tanneries, glass and soap works in Courland, and cotton, woolen, paper mills, and distilleries in Esthonia. There is only one trunk line crossing each of these provinces through their principal cities. The chief routes are, in Livonia, from Riga through Dorpat to Petrograd, and in Courland, through Libau, Mitau, Shavli *via* Vilna, Minsk, and by a junction to Moscow and south Russia. "Libau, with nearly seventy thousand population, is the chief city of Courland; Riga, with a population of three hundred and seventy thousand, of Livonia; and Reval, with nearly a hundred thousand people, of Esthonia. The history of these cities, is essentially that of the territory surrounding them."—*Bellman, Mar. 30, 1918.*

Original and existing races.—"Of the original inhabitants, the Cours, Livs, and Esths, all of Ugro-Finnic (Mongolian) stock, speaking languages akin

to modern Finnish, the Esths still inhabit Esthonia and the Northern part of Livonia; the Cours and Livs were displaced by the Letts, a tribe of Lithuanian (Indo-European, but not Slavonic) race, in the early Middle Ages, and have disappeared though the Liv language is said to linger, much corrupted by Lettic, in one or two villages in Livonia. The German Schwertbrüder (*Brothers of the Sword*), later absorbed in the Teutonic Order, conquered the Letts and Esths in the early thirteenth century, took their land, and converted them to Christianity. [See LIVONIA; and PRUSSIA: 13th century.] From these Teutonic knights are descended the present German element in the three provinces. The word 'Balt,' which might be expected to apply to all the races in the provinces, is commonly confined to the German element. . . . The present racial distribution is, (1) Balt in all three provinces: (2) Letts in Courland and South Livonia: (3) Esths in North Livonia and Esthonia. The Russian element before the War consisted almost entirely of officials. The Jews in the three provinces speak German, not Yiddish (as the Russian and Polish Jews do), and are in general supporters of the Balts."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe, p. 21.*—See also EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map showing barbaric migrations; TURANIAN RACES AND LANGUAGES.

9th century.—Conquered by the Varangians.—Russian beginnings. See RUSSIA: 9th to 12th centuries.

11th-16th centuries.—Overlordship of Russian princes. See RUSSIA: 1054-1237.

13th-16th centuries.—Under the Teutonic Knights.—Until 1560 the three provinces, Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland together with Latgale (Latvingalas), constituted one state, formed by the Teutonic order, after the Livonian order, or Brothers of the Sword, had conquered the region early in the thirteenth century.—See also PRUSSIA: 13th century.

14th century.—Connections with Russia broken by Tartar invasions. See RUSSIA: 1350-1480.

1561.—Esthonia acquired by Sweden. See SWEDEN: 1523-1604.

1613-1721.—Wars between Russia and Sweden.—Esthonia captured by Russia (1710).—Livonia (1721). See SWEDEN: 1611-1629; 1697-1700; 1701-1707; 1710-1729.

1768.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Map of Eastern Europe, 1768.

1796.—Courland taken by Russia in the third partition of Poland.—Courland at first remained an independent duchy under the suzerainty of Poland; passed under Russian rule in 1796.—See also POLAND: 1793-1796; Russia; 18th century.

1861-1917.—Agrarian situation.—Serfdom.—Peasants' status.—"The Germans, become masters in the thirteenth century in Esthonia, Livonia, and Courland, have remained imperious and absolute masters. For seven hundred years they have dominated and exploited the native population without ever merging with them. During the period of Swedish domination some humane and just measures were put into force which rendered servitude less hard. But the Russian conquest gave back to the German-Baltic barons the full and complete exercise of their ancient feudal rights. The abolition of serfdom (in 1861) was for the unfortunate Baltic populations only an illusory reform, inasmuch as the power and the lands remained in the hands of the landed proprietors and the local laws and taxes were not changed. . . . In the country districts the hardest kind of serfdom has for seven centuries

weighed heavily on the expropriated and exploited natives. In Livonia 67 per cent of the lands belonged to the nobles and 15 per cent to the state. The estates of 823 landed proprietors had an average area of 3,800 hectares. Thus every Livonian landed proprietor in general owned a piece of territory which was as large as three rural communes in France. These domains were divided into large estates (Rittergüter) about which lived in misery the field workers and the peasants (Knechte), who could be dismissed at the owner's will."—J. Brunhes and C. Vallaux, *German colonization in Eastern Europe* (*Geographical Review*, Dec., 1918).—"The Knechte were generally engaged, as throughout Eastern Europe, by a written contract covering a year from winter to winter. Many varieties of contract of course prevailed: they were long documents, drawn up with considerable detail. The following is a summary of a typical specimen, made on an Estate near Libau in the second year of the World War between a Balt Ritter and a Lett Knecht on what is known as a wage and allowance (*Deputat*) basis:—The labourer is to receive wages . . . [\$30]; free lodging; free doctor and chemist; free stabling for a horse and cart; and allowances of 1800 lbs. rye, 1100 lbs. barley, 400 lbs. small rye [used as pig-food]; 80 lbs. oats and groats (peeled barley or oats), 120 lbs. beans; with free milling. The labourer is to have in manured and prepared land, $\frac{1}{2}$ *Lofstelle* [rather over $\frac{1}{2}$ acre] potato land; $\frac{1}{4}$ - $\frac{1}{8}$ acre garden-land; tools and cartage for the labourer's land to be provided by the Estate. The labourer is allowed to keep [his own] sheep and cows to the number of 3 sheep and 2 cows; and receives as allowances of fodder for them, 2-3 cartloads of hay, for each beast: summer and winter straw: one large basket of chaff. The labourer also received $\frac{1}{2}$ Faden [about 4 cubic feet] of wood: 2-3 Faden brushwood. In return the labourer has to give daily work from breakfast till dark for the whole year; and his wife for 70 days in the year. The cattle fodder allowance is treated as wage for the wife: for any days above 70 worked by her she is to receive . . . [26 cents] a day. In the work-day the following rests are allowed, 1 hour breakfast, 1 hour in the afternoon ['teatime'], 1 or in high summer 2 hours midday. The *Wirte* (land-owning peasants or small farmers) paid higher wages than the Ritter; instead of the . . . [\$30] paid in the above case, a *Wirts-Knecht* might get anything from [\$40 to \$60], and a woman labourer . . . [\$20] to . . . [\$30]. On the other hand the *Wirte* did not give free drugs and doctoring; and they made deductions for absence owing to accidents or illness—a practice which was greatly disliked. It was common experience that the Ritter got their labourers more readily than the *Wirte*."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe*, pp. 40-41.—Up to 1917 the agrarian situation had changed very little. More than two-thirds of the Lettish lands were still in the hands of the German nobility. In Livonia, only 38.25 per cent of the land was controlled by the Letts and Estonians. In Courland, two-fifths was owned by twenty-five baron families.

1867-1918.—Russification.—German character of the provinces.—Though the treaty by which the provinces passed under Russian rule, guaranteed the Protestant religion and the German language to their inhabitants, the Russification of the provinces already began in the middle of the nineteenth century. "Russian was nominally substituted for German as the official language in 1807; but the officials, being all Balts, made no attempt to introduce it in practice, and for

many years its use was confined to communications between the provincial authorities and the capital. In the 'seventies the Russian Government laid their hands on the Town Councils. The Russian Municipal Constitution . . . was introduced throughout the Provinces; and in the freely elected Municipal Assemblies the proud and wealthy Balt Stadtväter [city fathers] found themselves forced for the first time to admit the despised Letts to their councils. In the large towns they have been able, though not without difficulty, to maintain their ascendancy. . . . In the smaller towns they have for the most part been swamped, or, as the expression runs in Balticum, *verlettet* [Letticized]. The judicial functions of the towns were abolished. It was intended to abolish the more or less obsolete Baltic Law, and the Russian Criminal Code was introduced in the 'eighties; but it was found impossible to replace the Baltic Civil Law without an interim period, owing to the complexities of Baltic shipping transactions. The Russian Government accordingly . . . withdrew all facilities for its study at the University of Dorpat [Yuryev or Yuriev], and it was hoped that in time the supply of lawyers acquainted with its intricacies would die out! At the end of the 'eighties the whole hierarchy of the Russian bureaucracy was introduced in town and country alike. It was the first crushing blow to the Balt domination. . . . Half a century ago, before the Russification began, the Baltic Provinces represented an enclave of Germanism within the borders of the Russian Empire. All told the German element (Balts) constituted less than one-fifteenth of the entire population: but they held under the Russian Governor-General almost the whole of the administration of the country in their hands. . . . The diets representing exclusively the *Ritterschaften*, or Corporations of German Barons, whose ancestors took the land in the thirteenth century, ruled the land, and the Town Councils, representing equally exclusively the German element, ruled the towns. . . . Each appointed a catena of officials, . . . judges who administered German mediæval law, teachers in the schools, and pastors in the Lutheran Church. . . . The Diets survived until the World War, and finally expired painlessly at the hands of the German invader."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe*, pp. 22-32.—The Russification of the provinces went on very slowly. "The towns are still German in appearance, and it may be said in atmosphere. The Russian language has never got a foothold in the everyday life of the Provinces, and German is the *lingua franca* from Riga to Reval."—*Ibid.*, p. 41.—"In 1893 Libau, the second largest city in the Baltic provinces, had all the appearance of a transplanted German town. It was most attractively laid out, with charming, well-paved and well-kept streets and parks. Its buildings were tasteful, its residences pretty, and neatness and thrift were everywhere apparent. The churches were Protestant; the people all spoke German, which was taught in the clean-looking schools; the morning paper, and in fact all the publications, of which there were several, were printed in the German language. The mayor's name was Schmidt, and he could not speak Russian. German was the universal language of the shops and streets. There were several excellent hotels kept by Germans, and the food was German. The Russification of Libau had only been under way about eight years, and it was making very slow progress, as was frankly admitted by the Russian colony, which consisted of half a dozen Russian officials and their families, exiles from the capital, who performed certain

functions chiefly in connection with legal matters and the practice of the courts, which were being attempted in Russian and getting nowhere in particular. The chief of police, although a Russian official, bore a German name and was born in the town."—*Bellman, Mar. 30, 1918*.—"The districts that are most completely Germanized are the shores of the Gulf of Riga and the valley of the Dvina, that is to say the historic route followed by the Hanseatic merchants to the black-earth lands. The coast and the rivers are bordered with towns and villages of German aspect. The older parts of Riga recall the glimpses of a Hanseatic Venice which are still to be had in the heart of Hamburg, or of Danzig. . . ."—*Geographical Review, Dec., 1918*.

1905-1906.—Restlessness of the peasants.—Revolution of 1905.—"About the middle of the nineteenth century the Lettish peasants began to show signs of rebellion. Several times they revolted against their oppressors, but were suppressed by Russian troops."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe, p. 148*.—"The Baltic provinces took a most prominent part in the Russian revolution of 1905. "Because of the cruel condition of the masses, the outbreak was more sweeping there than in the rest of the empire. It was a rising, not only against Tsarism, but mainly against the Teuton barons."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations, p. 150*.—"The landless labourers, excited by the atmosphere of the Peasants' Congress and the sight of Ritterschaft and Russian alike paralysed, under the leadership of Revolutionary students and other independents, took matters into their own hands. . . . The *Knechte* took to attacking the houses and castles of the *Ritter*; and in the three Provinces in the years 1905-1906 no less than 200 country-houses were sacked and burnt."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe, p. 44*.—See also RUSSIA: 1905; (January) to 1905 (November-December).

1905-1914.—Revival of German culture.—Establishment of educational institutions.—German element favors union with Prussia.—The German tendencies, particularly in the educational sphere, which held only a subordinate position during the period of the Russification of the provinces, began to revive with the revolutionary outbreak in Russia. "In the Revolutionary storms of 1905, when the Government lay paralysed and every nationality began to fend for itself, the Balts in Esthonia met together, opened a subscription list, and founded a Union for the defence of German culture. Their example was rapidly followed in Courland and Livonia; and the three Unions concerted operations. Their object was the reestablishment of the German schools, which the inauguration of the Constitutional régime in Russia seemed likely to render again possible. In effect considerable concessions were made to the nationalities after 1906 in the question of the schools. In the Baltic Provinces the authorities agreed to recognise the German secondary schools if reestablished, and to permit German as the language of instruction. It was stipulated, however, that all examinations, to the passing of which civil rights were attached, should continue to be in Russian. The *Landesgymnasia* in Courland and Esthonia were immediately reopened amid great Balt rejoicings. The difficulty of the examinations was met by Recapitulatory Courses in Russian in the different subjects. . . . The three Provinces are now covered with a network of German schools, housed in new buildings, and a good deal more lavishly equipped than were the old historic schools before the Russification. In particular there are now provided beside the *Gymnasia*,

which in the old days stood alone, *Realschulen* and *Realgymnasia*, in which facilities are available for technical and industrial education. In addition to the schools, the Unions have built libraries, theatres, *Kindergarten*, and *Ferienheime* [vacation homes]. They have organised Lectures, Women's Leagues—these were particularly active before the War—Country Holiday Funds, Free Meals for School Children, and the like. More or less at their instigation, or with their financial support, there have sprung up Land Banks, Agricultural Leagues, *Gewerbevereine* [trade unions], and social and literary societies. At the outset of the War, . . . by one of the last administrative acts of the Russian Government the schools were again closed . . . and the unions dissolved."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe, pp. 33-34*.—"During the World War the German element of the provinces expressed a desire for a union with Prussia. In 1918 the Courland Diet and the Landesrat of Livonia and Esthonia, both representing mainly the German population, adopted a resolution favoring severance from Russia and submission to the protection of Prussia. At the time of the German occupation under von der Goltz, the Baltic barons organized a militia, called the Baltic "Landwehr" which supported the German occupation army in Courland.

1915-1918.—German raids.—German occupation during the World War.—During the World War, the Baltic provinces, as a border land, suffered a great deal from invasions of the Germans. On April 27, 1915, Courland was raided by a force of one and a half corps of cavalry which proceeded from Tilsit accompanied by a small force of infantry, and occupied Shavli. On May 1 German patrols appeared before Libau on the Baltic, but were repulsed at Mitau, and retreated on the 7th. On May 8, Libau was again invaded by a German column, which was, however, routed at Sejny by Russian cavalry. (See also WORLD WAR: 1915; III. Eastern front: i, 1.) Finally on Sept. 3, 1917, the Germans under General von Hutier captured Riga (see WORLD WAR: 1917; I. Summary: b, 8.) After the armistice between the Bolshevik government and Germany on December 17, 1917, the latter was granted "police power" in the Baltic provinces, and the entire region, but more particularly Courland was occupied by German troops. According to reports, an army of over 100,000 men, under von der Goltz concentrated in Mitau, occupying the entire city. On October 8, 1918, these troops participated in the attack on Riga (from which the Germans had recently withdrawn), led by Avalov-Bermond, a veteran of the Russo-Japanese War and the World War, who pretended to combat Bolshevism. Despite the heroic resistance of the Letts, the troops entered Riga. The next month the Letts succeeded, however, in freeing Riga from the German troops, and they were driven back to their base in Mitau. Finally, upon the threatening demands of the Allies and the arrival of a French-British squadron of more than twenty vessels, the German government had General von Eberhard take up preparations for the evacuation of the German troops, which took place at the end of November, 1918.—See also BALTIC STATES: Esthonia: 1918-1919; Latvia: 1918.

1917-1918.—Revolution of 1917.—Political events between the revolution and Brest-Litovsk peace.—"When the Revolution broke out in March, 1917, it quickly reverberated in the Baltic provinces. The Letts were ardent revolutionists and they were spiritually united with the Russian democracy. They proceeded to organize an autonomous gov-

ernment in those parts of their country that were unoccupied by the Prussian army. Around the Lettish region rallied many Letts that served in Russian regiments and the Lettish force became one of the bulwarks of the Russian Revolution."—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, p. 151.—"The sequence of events in the three provinces between the Russian Revolution and the Peace of Brest is very confused. The following account will, the writer believes, be found accurate. The particulars given for Esthonia are partly based on a letter to the *Spectator* (July 13, 1918) from Dr. Antonius Piip, a member of the Maanõukogu and its Informal Diplomatic Representative in London. In September 1917 the Courland Diet at the instigation of the occupying authorities called a National Assembly at Mitau. The Assembly appointed a National Council of twenty members to represent the Province until its future constitution should be settled and dissolved. Similar Councils were appointed by National Assemblies called by the other three Diets of Livonia, Esthonia, and the Isle of Oesel, and by the City of Riga, after the German Occupation of Livonia and Esthonia in April, 1918. With these five National Councils the German Government conducted all subsequent negotiations in the three provinces, treating generally with the Courland Council separately and with the other four Councils sitting together as a 'United National Council'."—R. Butler, *New Eastern Europe*, p. 32.—In July, 1917, before the Courland National Assembly met, the Letts declared themselves in favor of a separation from the rest of the Baltic provinces in the form of an autonomous state, composed of territory where the population is at least 75 per cent Lettish. At the same time the Esths, whom the Russian provisional government had granted self-government by an act of April 12, 1917, called an assembly at Riga and declared for the formation of an autonomous state of those parts of the Baltic provinces where the population was 90 per cent Esthonian. (See also BALTIC STATES: Esthonia; and Latvia.) By the Brest-Litovsk treaty, March 3, 1918, and the supplementary treaties concluded August 27, the Russian Soviet government renounced all sovereign claim to the Baltic provinces.

1919.—Answer to proposed peace conference

of Allies at Prince's Islands. See RUSSIA: 1919.

1919.—Germany renounces its claims by Treaty of Versailles. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part III: Sect. X.

See also BALTIC STATES.

ALSO IN: V. Tornius, *Die Baltischen Provinzen* (1915).

BALTIC SEA (the Mare Suevicum of the ancients; German Ostsee or Baltisches Meer; Russian Baltiiskoye More), a sea of northeastern Europe, covering an area of about 166,000 square miles and enclosed or surrounded by Russia, Sweden, Germany and Denmark. Its greatest length is nearly 1000 miles; greatest breadth, about 4000 miles; estimated length of coastline, about 5000 miles. Inland extensions of the Baltic are: the Gulf of Bothnia, Gulf of Finland, Gulf of Riga, Gulf of Danzig and the Gulf of Lübeck. The Sea is connected with the North Sea by a channel named, in its course, the Skagerrak and the Cattegat or Kattegat, passing between Norway and Sweden on the north and the Jutland Peninsula of Denmark to the south. An artificial line of communication between the Baltic and the North Sea is the famous Kiel Canal, running through the Schleswig-Holstein Peninsula. All the Baltic ports are closed by ice during the winter, and the interruption of navigation from this cause is longer the farther east the port is situated. The Baltic Sea was declared neutral for commerce by a treaty between Russia and Sweden in 1759, to which Denmark acceded in 1760. A "Baltic Convention" for preserving the *status quo* of the Sea was signed at St. Petersburg (Petrograd) in April, 1908, between France, Germany, Great Britain, Russia, Sweden, Holland and Denmark. In 1897 it was proposed to connect the Baltic with the Black Sea, a distance of nearly 1000 miles. This project has since been carried out by the former Imperial Russian government, so that it is now possible to travel by water from the seaport of Riga through a system of canalized rivers to Kherson (Cherson) on the right bank of the Dnieper, less than twenty miles from the mouth of that river, which flows into the Black Sea.—See also POLAND: 1919 (June); 1919-1920: War with Russia; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: f, 4; 1915: IX. Naval operations: c.

BALTIC STATES

Esthonia and Latvia, formed the Baltic provinces after the World War. See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new border states.

ESTHONIA

Territory.—Area.—Population.—Education.—The Republic of Esthonia consisted (in 1921) of the former Baltic province of Esthonia, the northern part of Livonia, the northwestern portion of Pskov, and the islands of the Moon sound. It had an area of 23,160 square miles with a population of 1,750,000, 90 per cent or 95 per cent of which were Esths, 2 per cent Germans, 1 per cent Russians, and the rest Letts, Lithuanians, Swedes, and Jews. The majority (about 83 per cent) were Lutherans; the remainder, Greek Orthodox, Roman Catholic, and Jewish. In 1897, 3 per cent of the population was illiterate. At present elementary education is compulsory. On December 1, 1919, the republic reopened the old Dorpat university, founded in 1632, as the Esthonian university.

The history of Esthonia as that of the rest of the Baltic provinces, is a continuous struggle

against oppressions of its rulers and, more particularly, the land-owning nobility. Its revolutionary movement was largely an agrarian movement.—See also BALTIC PROVINCES.—For its Christian conquest see LIVONIA: 12th-13th centuries; and PRUSSIA: 13th century.

1918-1919.—**Creation of the republic.—Recognition.**—The republic of Esthonia came into existence on February 24, 1918, when its National Council, established by the Russian provisional government, declared its independence on the basis of the principle of self-determination of nations as had been accepted by the Allies and Russia. It was recognized by the Soviet government *de jure*, upon its recognition by Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Poland, and Sweden. A constituent assembly was elected in April, 1919, and in June a special commission began to draft a constitution on the democratic plan, based on all the paper constitutions of the world, especially that of Switzerland, in which the people have the right to initiate legislation. By this instrument the supreme power is vested in a Constituent As-

sembly, composed of 120 members, whose president is head of the state. Eleven ministers make up the cabinet.

1918-1919.—Struggle against Germans.—Aid from Finland.—Warfare with Bolsheviki.—Estonia was under German occupation in 1918, the severity of which was such that the passive resistance of the Estonians was transformed into open rebellion against the occupation authorities. Before the news of the armistice concluded between the Allies and Germany could reach Reval, the Estonians had taken the supreme power into their own hands under the leadership of Mr. Poska. This took place on 11 November, 1918. The German new government was obliged to accept this act of rebellion as a *fait accompli* in an agreement concluded on 19 November, 1918, between the representative German government and the Estonian Provisional Government, by which the Germans agreed to withdraw the occupation army from Estonia without delay and hand over all the civil institutions to the Estonian authorities. Nevertheless, the Germans did not abide by this agreement, but prevented the Estonians from constituting a national army. Large German forces remained in the country, and destroyed all the war material before being obliged to leave, this in some cases being carried out only after a struggle between the Estonians and Germans. Hating independent Estonia more than ever, they entered into an agreement with the Russian Bolshevists, who thought that the time had now arrived to reunite Estonia with Soviet Russia, which was frankly admitted by a Russian military expert at the Dorpat Peace Conference. By such agreement the Germans handed several towns over to the Bolshevists without any fighting and with all the war material, there being great quantities of the latter in Walk. The Estonian Government was now in a difficult position. They had only succeeded in taking over from the German occupation authorities 20,000 marks, they had neither army nor munitions, and the first detachment sent out to Narva to meet the Bolshevists on 21 November, 1918, consisted of only 150 students and college boys. The mobilisation notices were practically suppressed by the Germans still in the country. Fortunately the Finnish Government came first to the aid of Estonia by supplying her with 5,000 rifles, 20 old guns, and 10,000,000 Finnish marks. In spite of the fact that the Bolshevists advanced thus into a defenceless country, the Provisional Government, under Mr. Paets, recently released from a German prison, seeing the growing enthusiasm of the people, did not lose heart. 'You had your Marne,' said Mr. Paets to the representatives of the Allies, 'before marching to victory; let us also have our Marne,' and, sure enough, victory was soon in sight. On 12 December, 1918, a small British squadron under Admiral Sinclair entered Reval bringing arms and munitions to the Estonian army. On 26 December they captured two destroyers from the Bolshevists and handed them over to the Estonians, which the latter, after effecting in a few days the necessary repairs, sent again to sea against the Bolshevists. The end of 1918 was the most critical period for Estonia. The Bolshevists had occupied two-thirds of the country and had approached within fifteen miles of Reval, the capital; but the first days of 1919 brought a change in the situation. The Estonian army, now led by the young and very able General Laidoner, commenced an offensive against the Bolshevists. The armoured trains, improvised by Captain Pitka in conjunction with landing parties from the young navy led by the same Cap-

tain, rendered valuable assistance. The first Finnish volunteers arrived in the country, as well as some Swedes and Danes, which strengthened the morale and discipline of the new-born Estonian army and caused panic to rise in the ranks of the Bolshevists. In a fortnight's time most of Estonia, with the towns of Dorpat and Narva, was freed from the Bolshevist yoke, and on the first anniversary of the declaration of Estonian independence, 24 February, 1919, the commander-in-chief was able to inform the National Council that there were no foreign troops on Estonian soil. The secret of this rapid clearing of the country from the Bolshevists lies in the unexpected enthusiastic resistance put up by Estonia, as also the new partisan tactics and strategy applied in such an able manner by commanders such as General Toenisson, General Soots, General Poedder, Colonel Puskar, and Colonel Mut, the artistic perfection of which was apparent in the so-called Jacobstadt operations, by which the whole of Latvia was cleared of the Bolshevists in June last [1919]. Certainly the Estonian army, barefooted and badly equipped as it was, took every advantage of outside support. They therefore assembled the remnants of the so-called Russian Northern Corps after their defeat in Pskov by the Bolshevists, and organised them to form a military unit which would become autonomous as soon as it was outside Estonian territory. General Balacovic and General Rodzianko became the conspicuous figures of this army, which later passed under the command of General Judenich on the resignation of the supreme command by General Laidoner in the first advance against Petrograd. The Estonians also organised some Lettish units which rendered great service to Latvia by helping Estonia to clear the Bolshevists out of North Latvia, and later assisted in the defeating of the Landeswehr and overthrowing the rebellious Needra's government established by the Germans, which enabled the legal Government of Ulmanis again to enter into power. The Estonians having already advanced to the suburbs of Riga, the final blow to German enterprise in the Baltic was rendered abortive by the interference of the Allies, who delivered an ultimatum to the Estonians to cease fighting."—A. Piip, *New Europe*, Apr. 15, 1920.—See also RUSSIA: 1919.

1919.—Reconstruction activities in the new states.—"After a long struggle against the Germans and the Bolsheviki, Estonia and Latvia have turned their attention to internal problems. According to the government's program, as presented to the Estonian Constituent Assembly on November 21 by Prime Minister Tormisson, provision was made for reforms affecting agrarian and labor conditions as well as finances; extremist tendencies were to be discouraged as detrimental to the maintenance of public order."—(*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920, Supplement, p. 130).

ALSO IN: O. Kessler, *Die Baltischen Länder und Litauen* (1916).—M. Martna, *L'Estonie* (1920).

1919-1920.—Meeting of the Constituent Assembly.—Negotiations with the Bolsheviki.—Treaty signed Feb. 2, 1920.—Death of Poska, Mar. 9, 1920.—"Estonia having cleared her own country and that of Latvia from the Bolshevists and Germans, the latter, with the permission of the Allies, were allowed to remain in Courland. Meantime the Constituent Assembly was elected in April last [1919], and a democratic government formed with Mr. Strandman as Prime Minister. The war aims having been accomplished, and the people having been at war for five years, the desire for peace began to make itself felt. The peace movement

received support from the unwillingness of the anti-Bolshevist Russian groups under Kolchak, Judenich, and Denikin to recognise the Esthonian national rights, this policy being to some extent agreed to by the Allies despite the fact that it was represented to the Peace Conference in Paris by Esthonia, as also by the other Border States, that a successful campaign against Bolshevist rule could be accomplished solely by a combined attack on the part of the Russian anti-Bolshevist forces and the Border States, but that the latter were only willing to do this after their independence had been recognised by the Russians as also by the Allies. The creation of a new North-Western Russian Government did not effect much improvement, they on the one hand declaring themselves to be favourable to Esthonia, while on the other hand claiming to be the agents of Kolchak, who was obviously hostile to Esthonian liberty, and declining to commit themselves to any definite practical arrangements so far as Esthonian independence was concerned. There therefore existed an irreconcilable difference between the Esthonians and the Russian anti-Bolsheviks, imposing on the former the national obligation of separating themselves from the latter as soon as it was possible to make an honourable peace with their enemies in war, the *de facto* Russian Government, who had already made known their willingness to recognise the right of Esthonia to complete independence. It was therefore quite natural that the Esthonians accepted the peace proposals addressed by Tchichérin to them on 31 August, 1919. But Esthonian policy also inclines to the necessity that a common policy should be pursued by the Baltic States for their mutual interests. For this reason the Esthonian delegation at the first peace meeting at Pskov on 19 September, 1919, laid down as the first condition for peace that such a proposal of peace should be submitted to all the Baltic States, and, receiving a favourable reply, argued the necessity of preliminary common discussions among these States, to which the Soviet Government unwillingly gave their consent. Three Baltic Conferences took place from September to November, the first two being participated in by all the Baltic States and the third by Esthonia, Latvia, and Lithuania. The line of common policy was discussed and in substance agreed, so that a new Peace Conference with the Russians was decided on, to be held before 25 October at Dorpat. The October events in Eastern Europe—namely, the advance of Judenich against Petrograd, supported by simultaneous sea operations by the Esthonian and British navies; and the Bermondts affair in Latvia, when the Esthonian armoured trains helped the Letts to save Riga from Bermondts—naturally made it impossible to hold the October Peace Conference. The idea, however, was not abandoned, but only postponed, the reasons which had guided Esthonia to accept the first peace proposals of Soviet Russia being still existent—the non-recognition of Esthonian independence by the anti-Bolsheviks. To this can be attributed the lack of Esthonian support in the Judenich operations, which Judenich and his generals claimed to be the cause of the collapse of the last offensive against Petrograd. The Bermondts conspiracy obliged the Letts to join forces with the Poles and other Powers whose policy was not peace with Russia, and they therefore did not agree to the necessity of immediate peace with the Soviet Government, the policy held by Esthonia chiefly on the grounds of the very heavy pressure brought to bear on her by the Red Army, which affirmed its readiness to pursue the remnants of the Judenich Army as far

as Reval itself. No active support being rendered by the Finns, Letts, or the Poles in the fierce fighting with the Bolshevists on the Narva front in November and later in December, the Esthonians decided to enter into peace negotiations with Russia on their own account, just as they had fought alone. The Lithuanians, who were willing to join the Esthonians in these negotiations, were unable to do so on account of friction with Poland, as the latter could have made the peace *pourparlers* a pretext for the invasion of Lithuania. Eventually the Peace Conference at Dorpat was opened on 5 December between the Esthonian and Russian Soviet governments only, while the last conference at Dorpat on 16-19 November, to settle the question of the exchange of hostages, consisted of Mr. Litvinov, the Soviet representative on the one part, and the Esthonians, Lithuanians, and Letts on the other. The negotiations, which were presided over on the Russian side first by Mr. Krassin and afterwards by Mr. Joffe, and on the Esthonian side by Mr. Poska, were very strenuous, and were many times on the point of being broken off. Only the desire for peace on both sides helped to surmount the difficulties, so that the armistice was signed on 31 December [1919] and the final peace on February 2 [1920]. The principal terms of the Peace Treaty are well known:—The Russian Government recognises the full independence of the Esthonian State *de jure* for ever, and renounces all rights of sovereignty over the land and people of Esthonia existing under the former State *régime* of Russian and based on International Treaties. Russian property, real and otherwise, formerly belonging to the Russian crown on Esthonian territory or waters, becomes the property of Esthonia. Russia hands over to Esthonia the sum of 15,000,000 roubles in gold, which will stand as security for Esthonian money and foreign credit. Russia grants Esthonia preferential rights for the constructing of the Reval-Moscow railway, and for the exploitation of one million dessiatines [about 2,000,000 acres] of woodland. Esthonia grants Russia free economic access to the sea, all goods in transit being free from transit and import duties, the proper use of Esthonian free harbours, and port and railway tariffs equal to the local tariffs in force in Esthonia. Esthonia renounces any further claim to Russian property as part of the old Russian Empire. The boundaries have been defined and the military guarantees settled. Diplomatic and consular relations will be instituted by special arrangement in accordance with the Allied policy followed in Russia in this regard.—A. Piip (*New Europe*, Apr. 15, 1920).—Jaak Poska, who was President of the Esthonian delegation that concluded peace with Soviet Russia, died in Reval on March 9. The results of his political handiwork in Esthonia have by no means been what he expected of it. Six months after an armistice was declared, and three months after peace was formally made, Esthonia found herself sadly disillusioned. The great profits which were expected to pour into the national treasury from the renewal of trade with the Soviet Government did not materialize, as many reputable firms found on investigation that no certainty existed that the Bolshevist firms could, or would, fulfill their contracts. Esthonia also found that Latvia and Lithuania were preparing to compete with her for the brokerage on such trade as could be arranged. Food raids by Bolshevist bands and a rush of small food traders across the border made it necessary for her to keep armed forces at the frontier to avoid being stripped of all supplies. Food prices went up 100 per cent.

as the result of the Bolshevist demand and the stoppage of trade with the Scandinavian countries and Finland. The Esthonian mark also depreciated fully 20 per cent. The ceaseless Bolshevist propaganda in Esthonia failed of results largely because of these conditions, which showed the Esthonians that Bolshevism as a political credo was undesirable from the point of view of results."—(*New York Times Current History*, Oct., 1920, pp. 92-93.)—See also BALTIC PROVINCES; and RUSSIA: 1920.

1921.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Modern: Political map of Europe.

LATVIA

Territory.—Area.—Population.—Education.—Latvia is constituted of the Lettish countries, which until 1561 were united and then became subject either to the Lithuanian-Polish or the Swedish rule until incorporated into Russia in 1795. (See BALTIC PROVINCES). Situated on the southern littoral of the Baltic sea, it comprises the former province of Courland, the southern part of former Livonia, three districts of Vitebsk (called Latgale), and strips of territory of the provinces Pskov and Kovno. It has an area of about 24,440 square miles (and 25,000 square miles including lakes), with an estimated population of 2,508,800. The greater part of the population, numbering about 2,000,000 or 78 per cent, are Letts. "They have lived in their land since time immemorial and are the only rightful masters of it. The Letts are not of Slavonic origin, neither are they related to the Mongolian Finns, dwelling to the north of them. They are, together with the Lithuanians, the only survivors of a distinct branch of the Indo-European family. They speak a language closely related to the Lithuanian. But they are separated from the latter by religion, being Lutherans, while the Lithuanians are Roman Catholics."—J. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations*, 1919, pp. 146-147.—Of the remainder of the population, in 1914, 7 per cent were Jews, 6 per cent or 7 per cent Germans, 5 per cent Russians, and the rest Poles, Lithuanians and others. The majority are protestants; 200,000 Letts are Greek Orthodox, and a number of the people are Roman Catholic. Before the war the Latvian territory had ninety-eight secondary schools with 22,600 pupils. In 1919 the Riga Polytechnic was transformed into the Latvian university, which accommodates at present over 3,000 students. The Musical academy in Riga has also been reopened.

1918.—Formation of an independent state.—**Constitution.**—Following the declaration of the Letts in favor of an independent state in 1917, (see BALTIC PROVINCES: 1917) officially presented to the Russian Constituent Assembly in 1918, the Free State of Latvia, the ancient Livonia, was proclaimed on November 18, 1918, by an organization established for this purpose in Riga. The proposed constitution provides for a Constituent Assembly of 150 members to be elected by universal, equal and direct suffrage of both sexes, twenty-one years of age. Until the Constituent Assembly was convoked, the highest authority of the republic was vested in the State Council, which consisted of 120 members, seventy-eight representing the Letts and the remaining twenty-four, Germans, Russians, Jews and Lithuanians. There was also a cabinet, responsible to the state council, and a ministry consisting of the ministers of the interior, foreign affairs, finance, national defence, trade and industry, public works, public instruction, agriculture, justice, supplies, and the state

controller. The republic was recognized *de facto* by Great Britain, Japan, Italy, and several of the smaller states.—See also LIVONIA: 1917.

1919.—Reconstruction activities in the new states. See above, ESTHONIA.

1920.—Peace with Russia.—A treaty of peace was signed between Latvia and soviet Russia on August 12, under the terms of which Russia unconditionally recognized the independence and sovereignty of Latvia and renounced all sovereign rights which Russia had formerly held over the people and land. Both sides renounced all claims of indemnities or compensation. Russia agreed to restore all property taken from Latvia during the war, or, as an alternative, to pay for such property in the sum of 4,000,000 gold rubles.—The Lettish government had appointed one Alfred Nagel as secretary of the new Latvian legation in Washington. The latter was arrested by the American immigration officials on his arrival, August 21.—"Mr. Nagel protested against his detention, and declared that although a peace agreement had been signed with the government of Lenin, Latvia did not lean toward Bolshevism, against which form of government, he stated, he had written several articles. He admitted that he was married to a German woman. The United States authorities alleged that Nagel had rendered secret service to the Germans during the war, and cabled the Latvian Government asking for his recall. The matter was closed by the announcement from Walter M. Chandler, legal adviser to the new republic, that Nagel's appointment had been cancelled by the Latvian Government, and that he would return to Europe of his own accord."—*New York Times Current History*, Oct., 1920, p. 95.—See also BALTIC PROVINCES; RUSSIA: 1920.

1921.—Extent of territory. See EUROPE: Modern: Political map of Europe.

ALSO IN: M. Martina, *L'Estonie (Rome, 1920).—Mémoire sur l'indépendance de l'Esthonie, présenté à la Conférence de la Paix par la délégation Esthonienne.*—H. Hollmann, *Kurlands Agrarverhältnisse (Riga, 1893).*—E. Seraphim, *Geschichte Livlands, Esthlands und Kurlands (2 vols., Reval, 1895-1896).*—Handbooks prepared under the direction of the Historical Section of the [British] Foreign Office.

BALTIMORE, Cecilius Calvert, 2d baron (c. 1605-1675), son of George Calvert, Lord Baltimore (q.v.), and real founder of Maryland.

Planting of colony at St. Marys, and quarrel with Clayborne of Virginia over Kent Island. See MARYLAND: 1633-1637; 1635-1638; VIRGINIA: 1630-1652.

Attitude toward Puritan settlement in Maryland. See MARYLAND: 1643-1649, and 1650-1675.

BALTIMORE, George Calvert, 1st baron (c. 1580-1632), British statesman, and member of House of Commons in 1621 and 1624. Became interested in colonization of the New World and obtained a charter to found a colony under the title of the Province of Avalon. He crossed the ocean several times in the interests of this project, which finally failed. In 1632 he obtained a grant of the territory which was called "Maryland" (see also MARYLAND: 1632; and U. S. A.: 1607-1752). Before the title was issued, Sir George died and the grant devolved upon his son Cecil (q.v.).—See also NEWFOUNDLAND: 1610-1655.

BALTIMORE, capital of the state of Maryland.

Area.—Population.—Industries and commerce.—**Port.—Educational center.**—According to the latest census (1920), Baltimore occupies an area of 51,520 acres with a population of 733,826. "It is

one of the country's leading seaports, ranking about fifth in value of exports and imports. This city is an important wholesale and distributing center, and has very good railway facilities. The leading industries are the manufacture of men's clothing, copper, tin and sheet iron products, tobacco manufactures, slaughtering and meat packing, foundry and machine shop products, printing and publishing, steam railroad repair shops, also canning and preserving, bread and other bakery products, confectionery, patent medicines and compounds, and druggists' preparations, lumber and timber products, women's clothes and malt and distilled liquors. The capital investment in manufactures in 1914 amounted to

boats. A two-story recreation pier at the foot of Broadway was completed early in 1914. The lower floor of this structure is used for commercial purposes; the upper section for a recreation center."—*Baltimore Book* (1916), p. 29.

Baltimore is considered an educational center, with such leading institutions as Johns Hopkins University, the Goucher College of Baltimore, and a number of prominent medical and law schools. "The City also boasts of the Peabody Institute, which consists of an art gallery, a library and a conservatory of music which is recognized as one of the leading schools of music in the country; the Maryland Institute of Art and Design, the



JOHN MOALE'S VIEW OF BALTIMORE IN 1752

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| 1, 2. Two houses near Forrest Lane and Baltimore St. | 16. Mr. N. Rogers', on ground of back building of No. 108 Baltimore St. |
| 3. Near the corner of Sharp and Baltimore Sts. | 17. Ward, the barber's, on ground 99 Baltimore St. |
| 4. Brewery. Hanover Street opposite Indian Queen. | 18. Opposite Maryland Insurance Office. |
| 5. House opposite Indian Queen Stables, German Lane. | 19. Near corner of South and Water Sts. |
| 6. A house which stood in Baltimore St. | 20. Southeast corner South and Baltimore Sts. |
| 7. The first Tobacco Inspection House, Charles St. | 21. On or near Holliday St., opposite theatre. |
| 8. On or near Vulcan Alley. | 22. Part of Old, or Jones-Town, up the Falls. |
| 9. Capt. Darby Lux's, opposite Bank and west of Light St. | 23. The Cool Spring, generally used by the Town, at the head of the Basin, a few feet west of Charles St. |
| 10. Near corner Chatham St. and St. Paul's Lane. | 24. Deep Point, where the second wharf was built. |
| 11. St. Paul's Church, the first built. | 25. Skeleton of Sloop Dove, first vessel belonging to Baltimore. |
| 12. Mr. W. Rogers', N.E. cor. Baltimore St. and St. Paul's Lane. | 26. Sloop Baltimore, the second vessel. |
| 13. Kaminesky's Tavern, Bank near Light St. | 27. Brig of Mr. N. Rogers, the first square-built vessel, and the only one at that time. |
| 14. N.W. corner Bank and Calvert Sts. | 28. Jones' Falls, as they appeared at that day, from the Federal Hill, whence Mr. Moale made his draft. |
| 15. The first brick house built in Baltimore, erected about 40 ft. south of new court house. Bricks and stones imported. | 29. Calvert St. Wharf, 30 Philadelphia Road. |
| | 30. Site of Battle Monument. |

\$177,301,000, while the value of manufactured products for the same year was \$215,172,000."—*Moody's Analyses of investments* (1919) p. 264.—"Prior to the fire of 1904 the City owned little wharf property of importance. The fire made it possible to acquire all of the burned district fronting on the harbor. The City purchased the property, removed all buildings, streets, etc., and laid out a system of public wharves and docks along Pratt, President and Albemarle streets. The piers are situated in the upper harbor and are intended for the coastwise and bay trade. The transatlantic steamers, at present, find ample accommodations at the railroad piers in the lower harbor. Along Market Place the City has erected three handsome, commodious buildings, a fish market and wholesale markets, all within a stone's throw of Pier 4, which is set apart for the use of market

Walters Art Gallery, which is far-famed; the Enoch Pratt Free Library, with its multiplicity of branches; the Maryland University, with its various departments of learning, and a score of other institutions devoted to the culture and intellectual pursuits. Aside from these, there are the Baltimore public schools, with their several colleges."—*Ibid.*, p. 105.

1608-1797.—*Settlement*.—"To begin at the very beginning of direct historical information concerning Baltimore, one must go back to the year 1608. June 2nd, 1608, Captain John Smith . . . having settled Jamestown, started from the vicinity of Cape Henry, on the first of his two famous explorations of the Chesapeake Bay. During this expedition, which lasted nineteen days, he visited every inlet on both sides of the Bay, from the Capes to the Patapsco River (named by Smith,

Bolus), sailed up that stream, and from him we get the first information concerning the region, now Baltimore. Smith and his followers were, therefore, the first white men to set eyes on the present site of the City. . . . Following Captain Smith's explorations in this vicinity, there is a lapse of years before the thread of the narrative can be taken up by the historian. In the absence of proof to the contrary it must be assumed that Indians roamed over the site of Baltimore at will, or at least without interference from white men; for it was not until 1661 that history records the second step in the advance of civilization. In 1661 the first surveys were made, pursuant to land grants, and henceforth this section became the permanent habitation of white men. Tract after tract was taken up by settlers, and in 1706 Locust Point, then 'Whetstone Point,' was made a port of entry."—*Baltimore Book* (1916), pp. 143-145.—In August, 1729, an act of the provincial legislature formally laid out the town of Baltimore, named in honor of the Lords Baltimore, founders of the province of Maryland. Its commercial development was rapid after 1750. Baltimore was incorporated as a city in 1797.—See also MARYLAND: 1729-1730.

1812.—Rioting of the war party.—Mob and the Federalists. See U. S. A.: 1812 (June-October).

1814.—British attempt against the city. See MARYLAND: 1812-1814; and see U. S. A.: 1814 (August-September).

1852.—Whig convention. See U. S. A.: 1852: Seventeenth presidential election.

1860.—Douglas Democratic and Constitutional Union conventions. See U. S. A.: 1860 (April-November).

1861 (April).—City controlled by the Secessionists.—Attack on the Sixth Massachusetts regiment. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): Activity of rebellion in Virginia and Maryland.

1861 (May).—Disloyalty put down. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April-May: Maryland).

1864.—Republican convention. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-November).

1866.—National labor congress. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1825-1875.

1871-1915.—Colored population.—Negro segregation ordinance.—"At the close of the eighteenth century the actual number of negroes in Maryland was larger than the number in any of the other states with the exception of Virginia and South Carolina, about one-third of its population being of African descent. At the close of the nineteenth century . . . the percentage of negroes was considerably greater than that in any other of the border States, about the same as that of Texas, and not very much less than that of Tennessee. Moreover, the negro population was very unevenly distributed. In five counties south of the Patapsco, where the negroes in 1860 had outnumbered the whites by about 13,000, the exodus of blacks to the cities had given the white in 1900 a small preponderance. In the Southern counties on the Eastern Shore the negroes in the same year constituted about one-third of the population. In Baltimore City the negro population had risen from 27,898 in 1860 to 79,258 in 1900. According to the figures of the Federal census of that year, the negro inhabitants of the city outnumbered those of any other city in the country with the exception of Washington, and as the area included in the Baltimore count was only thirty square miles, the number of negroes to the square mile in Baltimore was greater than in any other city in the United States, or, in fact, it is probable that no other

thirty square miles on the globe was inhabited by so large a negro population as that of Baltimore."—C. C. Hall, *Baltimore, its history and its people*, p. 326.—Various provisions have been made for the segregation of the negroes. They have had to use separate schools, separate churches, and until 1871, separate coaches in railway cars. On September 25, 1913, was passed "an ordinance to prevent conflict and ill-feeling between the white and colored races in Baltimore City, and to preserve the public peace and promote the general welfare by making reasonable provisions requiring the use of separate blocks for residences by white and colored people, respectively."—*Ordinances and resolutions of the Mayor and City Council*, 1913-14, p. 117.—This ordinance was further supplemented on November 8, 1913, by a provision that "no building or portion of a building in the City of Baltimore shall be used as a church or for the purpose of conducting religious services, or for a school, a dance hall or an assemblage hall, by white persons in a colored block . . . or . . . by colored persons, in a white block."—*Ordinances and resolutions of the Mayor and City Council*, 1913-1914, pp. 143-144.—After the ordinance had been in effect for about a year, a test case was brought before the court of appeals of Maryland, in October, 1915, in which the city administration, representing the people of Baltimore, defended the ordinance against opposition which came both from white and colored people. A prominent part in the opposition was played by Senator Moses E. Clapp, of Minnesota.

1904.—Great fire.—On February 7 and 8, 1904, "the heart of Baltimore was burned out, . . . smoldering ashes and hideous debris stretched over 140 acres. . . . The loss, approximately \$125,000,000, was a staggering blow."—*Baltimore Book* (1916), p. 11.—The fire burned thirty hours and destroyed about 2,600 buildings. But it aroused the spirit of progress and cleared the way for many civic improvements.

1912.—National Democratic convention. See U. S. A.: 1912: Woodrow Wilson and the election.

1914-1915.—Home rule.—The city of Baltimore obtained the right of home rule by an amendment to the Maryland constitution passed by the legislature in 1914, and voted upon for adoption at the general election in 1915.

1917.—Housing improvements.—New housing code.—Octavia Hill association.—A new housing code drafted in 1917 and submitted to the city council provides that dwelling places shall be built with ample cubic air space and light in each room and that water closets shall be within the houses instead of in the yards. The same year a committee on public health and housing was appointed by the mayor. Following its investigations, an Octavia Hill association, on the model of the Philadelphia association, was to be formed, but the plan had to be delayed on account of the war.

1918.—Increase in area.—City planning.—Annexations effective June 1, 1918, doubled both the area and the water front of Baltimore. The topographical survey commission renewed city planning activities.

1919.—Sewage disposal.—Partly as a result of war-time economies, the city changed from reduction to hog feeding as a method of sewage disposal and let a contract which was expected to net the city \$16,500 annually.

1920.—Police department reorganized.—"The Baltimore police department, according to a new law of Maryland, is henceforth to be under control of a single commissioner instead of a board of police. Moreover, the voters of the city are to

determine whether the police force is to continue under state control or is to be made responsible to the mayor."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Municipal affairs (Political Science Quarterly, Supplement, Sept., 1920)*.

ALSO IN: J. H. Hollander, *Guide to the city of Baltimore; Financial history of Baltimore*.—J. T. Scharf, *Chronicles of Baltimore*.

BALTIMORE AND OHIO RAILROAD: Its beginning and growth.—Plan for consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1826-1850; 1850-1860; 1921: Twenty rail systems proposed.

BALTIMORE INCIDENT. See CHILE: 1891-1892; U. S. A.: 1891: Trouble with Chile.

BALTS, German inhabitants of Baltic provinces, also Lithuanians. See BALTIC PROVINCES: Original and existing races, 1867-1918.

BALUCHISTAN, or Balochistan: Political divisions.—Area.—Population.—A county in Southern Central Asia, lying to the south of Afghanistan, and extending to the Persian Gulf. "Balochistan, in the modern acceptation of the term may be said, in a general sense, to include all that tract of country which has for its northern and north-eastern boundary the large kingdom of Afghanistan, its eastern frontier being limited by the British province of Sindh, and its western by the Persian State, while the Arabian Sea washes its southern base for a distance of nearly six hundred miles."—A. W. Hughes, *Country of Balochistan*, p. 2.—Much of Baluchistan is under British control. The territory "is politically divided into two main parts: (a) A strip of country on the north (53,821 square miles in extent), which since 1870 has been under direct British control, part of it by cession from Afghanistan after the second Afghan War (see Afghanistan (1869-1881) and part of it acquired by lease from the Khan of Kalat, the large native state to the south; and (b) a much larger area (78,034 square miles) included within the two native states of Kalat (71,500 square miles) and Las Bela (6,441 square miles), which front on the Arabian Sea. In area, the Khanate of Kalat represents over half of Baluchistan; nevertheless, in population and general importance the strictly British territory to the north is worthy of most consideration, and is the only part that shows any signal advancement. While the British government maintains political agents or residents at Kalat town, the capital of Kalat, and at Bela, the capital of Las Bela, their intervention in these States is confined mostly to occasional arbitration of intertribal disputes."—H. D. Baker, *British India (Special consular reports, No. 72, p. 474)*.—"The British territory is administered from Quetta, the headquarters of the Province, by a Chief Commissioner, and the Agency territories and other portions of Baluchistan by the same officer as Agent to the Governor-General. . . . Baluchistan is of great strategic importance, commanding the numerous passes to the south of the great caravan route through the Gomal to Ghazni, Kabul, and Kandahar."—*Hazell's annual and almanack*, 1920.

According to the British "India Office List" the population of British Baluchistan in 1911 was 414,412, and of the Baluchistan States 420,291.

Origin of the name.—Aboriginal races and tribes.—"Professor Rawlinson derives the name of the 'Baloch' from Belus, king of Babylon, who is identified with Nimrod, the son of Cush, and says that 'the names of Belus and Cush, thus brought into juxtaposition have remained attached to some portion or other of the region in question from ancient times to the present day. The country East of Kirman was called Kusem throughout the Sassanian period. The same region is now Beloo-

chistan, the country of the Beloochees or Belus, whilst adjoining it to the East is Cutch or Kooch.' With the name of Cush may be yoked 'Kech' (the capital of Makran), 'Kachi' (a province of Baloochistan) and 'Cashmere'; and, as the Sindhis call the Baloch, 'Baroc', 'Kach and Baroch' (Cutch and Broach of our maps) may be linked together. The country now called Balochistan was called by the Greeks 'Gedrosia' and was inhabited on the seacoast by the 'Ichthyophagi' (fish-eaters) and on the North-West by the Paricanii, Utii, Maki and other tribes. [According to Charles Masson, the Baluchis are divided into three great classes, the Brabus (who are a different race from the true Baluchis), the Rinds, and the Lumris (or Numris)]. One of the tribes or clans now inhabiting it, viz., the Rind tribe (whose name signifies a 'turbulent, reckless, daring man')—which, it may be noted, has never acknowledged the authority of any ruler in the country, and each individual member of which professes to owe obedience to no one, so that the tribe has no recognised head—assert that they originally came from 'Alaf,' which is supposed by themselves . . . to be Haleb or Aleppo in Syria. They say that they are Arabs of the tribe of Quraish and were forced to the number of 40,000 to emigrate from 'Alaf' by Yazid I, for having rendered assistance to Husain 'the martyr,' nephew of the prophet Muhammad, in A. H. 61. . . . These Rinds claim to be the true Baloch, and to one of their ancestors named Jalal Khan, or rather to one of his sons, whose names are made to suit the exigencies of each clan, the pedigree-makers of almost every clan in Makran, claiming to be respectable, are pretty certain to trace their clans' descent. Pottinger records the fact that, in his day the Brahuis (who are Dravidian Cushites) claimed descent from the earliest Muhammadan invaders of Persia, by whom the Rinds are doubtless intended. The Kalmatis of Kalamat (the Kalama of Arian and others) make a man named Kalamat their ancestor, a Rind, and one of the four sons of Jalal Khan. . . . That some families in most of the Baloch clans, in nearly all, perhaps, are related by marriage to the Rinds is quite possible . . . but I doubt if very free intermarriage between many clans and them, has at any time been prevalent. Among the earliest mention of Makran and the Baloch with which I am acquainted are various passages in the Shah-nama of Firdusi (compiled about A.D. 1000 by command of King Mahmud of Ghazni, who is said to have ordered all available resources to be placed at the disposal of the author) in which it is stated that Kai Khusru (about B.C. 550) King of Persia passed through Makran and killed the king of the country."—E. Mockler, *Origin of the Baloch (Journal of the Asiatic Society of Bengal, v. 64, pt. 1, no. 1, pp. 30-31)*.

B.C. 325.—Traversed by Alexander.—"The early history of the country of Balochistan, before the march of Alexander the Great through its two southernmost provinces, Las and Makran, is involved in the greatest obscurity. . . . Arrian's account of the Macedonian monarch's march from India, through the country of the Oritæ and the Gedrosii, clearly shows the former to have comprised the present district of Kolwah, with the tract adjacent to it on the west in the Makran Province, and this has contributed in some degree to invest these poor and wretched places with no small interest and renown. Alexander is, by his historian, said to have left Pattala, in Sindh (presumed to be Tatta, on the Indus), some time either in the months of March or April [B.C. 325], and to have proceeded in the direction of Bela,

crossing in his route the lower ranges of the Brahuik mountains. Thence he marched in the direction of Jau, in Makran, forcing a very difficult pass some distance southeast of the ancient town of Gwajak, and here it was that the natives of the country had assembled in considerable numbers to oppose his progress. He is then supposed to have kept somewhat nearer the coast, traversing the present Kolwah district, where mention is made of the difficulty experienced in procuring water. The great conqueror's admiral, Nearchus, about the same time, under the direction of Alexander and for purposes principally of discovery, coasted along the shores of Balochistan, and his account of the natives he met with, and the difficulty he found in obtaining supplies, is as credible as if the voyage had been carried on under similar circumstances at the present day. The severest privations of fatigue, hunger, and thirst had to be endured by all, from the highest to the lowest, and both the fleet and army suffered extreme hardship, until the latter reached the fertile and cultivated valley on the western border of Gedrosia, the present Banpur; thence it passed into Kermania, now known as the Persian Province of Kerman. It would appear that another detachment of the Greek army marched from India to Persia by a higher route, through Arachosia and Drangiana, the modern Kandahar and Sistan districts. This was the force under Kraterus, which does not seem to have met with so many difficulties and obstructions as that immediately under Alexander's command in the country of Gedrosia (Makran).—A. W. Hughes, *Country of Balochistan*, pp. 177-178.

A.D. 711-1030.—Invasion of Arabs.—Conquests of Musaud.—“In A.D. 711, or about a thousand years after Alexander's march through the country, the army sent by the Governor of Basreh, Hejaj, under the command of the celebrated Arab general, Muhammad Kasim Sakifi, is supposed to have effected the subjugation of Makran on its route; and from this date may no doubt be traced the colonization of much of the country by various tribes of Arabs. Between this period and the early part of the eleventh century little seems to be known of any part of Balochistan; but about A.D. 1030 it is recorded that Musaud, the son of Mahmud of Ghazni, extended his conquests up to Makran, but did not penetrate into the mountainous portion of Balochistan. His inroad seems to have been confined almost entirely to the level districts, and without any attempt at a permanent retention of the country. Nor can this be wondered at, since neither the country nor its people were able to offer sufficient inducements for their conquest, though it would seem to be an ascertained fact that its wilds and fastnesses were often resorted to by defeated or disappointed competitors for the thrones of neighbouring States as places of temporary refuge.”—*Ibid.*, p. 179.

1380-1386.—Conquest by Timur. See TIMUR OR TIMOUR.

17th century.—Brahui conquest.—Sewahs displaced.—Mohammedanism introduced.—“After this there is another great gap in the history of Balochistan, and nothing at all definite is known till the period of the Brahui conquest, under the direction of one Kambar, a chief of the Mirwari tribe, which is believed to have occurred towards the latter end of the seventeenth century. Before this period there is a tradition that a Muhammadan family, the Sehrais, ruled at Kafat, and their burial-ground, says [Charles] Masson [the American explorer], is still shown immediately south of the town walls of the capital of Balochistan. This

reigning family seems to have been displaced by a Hindu caste, the Sewahs, but when they began to wield supreme power in the country, and how long their rule lasted, history does not record. This much, however, is known, that the Sewahs in their turn were ousted by the Brahuik tribe, under the leader already mentioned, and Pottinger thus relates the story of the revolution:—“Kalat had previously been governed by a Hindu dynasty for many centuries, and the last Rajah was either named Sewah, or that had always been the hereditary title assumed by the princes of his race on mounting the *gadi*. This last surmise seems to be the best founded, because the city of Kalat is at this hour very frequently spoken of as Kalati Sewah, an appellation it is more likely to have derived from a line of governors than from one individual. . . . Sewah was at length obliged to invite to his aid the mountain shepherds with their leader, against the encroachments of a horde of depredators from the western parts of Multan, Shikarpur, and Upper Sindh, who, headed by an Afghan chief, with a few of his followers and a Rind Baloch tribe called the Mazaris . . . [once] famous for its robberies, infested the whole country, and had even threatened to attack the seat of government, which was then nothing better than a straggling village. The chief who obeyed the summons was Kambar. . . . On their first ascending the lofty mountains of Jhalawan and Sarawan, these auxiliaries were allowed by Sewah a very small pittance, on which they could scarcely support life; but in a few years, having either extirpated or quelled the robbers against whom they had been called in, and finding themselves and their adherents the only military tribe in the country, and consequently masters of it, Kambar formally deposed the Rajah, and, assuming the government himself, forced numbers of the Hindus to become Musalmans, and, under the cloak of religious zeal, put others to death. Sewah, the Rajah, with a trifling portion of the population, fled towards Zehri, where his son Sangin was still in power; but their new enemies daily acquired fresh strength by the enrolment of other tribes under their banners, and at length succeeded in driving them from that retreat, whence they repaired to the cities of Shikarpur, Bakhar, and Multan, and obtained an asylum among the inhabitants there, who were principally of their own creed. Sewah is said to have died during the latter part of this rebellion, and his son Sangin, being made a prisoner, abjured his faith and embraced Islamism, which example was adopted by a good number of his followers, who still retain evidence of their former religion in the name of their tribe, that of Guruwani.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 180-181.

18th century.—Abdulla Khan.—Conquered by Nadir Shah.—Tyrannical rule of Mohbat Khan.—“The fourth ruler in descent from Kambar was Abdulla Khan, an enterprising chieftain, whose lawless exploits and marauding excursions still form a stirring theme for the wandering minstrels of Balochistan, one to which the Brahui still loves to listen. He is believed to have succeeded to the Khanship about the commencement of the eighteenth century, but, at all events, he was the ruler of Kalat some time before the celebrated Nadir Shah of Persia invaded India in 1739. Abdulla Khan, who was a brave and ambitious man, had about this time occupied himself in subjugating the large province of Kachh Gandava, then held by a number of petty chiefs, the majority of whom paid tribute to the Kalhora princes of Sindh. . . . He also made marauding excursions to Kej and Panjgur, in the Makran Province. Nadir Shah, when at Kandahar, is reported to have sent

a portion of his forces under experienced commanders to effect the reduction of Balochistan, and this seems to have been attended with success, since the two sons of Abdula Khan were forwarded to the Persian monarch as hostages for their father's good behaviour, Abdula Khan being confirmed by Nadir in the government of the Kalati kingdom. In another inroad made by this ruler into Kachh Gandava, he, with but 1500 men, ventured to attack a large Sindhi force of 8000 men at a place between Dadar and Mittri, in that district, and was there slain with 300 of his followers. His son, Mohbat Khan, one of the hostages in the camp of Nadir Shah, having received the usual *khilat*, on honorary dress, from that monarch, at once proceeded to Kalat and assumed the government of Balochistan. . . . Nadir, according to Masson, also appears to have ceded Kachh Gandava to the Baloch ruler as an equivalent or atonement for the blood of his slaughtered father, Abdula Khan; but it is thought that the services rendered by Mohbat Khan to the Persian King by engaging in hostilities with the Ghiljis, the inveterate enemies of the latter, had more to do with this cession than anything else. After Nadir's death in 1747, Mohbat Khan made an incursion towards Kandahar, but the active successor to the Persian throne, Ahmad Shah Durani, soon revenged this insult by invading the Baloch province of Sarawan and taking away with him the two brothers of the Kalat ruler, Eltarz Khan and Nasir Khan, as sureties for his future good behaviour. The tyrannical conduct of Mohbat Khan had incensed the chiefs of the country, and the Sardar of Sarawan put himself in communication with both Nasir and Ahmad Shah Durani, the latter of whom summoned Mohbat to his capital, and kept him captive till his death; his brother, Nasir Khan, being sent to Kalat to rule in his stead."—*Ibid.*, pp. 183-185.

1739-1795.—**Reign of Nasir Khan.**—**Progressive rule.**—"Nasir Khan at all events justified the choice of his subjects, and he soon began to initiate large and enlightened schemes of policy, such as no ruler either before or after him has ever done. He had had the misfortune, when a hostage at Kandahar, to kill *accidentally* his brother Eltarz Khan, from whom the Eltarzai families of Baghwana and Kotri are descended; but on his accession to power he took the best steps to secure both the fidelity and esteem of his subjects. The great desire of this ruler seems to have been the firm union of the Baloch community, and with the view, says Masson, of engaging the hearty co-operation of his tribes, and to secure the recent acquisition of Kachh Gandava, he divided its lands and revenues into four equal portions, making over two shares to the tribes of Sarawan and Jhalawan, assigning another to the Jat population of the country, and retaining the fourth to benefit his own revenue. . . . Nasir Khan, in order to foster trade in Balochistan, is said to have remitted many of the taxes imposed on merchandise by his brother, fixing them at a moderate rate. He was also extremely solicitous to induce Hindus to reside in his towns, and he revived an old grant formerly made by one of his predecessors, which empowered them to levy, for the maintenance of a Hindu temple and its priests at Kalat, one quarter of a rupee on every camel-load of goods entering the bazar. He also recalled a colony of Babis who had been expelled by his brother. It is to Nasir Khan also that may be attributed the planting of the numerous gardens in the valley close to the town of Kalat; he stocked them with fruit-trees brought from Kabul and Persia, and offered re-

wards for the finest specimens of fruit, grain, etc."—*Ibid.*, pp. 185-186.

1839-1841.—**British advance.**—Nasir Khan II recognized.—"Baluchistan, lying on the far side of the Bolan Pass, is well outside the geographical limits of India. [British] political relations with the country began in 1830 [when Khelat, the capital, was taken by the British army on its way through the Bolan Pass to Afghanistan]."—*Oxford survey of the British empire*, v. 2, p. 285.—The ruler, Mehrab Khan, was killed, but in 1841 the British recognized his young son, Nasir Khan II, and evacuated the country.

1854-1874.—**Treaty with British government (1854).**—**Failure.**—In 1854 a treaty was concluded between Nasir Khan II and the British government, in which the ruler of Baluchistan promised to cooperate with the British army against its enemies, and to prevent his subjects from plundering British merchants. In return Nasir Khan II was to receive an annual subsidy of 50,000 rupees. As long as Nasir Khan lived he fulfilled the terms of this treaty, but his successors were either unable or unwilling to do so, and diplomatic relations with the Kalat state were ended in 1874.

1876-1887.—**Foundation of the British province.**—**Treaty of 1876.**—**Incorporation of British Baluchistan with British India.**—"Quetta was permanently occupied in 1876, and the surrounding territory was leased from the Khan of Kalat (Khelat) in 1883. The founder of the province as it now exists was Sir Robert Sandeman [who first entered the province in 1876 and who became agent to the governor general in Baluchistan]."—*Oxford survey of the British empire*, v. 2, p. 285.—The treaty of 1876 renewed the older treaty of 1854 in many particulars, but in the matter of non-intervention the clauses were changed, and Great Britain reserved the right to settle disputes between the Khan and the sirdars (native chiefs). The Quetta district has been administered by British officers since 1877. British Baluchistan was incorporated with British India in 1887 and was divided into two districts, Quetta-Pishin and Thal-Chotiali.

1893-1899.—In 1893 Sir James Browne, who succeeded Sir Robert Sandeman, had serious trouble with Mir Khodadad Khan over the management of his court, which ended in the Khan's deposition. Finally in 1899 the Nushki district was leased in perpetuity to the British government which gave the government control of the highway to Seistan.

1903-1914.—**Lease of territory to Indian government.**—**Rising of tribesmen.**—**Gun-running on Perso-Mekran coast.**—**Measures for suppression.**—In 1903 the Khan of Kalat leased in perpetuity to the Indian government the territory of Nasirabad, about 500 square miles, and the Manjuti lands, about 250 square miles, at an annual rental of 1,17,500 rupees. During 1908 a tribe called the Mengals, dwelling in the Kalat State, numbering about 50,000, refused to accept the chief appointed by the Khan. A military expedition was sent from Quetta by the Indian government, composed of 300 infantry, two guns and a detachment of cavalry during August, but the tribesmen submitted without fighting and acknowledged the new ruler, Hajji Ibrahim Khan. For a considerable time there had been a prevalence of gun-running on the Perso-Mekran coast, most of the guns, revolvers and ammunition being intended for Afghanistan. The Indian government strengthened the naval force in the Persian Gulf and sent warships to the Baluchistan coast on the Arabian Sea. A number of dhows laden with arms and ammunition were captured; troops were landed to

destroy the depots along the coast. There were frequent encounters with the tribesmen who stored the weapons or the Afghans who came to take them into the interior. It was estimated that 16,500 rifles and about 1,250,000 rounds of ammunition, besides many revolvers and pistols were landed on the Mekran coast during 1909-1910. Of this number, over 10,000 were captured. A strict patrolling and blockade of the coast was maintained during 1912-1913. A convention was concluded with the sultan of Muscat in 1912 with a view to checking the traffic, and in 1914 an agreement was concluded between Great Britain and France by which the latter recognized the new arms traffic regulations drawn up in the Muscat agreement, and at the same time surrendered certain privileges and immunities granted by former treaties.

ALSO IN: T. H. Holdich, *Indian borderland*.—C. MacGregor, *Wanderings in Baluchistan*.—E. A. Floyer, *Unexplored Baluchistan*.—E. E. Oliver, *Across the border, or, Pathan and Baluch*.

BALUZE, Etienne (1630-1718), seventeenth century historian. Author of "Francorum Capitularia Regum" (1677); "Vies des Papes d'Avignon" (1693); "Historia Tutelensis" (1717), etc. See HISTORY: 24.

BALZAC, Honoré de (1799-1850), French novelist. Destined by his father for the law, he revolted and began his literary career in Paris by writing dramas for which he had little aptitude. His real literary career began in 1829, and continued to his death. His works embrace every phase of fiction, and are coordinated in what Balzac calls the "Comédie humaine," a framework into which he fits varied pictures of life, in Paris, in the country, and even philosophical studies.—See also FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

BAMIDUNIYA. See ROOF OF THE WORLD.

BAN.—BANAT.—"A district in southern Hungary between the Danube, Theiss, and Maros rivers, known as the Banat of Temesvar. "Ban is Duke (Dux), and Banat is Duchy. The territory [Hungarian] east of the Carpathians is the Banat of Severin, and that of the west the Banat of Temesvar. . . . The Banat is the cornucopia, not only of Hungary, but of the whole Austrian Empire."—A. A. Paton, *Researches on the Danube and the Adriatic*, v. 2, p. 28.—Among the Croats, "after the king, the most important officers of the state were the bans. At first there was but one ban, who was a kind of lieutenant-general; but later on there were seven of them, each known by the name of the province he governed, as the ban of Sirmia, ban of Dalmatia, etc. To this day [1879] the royal lieutenant of Croatia (or 'governor-general,' if that title be preferred) is called the ban."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, p. 55.—See also FRANKS: 500-768; BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities; HUNGARY: 1847-1849; WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: d.

1716.—Recovered from Turks. See HUNGARY: 1690-1718.

1919.—At the Peace Conference in 1919 the Banat "was claimed by both Rumanians and Serbs, the former demanding all of it, the latter only the western portion, since the eastern third is admittedly Rumanian. . . . The commission decided to divide the Banat, giving the western third to the Serbs and the eastern two-thirds to the Rumanians."—E. M. House and C. Seymour, *What really happened at Paris*, p. 106.

BAN, Imperial. See SAXONY: 1178-1183.

BANALITE, the right of a feudal lord of France to prohibit his vassals from using a forge, wine-press, oven or mill, etc., other than that of

the over-lord. By this the lord was secured of a dangerous monopoly of the trade but the usage also prevented needless reduplication. *Banalités* were probably not older than the eleventh century and were abolished at the time of the French revolution by a series of laws—1790, 1792 and 1793.

BANBURY, Battle of.—Sometimes called the "battle of Edgecote"; fought July 26, 1469, and with success, by a body of Lancastrian insurgents, in the English "Wars of the Roses," against the forces of the Yorkist king, Edward IV.—Mrs. Hookman, *Life and times of Margaret of Anjou*, v. 2, ch. 5.

BANCO ALEMANA TRANSATLANTICO. See DEUTSCHE BANK.

BANCROFT, George (1800-1891), American historian. Secretary of the navy 1845-1846, minister to England 1846-1849, and to Germany 1867-1874; known chiefly for his great work on American history. Author of minor works on European and American history.—See also HISTORY: 28.

BANCROFT, Hubert Howe (1832-1918), American historian, bookseller and publisher; author of comprehensive histories of the western half of North America, the greatest of which is the "History of the Pacific States of North America."

BANDA ISLANDS, a group of islands in the archipelago of Moluccas, south of Ceram. See MOLUCCAS.

BANDA ORIENTAL.—Signifying the "Eastern Border"; a name applied originally by the Spaniards to the country on the eastern side of Rio de La Plata which afterwards took the name of Uruguay.—See also ARGENTINA: 1580-1777; BRAZIL: 1825-1865.

BANDE-SAPT, a town in eastern France, taken by the Germans in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: f, 2.

BANER (Banner, Banier, Johan (1596-1641), Swedish general in the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1634-1639; 1640-1645.

BANGALORE, population 189,485, is the seat of government of the progressive state of Mysore in southern India. As a manufacturing town it is noted for its carpets, cotton and woolen manufactures, and tanneries. A large section of the city, known as the "cantonment," is under direct British authority, and contains important military barracks, etc. It is the chief military station of southern India and usually has a garrison of about 10,000 British troops.—H. D. Baker, *British India (Special Consular Reports, No. 72, p. 54)*.

Capture of Bangalore (1790). See INDIA: 1785-1793.

BANGKOK, capital of Siam. It is a port and coaling station on the Menam, and exports tropical products. It has been called the Venice of the East, because until recently canals have been its chief thoroughfares. Its many gorgeously decorated temples make it one of the most picturesque of the Oriental cities. The population is estimated at about 650,000 (1920).—See also SIAM.

BANK CHARTER ACT, England (1844). See BANK OF ENGLAND; MONEY AND BANKING: 1844.

BANK NOTES, Stolen: Law governing. See COMMERCIAL LAW: 1760.

BANK OF AMSTERDAM.—"The bank was founded by an ordinance of the City of Amsterdam of January 31, 1609, and was called the Exchange Bank (*Amsterdamsche Wisselbank*). . . . All bills of exchange were required to be paid through the bank, and the institution was required to sell any kind of specie demanded of it at as low a premium as possible. The transferable deposits or credits came to be known as 'bank money'

and bore this designation throughout the history of the bank. The creation of a means of exchange of fixed and uniform value did much to promote the great commerce of which Amsterdam was becoming the centre. The bank accepted deposits only at their bullion value and granted credit for the amount in lawful money, subject to a proper charge for handling. Deposits were necessarily subject to charges, because the bank was supposed to keep in its vaults every gilder received and to do no loan and discount business. Payments in Amsterdam came to be made universally in bank money, by the presentation of a transfer order at the bank by the payer or his authorized agent, which entitled the payee to the credit on the next day. The bank became so general a medium of payments in Amsterdam that the most extravagant estimates were formed of the gold and silver stored in its vaults. Some put the amount as high as 900,000,000 gulden (\$360,000,000) but the more modest and accurate estimate of Adam Smith was 33,000,000 gulden (\$13,500,000). Direct redemption of bank credits in coin gradually fell into disuse, partly because bank money was so much preferable to coin for nearly all practical purposes and partly because of the acceptance of foreign coins on special deposits. The system of advances upon such deposits was formally put in operation in January, 1683, and the bank issued a receipt to the depositor for the bullion value of the deposit, certifying his right to withdraw it upon returning the bank money with which he had been credited and paying one-eighth of one per cent. interest. The right of withdrawal was forfeited if the charges were not paid and the deposit renewed within six months. It was necessary, therefore, in order to withdraw coin thus deposited, to have both the receipt and the equivalent amount of bank money. The bank money outstanding was in excess of the legal coin in the custody of the bank, but not in excess of the domestic and foreign coin and bullion. The lapsing of receipts protected the bank, therefore, from demands for coin redemption which it could not meet, while another method was adopted to prevent the excess of the bank money in circulation and to provide bullion for those who desired it for export. The method adopted by the bank for controlling the volume of circulation and maintaining its credit was the sale of bank money for specie or specie for bank money in such amounts as the public might require. Regular agents of the bank were charged with these transactions and kept the premium on bank money within narrow limits and its value substantially unchanged. It was supposed until the last half of the eighteenth century that the bank had sacredly fulfilled its obligations to keep in the vaults the exact amount of coin and bullion represented by the bank money outstanding. The affairs of the bank were kept secret by the small committee of the city government which was charged with its administration, and it was not generally known that as early as 1657 individuals had been permitted to overdraw their accounts and that in later years enormous loans of specie had been made to the Dutch East India Company. The truth became public property in the winter of 1780 and 1790. The premium on bank money, which was usually kept above four per cent., then fell two per cent. and in August, 1790, disappeared. The bank failed to protect its credit by purchasing bank money on an adequate scale and it was represented that large purchases would be followed by a heavy export of bullion to the injury of commerce. The possibility of deception came to an end when on November 12, 1790, a notice was

issued that silver would be sold to the holders of bank money at a rate equivalent to ninety per cent. of their claims. It was substantially an admission of insolvency and the debt was assumed in 1791 by the government of the City of Amsterdam. The effort was made to put the bank again on its feet, but time for such banks had passed, the position of Amsterdam as a commercial centre had changed, the bank was closed by a royal decree of December 10, 1819, and the small amount of bank money outstanding was soon after paid off. The Bank of Netherlands (*de Nederlandsche Bank*) was authorized by the government in 1814, after it became evident that the Bank of Amsterdam could not be revived."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, pp. 260-261.—See also MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 16th-19th centuries.

BANK OF BARCELONA. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 14th-15th centuries.

BANK OF BELGIUM. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1822-1920.

BANK OF DENMARK. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1813-1908.

BANK OF DRESDEN. See DRESDNER BANK.

BANK OF ENGLAND.—"Is the center of a great system of joint-stock and private banks, whose aggregate business and liabilities are many times greater than its own, and . . . to this system of banks are confided the financial affairs of the city which may almost be said to be the Clearing House of the world. . . . It will be seen that the Bank of England, although a highly privileged establishment, is not a government institution. It has a partial monopoly of the right of issuing notes, which in theory is destined to become complete; it has the distinction of having its notes the only paper legal tender in the United Kingdom; it is the chief depository of a government which maintains no public treasury; it is charged with the duty of keeping the registry of the public debt, and of paying the interest thereon; still it is a private corporation of the familiar type, managed by its own officers, in whose selection the government has no share, and whose responsibility is to their own stockholders alone. The Bank has duties thrown upon it, partly by law and partly by force of circumstances, which make it a highly important member of the body politic, and yet it is in form a corporation intended to earn dividends for the owners of its stock."—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 148, 161-162.—"The management of the bank is in the hands of a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, elected by stockholders who have held £500 worth of stock for at least six months previous to the election. A director is required to hold £2,000; a deputy-governor £3,000; and a governor £4,000 of the stock. The court, or board of directors meets every Thursday, when the weekly account is presented. The two governors have the chief administration of the institution, and attend daily at the bank. The Bank of England owes its origin to the financial straits to which the government of William and Mary found itself reduced in carrying on the war with Louis the Fourteenth. The revenues of the kingdom were small, the public credit weak, and the very title of the dynasty unsettled. The growing wealth and business of the country had caused private banking houses to spring up. The paper given by these houses to their creditors had acquired a circulation, limited indeed, but sufficient to show its convenience, and projects for the establishment of a public institution on the scale, if not on the model, of the great continental banks had been discussed for many years. Under these circum-

stances, as an expedient for raising a million sterling, for which no other resource could be found, the government in 1604 adopted the scheme proposed by William Paterson, a Scotch adventurer, and proposed to Parliament that a loan should be offered for public subscription and made attractive by a grant of incorporation, with banking privileges to be enjoyed by the subscribers and their successors. The measure seems to have been contested chiefly, although not wholly, on party grounds, and was passed after a severe struggle, and thus the Bank of England came into existence as a Whig corporation. [See also NETHERLANDS: 1648-1665.] The act of 1694 provided for a loan to the government of £1,200,000, bearing interest at eight per cent., and incorporated the subscribers, with this amount of nominal capital, as the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, — a title which has never been changed. The corporation was empowered to deal in coin, bullion, and exchange, and to lend upon security, but was forbidden to deal in merchandise in any form. It could not borrow nor give security by bill, bond, or agreement, for an amount exceeding its capital; no provision was made for the transfer of its bills, 'obligatory or of credit,' except by indorsement; nor was any monopoly created in its favor. In this form the charter of the Bank gave little promise of its future importance. Three years later, however, the necessities of the government and the embarrassments of the Bank, which had been obliged to suspend payment in 1696, led to a revision of the charter, in which the outlines of the great structure begin to appear. The issue of notes payable to bearer on demand was authorized, thus laying the foundation for a true banknote circulation; the monopoly of corporate organization was granted by providing that, during the continuance of the charter, no other bank or corporation in the nature of a bank should be allowed in the kingdom; and, on the other hand, the capital was doubled by a fresh advance from the stockholders to the government, and the interest payable by the latter was reduced to six per cent. From this point the growth of the Bank and the increase of its influence were rapid. The corporation became the chief depository of the public money, and the agent of the Treasury in many financial operations. In 1720 it carried on a mad struggle with the South Sea Company [see SOUTH SEA BUBBLE] for the control of the business of refunding the national debt, and managed, although with difficulty, to save its own credit in the crisis which destroyed its rival. Further loans to the government and additions to the capital of the Bank were made in quick succession. In 1722 its capital stood at nearly nine millions, and it was also able to establish from its profits the surplus [or reserve] fund now called 'the Rest,' and thus to save its dividends from serious fluctuation. [The 'rest' amounts to about £3,000,000.] In 1782 the capital had risen to more than eleven millions and a half, and in 1816 it had risen to £14,553,000, at which figure it has stood ever since. Of the loans to the government, which had risen in nearly the same proportion as the capital, one fourth was repaid in 1834, reducing the total to £11,015,100, which is its present amount [1917]. By the year 1750 the government had succeeded in reducing the interest on most of its debt to the Bank to three per cent., and it has since used the opportunity afforded by the periodical necessity for a renewal of the charter, to lessen still more the burden of its interest, by requiring from the Bank an annual bonus and other pecuniary concessions, in consideration of the extension of its monopoly."

—C. F. Dunbar, *Theory and history of banking*, pp. 132-135.—"The Bank of England had to face serious financial crisis in 1772, 1782, and 1792. Their policy in 1772 and 1782 was to support credit and to make advances to solvent merchants, with the result that the foreign exchanges turned in their favor and general bankruptcy was avoided. Mr. Bosanquet was Governor of the Bank and he adopted the policy of contracting issues while the drain of specie was going on and expanding them when the tide turned. The crisis of 1793 was precipitated by the breaking out of war with France, and was quickly followed by the stoppage of about one hundred country banks and the serious embarrassment of many others. The directors of the bank became alarmed, refused credit to strong houses and created a great scarcity in the circulating medium by the discredit cast on the notes of the country banks. The policy of contracting issues was not justified by the state of the exchanges, for gold and silver were pouring into England from France in consequence of the issue of the *assignates*, which rapidly drove coin out of circulation, and exchange was favorable with both Amsterdam and Hamburg. The absolute refusal of the bank to lend its support to credit compelled the issue of Exchequer bills by the government, which quickly improved the situation."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, p. 132.—"The Bank Restriction Act, 1797, suspended cash payments by the Bank and established an inconvertible currency with all its attendant dangers. Much has been said of the advantages which England obtained from this creation of credit on a gigantic and unlimited scale. . . . In the years immediately after the passing of the Act, both the Government and the Bank used the privileges conceded by it with the greatest prudence. It was only after 1809 that over-issue was indulged in. Pitt himself, though his previous financial policy had led to the Restriction, is at least free from the charge of having misused an inconvertible currency. But after 1809, the Bank Directors, blind to the effects of their actions, used their exemption from cash payments to over-issue. The result is to be found in the immediate rise in the price of bullion, and the state of the Foreign Exchanges. It was some considerable time before the country realised what was the cause of these phenomena. . . . In 1819, however, a committee appointed to consider the question succeeded in convincing the Government of this fact. Accordingly an Act was passed in this year ordering the Bank to resume Cash Payments in 1823, a date which the Bank anticipated by nearly two years. . . . The successful close of the Napoleonic wars was followed by a period of great commercial and industrial expansion . . . [which] came to its full during the first half of the nineteenth century. . . . Periodic crises occurred—one in 1825, another in 1836. After each of these crises the Government held inquiries into the causes, and it was eventually decided that the unsatisfactory state of the provincial banks, due largely to the unrestricted note issues, was chiefly to blame. . . . During the years after the crises, in 1837-39, a long struggle took place between the supporters of two theories relative to the note issues of the country. One, the Banking theory, held that no limit should be placed to the issue of notes, since over-issue was impossible, as any excess would at once return to the Bank; the other, the Currency theory, considered it necessary that some limit should be imposed on the issue of notes, as otherwise metallic money tended to be driven out of the country. The latter theory triumphed, and the Act of 1844

was the result. . . . In 1834 . . . the Act was passed which gave legal recognition to the principle that all public money should be entrusted to and administered by the Bank, subject of course to the control of the Exchequer. This Act constituted the legal recognition of a principle which had long been adopted in practice. By a process of gradual evolution. . . . The management of the Public Money had been gradually transferred more and more to the Bank, and the Bank had taken the place of the Public Exchequer."—*Journal of Institute of Bankers*, 1915, pp. 412, 413.—"The great events of the second century of the history of the Bank of England have been the resumption of cash payments, the restriction of circulation by the Bank Act of 1844, and the recent accumulation of gold in the custody of the bank. The Act of 1844 has been the turning point of almost infinite discussion of the theory and practice of banking in England, but, whatever its merits or defects, it has not destroyed the character of the Bank of England as the guardian of the cash reserve of the country, nor prevented London from becoming the centre of the exchanges of the world. Freedom from danger of invasion, the development of banking and credit beyond any point attained elsewhere, a market free to the world's commerce, and a single fixed standard of value have raised England to supremacy among commercial countries and linked the history of her financial progress in some degree with that of all other nations."—C. A. Conant, *History of modern banks of issue*, p. 162.—"From 1844 onwards the chief events in the history of the relations between Bank and State have been connected with the working of the Bank Charter Act. In the four crises of 1847, 1857, 1866 and 1890 the evils of the restriction imposed on the free issue of notes by this Act of 1844 have been demonstrated. In the first three of these crises it was found necessary to suspend the Bank Charter Act, and to allow the Bank a temporary freedom of note issue. The fact that in these three cases the effect of such suspension was immediately to restore public confidence goes to prove the contention so often put forward that the Act, by hindering the free action of the Bank at a time of crisis, becomes a positive danger at such a time. Only in 1857 did the Bank actually have to exceed the legal limits of its issue. In the other two cases the mere knowledge that it was free to do so was sufficient to allay the panic. . . . Although the monopoly of note issue has, through the Act of 1844, become more confirmed than ever in the hands of the Bank, that monopoly no longer affects the development or position of the other banks. . . . From 1840 onwards the Joint Stock Banks have steadily grown until to-day some of them overshadow the Bank itself in the amount of their deposits and the extent of their business. . . . In spite of rivalry in normal times the Bank of England has always been ready to lend its powerful support to the other banks in times of crisis. In the four crises of 1847, 1857, 1866 and 1890, it has been the Bank of England, of course supported when necessary by the State, which has pulled the country through. Accordingly, while the competition between the other banks and the Bank of England has become steadily keener, at the same time their dependence on the Bank has also become greater, and both the Bank and the other banks have been drawn mutually closer together, to form one vast structure, of which the Bank of England is the corner stone, and which supports the financial position of the country."—*Journal of Institute of Bankers*, 1915, pp. 414, 417.—"The circumstances immediately surrounding

. . . [the run, which began August 1, 1914, on the Bank of England, were] so peculiar as to render it impossible even now [1916] to say whether the episode was or was not really in line with the usual phenomena of a bank run. During the summer season England sets apart the first Monday of [August] . . . as a business holiday. The news of Germany's ultimatum to France and Russia arrived on the very Saturday when London people, preparing for their two-day midsummer outing, were going to their banks to draw the requisite pocket money. The English currency provided no unit of general circulation of a value between the silver half-crown piece worth slightly over 60 cents and the £5 Bank of England note worth \$25, except the gold sovereign and half-sovereign. Therefore, without any necessary purpose of hoarding gold, the London people, planning for the holiday, brought their five-pound notes to their banks to be exchanged into gold. A few private banks, frightened at the war situation, refused to give out gold (it is usually such action of bankers themselves which starts a panic), and holders of the notes thereupon went to the Bank of England, which could not refuse. All such bank runs grow from the very fact that they have begun. How many of the applicants for gold were merely prospective holiday-makers nobody can know. . . . But a run undoubtedly existed, and we shall never know to what proportions it might have risen but for the fact that the bank was open only for two hours on that Saturday, and that a two-day holiday followed. Even as it was, withdrawal of gold from the Bank of England, both by individual holders of notes and by other banks, was so great that in its next weekly statement the institution had to report the enormous loss of \$52,500,000, and a fall in its ratio of reserve to deposit liabilities to the startlingly low figure of 145/8 per cent, whereas 40 per cent is the bank's traditional minimum of safety. The ratio had been 40 1/4 per cent a week before, and 56 per cent at the same date a year before. No such showing of depleted gold reserve had been made by the bank since the panic of 1866. Nor was this the end of the 'currency panic,' even for the period of English holidays. The warning word that English paper money might possibly be no longer exchangeable for gold spread instantly throughout the community. People with gold coin in their tills or pockets refused to give it up, and within twenty-four hours Englishmen found it impossible to make purchases with Bank of England notes, if the amount of the purchase compelled the seller to make change. . . . On the Continent, for similar reasons, English bank-notes were refused when tendered in payment, and, what was much more disturbing, continental banks refused to cash letters of credit or bankers' drafts made payable at London. During nearly a week after the panic had begun, gold was the only available medium of exchange. For a time, indeed, even gold coin of another country was refused. When business closed for the day at the Bank of England on August 1, 1914, it is perfectly safe to say that no one, however experienced in the course of economic crises, knew what would be the financial case of England, or of Europe as a whole, when the next business day should begin."—A. D. Noyes, *Financial chapters of the war*, pp. 34-36.—"The financial history of the war may be divided into three periods. First, the period of transition from peace to war conditions, which lasted roughly from August, 1914, to April, 1915. Second, a period up to 1917, when the peculiar situation produced by the war in the

money market had fully developed. Third, from 1917 to November, 1918, when the difficulty of financing the war had become more and more acute and all the resources of the money market were concentrated on that end. 1. The first period was marked by unprecedentedly large issues of credit by the Bank of England to meet the crisis caused by the outbreak of the war. Pre-war bills of exchange were freely discounted and renewed, special loans were issued to acceptors of bills, to exporters and to lenders on stock-exchange securities; under the provisions of the first War Loan in November, holders could borrow on it from the Bank of England at 1 per cent below Bank rate. In addition to these issues by the central bank loans were made by other institutions. On the other hand the supply of bills was much restricted by the decline in trade, the reduction in finance bills and acceptances, and the increase in cash transactions. By the beginning of 1915 the effects of this situation were becoming serious. Money-market rates were very low, the American exchange became unfavorable, and suggestions began to be heard that rates ought to be higher. At the same time it was clear that with large supplies of credit and few bills, raising rates would be difficult. The joint-stock banks held greatly increased deposits on which they were paying interest and they were therefore anxious to lend; with the supply of credit so far greater than the demand, which was further limited by the restriction on capital issues promulgated in January, 1915, raising the Bank rate would be entirely useless. . . . On April 13 a step was taken which altered the whole state of affairs. Treasury bills which had hitherto been issued periodically in limited amounts to the highest bidder were now sold daily in unlimited quantities at rates fixed by the Bank of England. As Treasury bills were then the chief opening for investment, these rates tended to set the rates for other borrowers. From this time the government was able to exercise a control proportionate to the limitation in other sources of investment. In consultation with the Bank of England it was in a position to fix such rates as the credit situation required. Its policy was, however, swayed by many considerations besides that of protecting the gold reserve. 2. This brings us to the second period, of which the following were the main characteristics. The government was the chief borrower in the market and market rates tended to keep fairly close to the rate fixed for Treasury bills. The main object of the government was to concentrate all available supplies of credit, both home and foreign, in its hands, and to ensure that the money constantly disbursed by it should be returned as soon as possible. The rates it offered were therefore high. At the same time rates abroad were rising, the supply of cash and credit within the country was increasing, and it was often difficult to prevent lending and discounting at low rates by institutions out of touch with the government policy. Special measures were taken. In November, 1915, the Bank of England offered interest at $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on balances deposited with it by the joint-stock banks. This tended to prevent their making loans at lower rates and so to keep up the discount rate while it increased the power of the Bank of England to lend to the government. The success of this policy was seen at the end of the year. . . . In December, 1915, the market was again borrowing from the Bank of England to satisfy the periodic increase in the demand for cash. In the middle of 1916 a rise in rates in neutral countries led to a rise in Bank rate and this to a rise in all other money rates.

But exports of gold were large, and easy monetary conditions at the end of the year showed the incipient dangers of the situation. The great increase in the quantity of Treasury bills issued meant that large quantities of credit were constantly being thrown back on the market as these matured. 3. From 1917 onwards the credit situation developed on the same lines. . . . At the end of 1917 a new device was hit upon. The Bank of England offered a higher rate to clearing banks on balances made up of foreign money than on balances made up of domestic money. This was followed by a general lowering of rates and the extension of the special Bank of England deposit rate to other institutions besides the clearing banks. In January a special regulation under the Defence of the Realm Act forbade the export of capital by persons resident in Great Britain. . . . But though prevented by the stagnation of trade and by special devices from developing their normal results, the essential conditions were full of danger. Rates were low, the supplies of credit were large; the connection between credit issues and the Bank of England's power over the market was gone. For the moment, rates were controlled by the government in the interest of war finance. It remained to be seen what would happen when this control was removed and ordinary economic forces once more had free play. . . . In January, 1919, the special Bank of England rates on allied balances were removed; in October the special rate on foreign balances was done away with altogether. In March, 1919, the control over the American exchange was abandoned, and in August the restrictions on the export of capital and the agreement fixing deposit rates at 3 per cent were given up. The limitation of capital issues was removed in December, 1919. On the other hand the export of gold was forbidden. In pursuance of the Cunliffe committee's recommendations [published in August, 1918] the currency note reserve was strengthened by the addition of Bank of England notes and a limit was fixed to the fiduciary issue. In January, 1920, the government recommended that the joint-stock banks should transfer their gold holdings to the Bank of England, and consequently some thirty to thirty-five millions were transferred. . . . On April 21, 1921, a new policy was adopted with regard to the sale of Treasury bills. The old method of sale in unlimited quantities at fixed rates was abandoned for a weekly sale of fixed amounts at rates determined by competition. The Bank of England's control before the war depended in the last analysis on the fact that during any short period the supply of funds in the money market was constant. Banks could not increase their liabilities beyond a certain proportion of their cash balances; further, when a bank made a loan, funds were liable to be withdrawn from it and deposited with another bank; the consequent depletion of its resources constituted a check on further lending. Hence it used to be said that the Bank of England was the only real creator of credit because funds withdrawn from it were returned in the cash balance of the bank to which they were paid. The balance sheet of the Bank of England still balanced and the other bank was in a position to increase its loans. This situation has altered in several ways. 1. (a) Cash balances can be increased without direct recourse to the Bank of England. First, the banks have large holdings of Treasury bills and by not renewing these at maturity can at any time increase their cash balances. Second, loans made by the Bank of England to the government and paid out by it to private individuals are paid

into the banks as cash deposits. In both these cases, the increase in balances forms a basis for an increase in credit to a much larger amount. . . . (b) In the second place it is no longer true that the Bank of England is the sole creator of credit. . . . With the present elasticity of cash reserves it means that the possibility of the Bank of England's regulating the total supply of credit is very much less than it was before. Credit is more easily increased and it is therefore more difficult for the Bank to obtain control over it. 2. In the next place, it seems likely that the relation between credit issues and cash reserves is more elastic than before. . . . Before the war, banks were habitually lending up to the limit of their resources and a very small reduction in their cash balances was enough to produce a stringency in the market. . . . 3. Thirdly not only is the relation between credit and cash reserves looser than it used to be but the relation between credit issues and gold reserves is looser. So long as currency notes are accepted by the general public, the link with the gold cash is loosened for the banks because they can use notes as cash. 4. The next point is the question of independent reserves. The decentralizing movement was checked in the early part of 1920 when, at the request of the government, large quantities of gold held by the banks were transferred to the Bank of England. The *Economist* remarked at the time however that this could only be considered an emergency measure, and there are still supporters of the separate reserve idea. 5. Another factor to be considered is the effect of recent bank amalgamations. There began in 1917 and proceeded with great vigor during 1918 and 1919 a process of amalgamation in England which reduced the number of large banks to five (generally referred to as the 'Big Five, in London newspapers). This was considered sufficiently serious for a committee of inquiry to be appointed. The report, published in May, 1918, is very guarded in its language, but some of its remarks are worth quoting. The committee said that while they believed that there was at present no idea of a Money Trust, it appeared not altogether improbable that circumstances might produce something approaching it at a comparatively early date. 'The position of the Bank of England would,' they said, 'be seriously undermined by so overwhelming a combination and the Bank might find it extremely difficult to carry out its important duties as supporter and regulator of the money market.' . . . The adoption of the report was followed by legislation making amalgamations illegal without government approval. It is worth noticing that this was immediately followed by three more combinations so that the check thus constituted does not appear to be serious. It is obvious that the difficulty of control is increased if the Bank of England is faced not by a number of competing banks but by five large banks probably working in unison. Further, the concentration of reserves into a few hands means that a larger amount of credit can be issued on the old basis. The smaller the number of banks, the more likely it is that funds withdrawn from one bank will return to the same bank as deposits. . . . Hence, since supplies of credit can be more easily increased, the Bank of England is again in a worse position than before. It looks as though the money market in the future would be controlled by a combination of the joint-stock banks. 6. Finally with regard to the customary link of $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent between the rate of interest on deposits and the Bank rate, which used to safeguard the position before the war, all that can be said at present is that the

deposit rate has been 2 per cent below Bank rate ever since the special agreement between the government and the banks came to an end in August, 1919."—J. E. Norton, *Bank of England and the money market*, (*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1921, pp. 440-447, 449, 451).—"The fiduciary issue of the Bank has so risen at different periods from 1844 that it now [1920] stands at £18,450,000. Every note issued in excess of this amount must be represented by gold coin or bullion. The annual sum payable by the Bank for its exclusive privileges has been increased from £120,000, as settled in 1833, to £180,000 (of which £60,000 represents composition in lieu of stamp duty), and all profit from the increase of the issue of their notes against securities beyond £14,000,000 is directed to go to the public. As regards what are called *dead bank notes* it is enacted that, when Bank of England notes issued more than forty years have not been presented for payment, the Bank may write off the amount, or any portion of the amount, of these notes from the amount of such issued from the Issue Department, and the Bank Charter Act of 1844 is to apply as if the amount of notes thus written off had not been issued. The Bank will, however, be liable to pay any note so written off if it is presented for payment. The purchase and sale of foreign gold coin and gold bullion affords another source of profit to the Department. The Bank is required by the Act of 1844 to buy at £3.17.9 per oz. standard (being $1\frac{1}{2}$ d. per oz. under mint price) all bar gold offered, subject to the fulfilment by the seller of certain conditions specified in the Act."—*Hazell Annual and Almanack*, 1920.—See also MONEY AND BANKING: Modern; 17th-18th centuries; Banking in Great Britain; 1830-1917; 1914-1916; CAPITALISM: 18th century; England.

ALSO IN: E. von Philippovich, *History of the Bank of England*.—J. Francis, *History of the Bank of England* (1847).—Sir F. Schuster, *The Bank of England and the State* (1906).—A. Andréadès, *Histoire de la banque d'Angleterre* (1904).—H. E. Fisk, *English public finance*.

BANK OF FRANCE.—The earliest attempt to establish a bank of issue in France dates back to 1716, when John Law, a Scotsman, founded the Banque Générale, which became the Banque Royale in 1718 and closed up in 1721. (See FRANCE: 1717-1720). An attempt was made to revive it in 1767; it lingered until 1793, when it was finally suppressed. Plans for the organization of the present Bank of France were advanced in 1796, but owing to the financial difficulties of the revolution, they were not realized until Napoleon and his minister Mollien organized the bank in 1800; it was placed under state control in 1806. It weathered the difficulties brought about by Louis Philippe in 1848, the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 with its heavy indemnity, and the crisis of the World War, emerging by far the most powerful financial institution in the country. It enjoys the monopoly of issuing bank notes. The privileges of the Bank were renewed on Dec. 17, 1897, for a period of twenty-three years, which would have expired in 1920. (See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern; 1793-1920). The law of 1897 "compelled the Bank to open 14 branches in the principal towns that did not yet possess them, and to transform 18 auxiliary offices into branches; thus instituting 32 new branches in all. Besides this, 30 auxiliary offices were to be opened, and 60 more towns connected with the Bank. . . . When the charter was renewed, the Government also required the limit of bills discounted at the branches to be lowered to fours. The Bank had for years discounted bills

eights in value, and . . . the lowering of the limit met a real business requirement."—*Bankers' Magazine* (London, 1903), p. 137.—During the World War, on Dec. 11, 1917, the privileges were extended for a further term of twenty-five years—till Dec. 31, 1945. The capital is fixed at 182,500,000 francs [normally \$36,500,000]. In August, 1914, the maximum note issue of the bank was 6,800,000,000 francs, which was raised to 12,000,000,000 on the 5th, two days after Germany declared war on France. Several increases were made during the war, and a maximum of forty-thousand million francs was fixed on July 17, 1919. "The Governorship of the Bank of France is an appointment of more permanent character than the Governorship of the Bank of England, which devolves upon each director in turn for a period of two years. The retirement of M. Georges Pallain, who has held the office of Governor of the Bank of France for 23 years, is a matter, therefore, of considerable interest. He is succeeded by M. Robineau, who has for some years been head of the Discount Department of the Bank."—*Bankers' Magazine* (London), Oct., 1920, p. 404.—At a shareholders' meeting on January 27, 1921, the new Governor described the course of Government finance and explained the necessity under which the amount of the advances by the Bank of France to the French Treasury had had to remain at the old figure of twenty-seven milliards francs, in spite of the convention of April 24, 1919, under which the amount was to be reduced to twenty-four milliards out of the next Government Loan. Events had made this reduction an impossibility, and repayments to the Bank were postponed from time to time. The maximum of twenty-seven milliards now remained in force till December 31, 1921. By January 1, 1922, the debt was to be reduced to twenty-five milliards, and annual reductions of two milliards per annum were to be made in each year following. M. Robineau added that the Bank of France had "all the time continued to urge upon the Finance Minister the necessity of repaying these advances by the Bank of France as a step which is essential to the economic restoration of France and the improvement of its foreign credit."

BANK OF GERMANY. See DRESNER BANK.

BANK OF HAMBURG. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 16th-10th centuries.

BANK OF IRELAND.—The Bank of Ireland founded in 1783 is the oldest and most influential bank in Ireland. Until 1825 it enjoyed a monopoly of note issue, and is the only bank in Ireland employed by the Treasury. It manages the government funds without charge, and has never exceeded the limit of authorized circulation set by the Bank Act of 1844.

BANK OF ITALY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1806-1910.

BANK OF NORTH AMERICA.—"In 1781, several years before the adoption of the constitution, the Bank of North America had been chartered by the Congress of the Confederation. (Robert Morris was the creator of this bank.) This institution, however, encountered popular opposition and soon surrendered its charter from the Congress, obtaining instead a charter from the state of Pennsylvania."—W. B. Munro, *Government of the United States*, p. 235, footnote.—The bank originally had "a capital of \$400,000 paid in specie. It was enlarged to \$2,000,000 in 1784. [See also MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1780-1784.] It had many difficulties, but managed to weather them all, and its notes were received at par. . . . The [Pennsylvania charter] though repealed in 1785 was renewed in 1787. When the old Congress ceased

with the establishment of the new government in 1789, the bank continued under the state charter. It did not receive recognition under the new régime, but its existence was uninterrupted and in 1864 it became a national bank under the acts then recently passed by Congress. In the dark period of 1782-1789 it did good service by lending money to the government at times when no other resource was apparent. Its first president, Thomas Willing, was an old business partner and friend of Robert Morris, and gave him steady support in the many arduous efforts by which the latter as superintendent of finance, supported the struggling Congress."—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, p. 228.

Also in: L. Lewis, *History of the Bank of North America*.

BANK OF NORTH DAKOTA: Establishment and power.—Difficulties under non-partisan league. See NORTH DAKOTA: 1919, 1921.

BANK OF NORWAY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1816-1918.

BANK OF PORTUGAL. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1821-1918.

BANK OF PRUSSIA: Its disestablishment. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1871-1914.

BANK OF RUSSIA. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1768-1904; RUSSIA: 1917-1920.

BANK OF ST. GEORGE. See GENOA: 1407-1448; CORSICA: Early history; MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 12th-10th centuries; GENOA.

BANK OF SICILY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern 1806-1910.

BANK OF SPAIN. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1782-1904.

Control of Corsica. See CORSICA.

BANK OF SWEDEN. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 17th-18th centuries.

BANK OF THE NETHERLANDS. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1814-1919.

BANK OF THE UNITED STATES. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1790-1816.

Overthrow by President Jackson. See U. S. A.: 1833-1836.

BANK OF VENICE. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 12th-17th centuries.

BANK OF VIENNA. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1703-1915.

BANKING. See MONEY AND BANKING.

BANKING CONSORTIUM FOR CHINA (1921). See JAPAN: 1918-1921: As third of the great world powers.

BANKRUPTCY.—Early development and general principles.—"In early times systems of bankruptcy laws were unknown, individual creditors being allowed to pursue the remedies afforded by the laws of their community. These were usually drastic so far as the debtor was concerned. Under some his body might be cut to pieces and divided among his creditors. Under others the debtor might be imprisoned or he and his family sold into slavery. The growth of commerce and the development of popular rights has, however, led to a gradual development of systems of bankruptcy until, with hardly an exception, they now [1916] form a part of the administrative systems of all civilized nations. Great Britain, Germany, Russia, France, Italy, Norway, Sweden, Spain, Mexico, Belgium, Denmark, Turkey, and many other nations, have responded to the needs of their people and wisely provided laws governing bankruptcy. The systems in vogue in the several nations show much diversity, varying from that which is found in Russia—where the right of the debtor to resume business is dependent upon the good will of his creditors, and where a single dissatisfied creditor

can, upon making a paltry monthly payment, keep the bankrupt a prisoner until the debt is paid—to the highly advanced system which prevails in England and the United States. Bankruptcy is an ancient English word which has come down to us at least from the time of Elizabeth, bearing all the way a meaning co-extensive with insolvency, and it was especially equivalent to that word when the constitution was adopted. There is no substantial difference between a strictly bankrupt law and an insolvent law except possibly theoretically, and that is in the circumstance that the former affords relief upon the application of the creditor, and the latter upon the application of the debtor. In the general character of the remedy there is no difference, however much the modes by which the remedy may be administered may vary. But, even in the respect named, there is no difference in this instance. The present law is both a bankrupt law and an insolvent law by definition, for it affords relief upon the application of either the debtor or creditor under the heads of voluntary and involuntary bankruptcy. Hence a bankrupt law may contain those regulations which are generally found in insolvent laws, and an insolvent law may contain those which are common to a bankrupt law. Every business transaction involving the giving of credit necessarily implies two classes—a debtor and a creditor. Bankruptcy laws are not designed for one but for both classes, and are beneficial to all but the dishonest debtor. The policy and aim of bankrupt laws are to compel an equal distribution of the assets of the bankrupt among all his creditors. Hence, when a merchant or trader, by any of the tests of insolvency, has shown his inability to meet his engagements, one creditor cannot, by collusion with him, or by a race of diligence, obtain a preference to the injury of others. In the absence of a bankruptcy law, the least suspicion of the insolvency of a debtor, his inability to meet financial obligations or the like, naturally cause the zealous creditor to institute attachment proceedings and perhaps cause liquidation of his debtor, who, left to his own resources and given reasonable time, would be able to avoid a suspension and perhaps ruin. The sole gainer through the absence of such a law, outside of the dishonest debtor, is he who is first on the ground with his attachment process and whose lien operates to defeat other creditors with equally just claims, but who are perhaps more merciful and less anxious to cause the creditor's liquidation. In addition to the value of a bankruptcy law in conducting to a better business understanding between the debtor and creditor, it acts as a preventive and check to overtrading, by largely preventing the giving of preferences by the insolvent. . . . The purpose of a bankrupt law is to place within the possession of the creditor that to which he may be entitled, within the shortest reasonable time, and at the same time, if the bankrupt has made a fair and honest surrender, and complied with the requisites made of him, to give him a speedy release, and let him begin anew to provide an honest living for himself and those dependent upon him and again become a useful and active member of society, the cardinal principle being to grant to creditors those rights which would have been theirs if bankruptcy had not suspended, and to save to the bankrupt and his family every right which would have been theirs as against creditors enforcing their claims by ordinary judicial process. A bankrupt or insolvent law, viewed as operating on the rights of creditors, is a system of remedy. It takes out of the hands of the creditors the ordinary rights which by law belong to creditors,

and substitutes in their place a new and comprehensive remedy designed for the common benefit of all. The rights with which the trustee is clothed as the representative of creditors are to render this great and common remedy effectual.”—W. H. Oppenheimer, ed., *Brandenburg on bankruptcy*, 4th ed., pp. 1-5.

Ancient laws concerning debt: Greek.—Roman. See DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: Ancient Greek; Ancient Roman.

English bankruptcy statutes.—“As the idea of a National bankruptcy system may be said to have become a part of the Federal constitution by a process of evolution from the English statutory law, it is interesting to note as a matter of history that the earliest statute on the subject of bankruptcy is found in 34 and 35 Henry VIII (chapter 4), which was primarily provided as a protection against the Lombards and fraudulent traders, who, like the dishonest debtors of to-day, incurred obligations and liabilities and then surreptitiously removed themselves beyond the jurisdiction, without having been first discharged therefrom. It was without limit as to the persons who could have become recipients of its provisions, the restriction as to traders first appearing in the statute of 6 George IV. . . . While these early bankruptcy laws went upon the hypothesis that one guilty of bankruptcy was a criminal, this view certainly does not now prevail, and in fact did not at the time of Lord Loughborough, who remarked, with reference to bankrupts, ‘the law, upon the act of bankruptcy being committed, vests his property upon a just consideration; not as a forfeiture; not on a supposition of a crime committed; not as a penalty. The present [1916] English bankruptcy Act was passed in 1914. It repealed either sections or the whole of statutes passed previously. Thus, the acts of 1884, 1885, 1887, 1888 were wholly repealed, while sections of the bills of 1883, 1800 and 1013 were discarded.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 5-6.—See also DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: England.

Japanese bankruptcy courts. See COURTS: Japan.

American bankruptcy legislation.—“The oppressor's hand resting heavily upon our forefathers in the old world, and causing them to migrate to new and untried fields, naturally inclined them to incorporate liberal and wise provisions for the protection of all classes in the federal constitution. Among them is one evidently suggested by the English bankruptcy statutes, and it is found in section 8 of article 1 of that instrument, which authorizes congress ‘to establish . . . uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcy throughout the United States.’ This section, together with section 10 of the same article, providing that ‘no state shall . . . pass any laws impairing the obligation of contracts,’ are most important factors in the legal and commercial world. Pursuant to the authority contained in section 8, congress has on four different occasions enacted laws providing a uniform system of bankruptcy. All of these acts, excepting the present one, for evident reasons failed of their purpose and early expired. The first was the act of April 4, 1800, and was limited to five years; but it was repealed by the act of December 10, 1803. The fact that it was intended chiefly for the protection of creditors, the sparseness of the settlements, the scarcity of federal courts, and the difficulty and slowness of travel, contributed mainly to its failure. The distance between places where courts were held, by reason of the method of locomotion, made ready relief almost impossible and soon brought about

a demand for the repeal of the law. Under this act only involuntary proceedings were permitted. The second act was approved August 10, 1841, but like its predecessor was short-lived, being repealed March 3, 1843. In addition to some of the causes that contributed to the failure of the prior law, this one was framed so as to greatly favor the debtor; it also became the subject of political contention, and under the combined influence naturally failed. Under this act voluntary proceedings were provided for. The next bankruptcy law was approved March 2, 1867, and after an existence of eleven years was repealed by the act of June 7, 1878, to take effect September 1, 1878. The law was several times amended, the most important modification being that made by the act of June 22, 1874. While this law of 1867 had many imperfections, its provisions were more equitable as between creditor and debtor; but the expenses attending litigation and its administration, together with the lack of uniform rules and regulations governing assignees and registers, more than all else, contributed to its failure and induced its repeal. The law now in force [1916] in the United States was enacted on July 1, 1898, and amended in various respects on February 5, 1903, June 15, 1906, and June 25, 1910 [also March 3, 1911, January 28, 1915, and March 2, 1917]. The amendments made on the latter date are not retroactive, though they apply to every bankruptcy the petition in which was filed after their passage."—*Ibid.*, pp. 6-7.—See also DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: In the United States; U. S. A.: 1898 (July 1).

Constitutionality in the United States.—Limitations of bankrupt laws.—"Congress is given plenary power over the 'subject of bankruptcy,' as that subject was recognized in the jurisprudence of England and America in 1787, under one limitation only, that the law passed upon that subject shall be uniform throughout the United States, and this power carries with it a right to establish the details of the system if it shall think proper. In this connection a system of bankruptcy national in its character to be uniform in its operation must of necessity be unique in its method of administration, and when one of its provisions involving the very policy of the law is deemed inconsistent with the general law, the special provision must control. . . . The present 'system of bankruptcy' does not pretend to cover the whole field of either voluntary or involuntary bankruptcy and insolvency, and in so far as state insolvency laws deal with cases over which the federal bankruptcy courts have no jurisdiction they remain in full operation. The bankrupt law does not suspend an ordinary law for the collection of debts, or for the arrest of fraudulent or absconding debtors, or to prevent fraudulent assignments in trust for creditors and other fraudulent conveyances, or laws relating to the insolvent estates of persons under legal disability, as lunatics or spendthrifts or a law merely protecting the debtor from imprisonment, or a law to prevent debtors in contemplation of insolvency from preferring one or more creditors' or statutes prescribing the conditions upon which foreign corporations may enter the state for purposes of business. Laws relating to general assignments, and not constituting general insolvency laws, are not suspended, and an assignment made thereunder is voidable only in case bankruptcy proceedings should be begun. The bankruptcy act has not superseded the right and power of a court of equity to take charge of the property of an insolvent corporation for the protection of stockholders and creditors, marshal the same, recognize and enforce valid liens and

priorities, and equitably distribute the surplus proceeds among its creditors."—*Ibid.*, pp. 8-13.

BANKS, Sir John (1589-1644), English lord chief justice, who issued writs against the Massachusetts Company. See NEW ENGLAND: 1635.

BANKS, Sir Joseph (1743-1820), English naturalist; sailed with Cook to the Pacific ocean on the *Endeavour* (1768-1771) and came back with many valuable botanical discoveries; became president of the Royal Society in 1778 and was appointed baronet three years later.

BANKS, Nathaniel Prentiss (1816-1894), American politician and soldier. Member Massachusetts house of representatives, 1849-1853, speaker, 1851 and 1852; president of state constitutional convention, 1853; member of national House of Representatives, 1853-1857, speaker of the national House of Representatives, 1855; governor of Massachusetts 1858-1861; served as Union general in the Civil War [see MARYLAND: 1860-1864]; member of Congress. 1865-1873; 1875-1877, 1880-1891; United States marshal for Massachusetts, 1879-1888.—See also U. S. A.: 1855-1856; 1862 (May-June: Virginia); 1863 (May-July: on the Mississippi); and 1864, (March-May: Louisiana).

BANKS. See MONEY AND BANKING; also names of banks, e.g., BANK OF ENGLAND, etc.

BANKS, United States: Federal reserve. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1912-1913: Federal reserve system.

National. See MONEY AND BANKING: 1861-1864; TREASURY DEPARTMENT, United States.

Postal savings. See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS; POSTAL SYSTEMS: 1803-1014.

Wildcat. See WILDCAT BANKS; MONEY AND BANKING: 1837-1841.

BANKS ISLANDS, a group of islands in the south Pacific, northeast of the New Hebrides. See MYTHOLOGY: Oceania: Melanesian mythology.

BANKS' LAND, an island in the Arctic, northwest of Prince Albert Land. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1913-1918.

BANNARD, Otto Tremont (1854-), American banker. See NEW YORK CITY: 1909.

BANNERETS, Knights. See KNIGHTS BANNERETS.

BANNERMAN, Sir Henry Campbell. See CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN, SIR HENRY.

BANNERS, Twenty-four, Chinese army division. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25.

BANNOCK TRIBE. See SHOSHONEAN FAMILY. **BANNOCKBURN, Battle of** (1314). See SCOTLAND: 1306-1314; 1314-1328.

BANT. See GAU.

BANTEAUX RAVINE, France, eight miles southwest of Cambrai. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: g, 10.

BANTU TRIBES: Language. See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Modern peoples; PHILOLOGY: 24; 25; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Aboriginal inhabitants.

BANUS. See BAN.

BAPAUME, a town of northeastern France, near Arras and Cambrai. Was the scene of a French defeat by the Germans, January 3, 1871; was an objective of the Allies in the battle of the Somme in 1916; occupied by them in 1917; changed hands twice in 1918; in all saw much hard fighting during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 1; c, 4; e, 8; 1917: II. Western front: a; a, 1; g, 6; 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 3; c, 32; d, 1; i; k; k, 2.

BAPTISM. See BAPTISTS: ORIGIN OF NAME; SACRAMENTS.

In Mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Greek mythology: Influence of religious ritual on mythology.

BAPTISTERY, a separate building connected with the early Christian church in which the sacrament of baptism was once administered, or that part of a church which was later set apart for the same purpose. In ancient times the word was also applied to a basin, pool or other place for bathing. The baptistery had a well-defined plan: circular or polygonal, it contained in the center the baptismal font in which those to be baptized were immersed three times. A circular ambulatory around the font provided room for the ministers and witnesses; also radiating from the ambulatory were rooms for the preparation of the applicants and sometimes a chapel for service following baptism. The modern baptistery is merely that part of a church set apart for baptism and containing the baptismal font. A number of the most famous baptisteries were those of Pisa, Florence, Padua, Lucca and Parma. The earliest baptistery still in use is the Lateran at Rome.

BAPTISTS: Origin of name.—Various forms.—**Repudiation of these.**—"The name 'Baptist' was not a self-chosen one. In the early Reformation time those who withdrew from the dominant churches because of the failure of these churches to discriminate between the church and the world, between the regenerate and the unregenerate, and who sought to organize churches of believers only, laid much stress on the lack of Scriptural warrant for the baptism of infants and on the incompatibility of infant baptism with regenerate membership. Following what they believed to be apostolic precept and example, they made baptism on a profession of faith a condition of church-fellowship. This rejection of infant baptism and this insistence on believers' baptism were so distinctive of these Christians that they were stigmatized as 'Anabaptists,' 'Catabaptists,' and sometimes as simply 'Baptists'; this is to say, they were declared to be 'rebaptized,' 'perverters of baptism,' or, as unduly magnifying baptism and making it the occasion of schism, simply 'baptizers.' These party names they earnestly repudiated, preferring to call themselves Brethren, Christians, Disciples of Christ, Believers, etc. . . . Baptists have, for the most part, been at one with the Roman Catholic, the Greek Catholic, and most Protestant communions in accepting for substance the so-called Apostles', Nicene, and Athanasian creeds, not, however, because they are venerable or because of the decisions of ecclesiastical councils, but because, and only in so far as, they have appeared to them to be in accord with Scripture. . . . As regards the set of doctrines on which Augustin differed from his theological predecessors, and modern Calvinists from Arminians, Baptists have always been divided. . . . The great majority of the Baptists of today hold to what may be called modern Calvinism, or Calvinism tempered with the evangelical anti-Augustinianism which came through the Moravian Brethren to Wesley and by him was brought powerfully to bear on all bodies of evangelical Christians. Baptists are at one with the great Congregational body and with most of the minor denominations as regards church government."—A. H. Newman, *History of the Baptist churches in the United States, introduction.*

European beginnings.—"The doctrine which came nearest to being a point of uniformity and a possible bond of union among these reformers [those for whom the moderate reforms of Luther, Calvin and Zwingli were not enough] was their objection to infant baptism. To them baptism was the mark of a personally attained relation to Christ, and was, therefore, meaningless when ad-

ministered to an unconscious infant. Certain 'prophets' who came to Wittenberg from Zwickau confronted Luther and Melancthon with this principle as early as 1521; and radical reformers proclaimed it in opposition to Zwingli at Zurich in 1523. Everywhere advocacy of an exact adherence to the verbal teaching of Holy Writ and a rejection of the claims of an established church, were accompanied by opposition to infant baptism. In 1525 for the first time the logical deduction from their premises was made; those baptized only in their infancy were asserted not to have been effectively baptized at all, and were rebaptized as a sign of their conversion. From this time onward rebaptism, or, from the point of view of its advocates, the first valid baptism, became the test and mark of adoption into many communities of true believers. Those who practised this rite were, therefore, called 'Anabaptists'—that is to say, those who baptized a second time—or, more frequently, merely 'Baptists.' The rebaptism of a person who had been already once baptized was not only in the eyes of the established church an impiety, it was in the eyes of the established law a capital crime, and the history of Anabaptism in Germany is the history of a long martyrdom. In Catholic and Protestant countries alike these radicals were persecuted. From Strasburg and Nuremberg they were expelled, in Zurich their leaders were drowned, in Augsburg they were beheaded, in Austria, Wittenberg, Bavaria, and the Palatinate they were burned at the stake. In 1534 their sect was brought into sudden and fatal prominence by the revolt in Münster and its vicinity. Here a body of adherents of radical religious doctrines added to their creed a tenet not common to the general body of Anabaptists—that is to say, the duty of taking up temporal arms to overthrow the existing powers and to introduce the New Jerusalem. The old episcopal city was seized by the Anabaptist leaders, bloody battles were fought, and after a six months' orgy of fanaticism, libertinism, and violence the rebels were defeated by the united troops of Catholic and Lutheran powers and a terrible vengeance taken. [See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.] Anabaptists everywhere, no matter how peaceable and moderate their principles, suffered under the imputation of holding such doctrines as had led to the terrible excesses at Münster, as they had long before been held to sympathize with the Peasants' Revolt; and their persecutions became correspondingly harsher. Nevertheless, they continued to form communities and to spread through Germany, the Netherlands, and Switzerland. The attractiveness of the teachings of wandering Anabaptist preachers long continued unabated, and their regularly organized congregations or communities, because of their thrift, honesty, and plainness of life, survived and flourished, wherever they could obtain even the barest and most temporary toleration. They were necessarily a people without a national home. Seldom for a whole generation did any considerable body of Anabaptists or Pietists remain undisturbed in any one locality. Expelled by imperial edict from Bohemia, they made their way to Hungary and Transylvania; fined, imprisoned, and in danger of death in Protestant Switzerland, they migrated to Tyrol, to the Palatinate, and to the south German cities, only soon to be visited there with still worse persecution. During the two great religious wars they suffered especial hardships, and in the midst of the Thirty Years' War they were rigorously expelled by the emperor from all his hereditary dominions, even from Moravia, where

they had been allowed to exist for almost a century. Either from original differences of doctrine and personal influence, or from later divisions and reorganization, grew up those bodies which, although often, as has been seen, grouped under the general head of Anabaptists, have become known in Europe and America as Mennonites, Amish, and Dunkers; and each of these bodies has experienced various divisions. The Schwenkfelders, Bohemists, and other mystics or pietists, are habitually grouped with these sects, rather because of their similar historical origin and attitude to the established churches than of any identity of religious belief."—E. P. Cheyney, *European background of American history*, pp. 172-175.

Beginnings in New England.—"Baptist principles are discoverable in New England from the very earliest colonial settlements. The Puritans of Plymouth had mingled with the Dutch Baptists during the ten years of their sojourn in Holland, and some of them seem to have brought over Baptist tendencies even in the Mayflower. Dutch Baptists had emigrated to England and extended their principles there; and from time to time a persecuted Baptist in England sought refuge in America, and, planted here, brought forth fruit after his kind. But as every offshoot of these principles here was so speedily and vigorously beaten down by persecution, and especially as, after the banishment of Roger Williams, there was an asylum a few miles distant, just over Narraganset Bay, where every persecuted man could find liberty of conscience, Baptist principles made little progress in the New England colonies, except Rhode Island, for the first hundred and twenty years. [On the banishment of Roger Williams from Massachusetts, the founding of Rhode Island, and the organization of the first Baptist Church in that colony, see RHODE ISLAND, 1631-1636 to 1630.] A little church of Welsh Baptists was founded in Rehoboth, near the Rhode Island line, in 1663, and shortly afterwards was compelled by civil force to remove to Swansea, where, as it was distant from the centres of settlement, it was suffered to live without very much molestation. It still exists, the oldest Baptist church in the State. In 1665, the First Baptist Church in Boston was organized, and, alone, for almost a century, withstood the fire of persecution,—ever in the flames, yet never quite consumed. In 1693, a second church was constituted in Swansea, not as a Regular, but as a Six-Principle, Baptist Church. In 1705, a Baptist church was formed in Groton, Connecticut. These four churches, three Regular and one Six-Principle, having in the aggregate probably less than two hundred members, were all the Baptist churches in New England outside of Rhode Island previous to the Great Awakening."—D. Weston, *Early Baptists in Massachusetts (Baptists and the National Centenary)*, pp. 12-13).—"The leader in opposing [William] Coddington's [first governor of colony of Rhode Island] rule in Rhode Island was John Clarke, who had fled from Massachusetts at the time of the Antinomian controversy. At Newport he was the principal member and the minister of an Anabaptist church—to use the name then current—which after a few years was gathered there. The spread of this sect had led the Massachusetts people, in 1644, to promulgate a law making banishment the penalty of the wilful and continued propagating of its tenets. This law was not enforced on those who deported themselves quietly. The President of Harvard College [Henry Dunster, the first president of the college; he eventually left the presidency because of his belief] at the time when the law was

framed was an avowed disbeliever in infant baptism. After keeping away from Massachusetts for fourteen years, Clarke, with two companions, prominent in his sect, came to Lynn to visit a blind man, a Baptist like themselves. On Sunday, as the matter is related in Clarke's own account of it, not being ready to manifest fellowship with the Puritan worshippers by uniting with them in divine service, and not feeling inwardly called to enter their church for the purpose of publicly testifying against them, he discoursed in the house where he was staying, to his companions and three or four others, who came in, he says, unexpectedly. He was interrupted by the appearance of two constables. The Rhode Islanders were arrested; but their fines were paid either by themselves or by others, with the exception of one of the party who received corporal punishment. What ulterior object, if any, Clarke had in paying this visit, and holding his meeting in defiance of the law, it is, perhaps, unsafe to say. But any candid reader of *Ill News from New England*, the publication that he put forth in England, in which the circumstances are recounted, will not fail to see that the opportunity to bear witness to his opinions in the heart of the enemy's country was highly prized, and that his failure to get up a debate with the ministers was a source of disappointment to him. His rival, Coddington, succeeded in setting up his government. But Clarke was a man of talents and energy. He went to England, and, with the aid of Roger Williams, who was also there, he procured, in September, 1652, the revocation of Coddington's commission."—G. P. Fisher, *Colonial era*, pp. 143-144.—In Connecticut in 1792 Baptists as well as Quakers were exempted from taxation for the support of the established Congregational Church, provided that they maintained Church services of their own.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1762-1769.

Principles of faith.—"The representative Baptists of London and vicinity, who in 1689 put forth the Confession of Faith which was afterward adopted by the Philadelphia Association, and is therefore known in this country as the Philadelphia Confession, copied the Westminster Confession word for word, wherever their convictions would permit, and declared that they would thus show wherein they were at one with their brethren, and what convictions of truth made impossible a complete union. And wherever Baptists appeared, however or by whomsoever they were opposed, the ground of complaint against them was their principles. Some of these principles were sharply antagonistic to those of existing churches, and also to those on which the civil governments were administered. They were widely disseminated, especially in Holland, England, and Wales, and there were separate churches formed. From purely doctrinal causes also came divisions among 'the Baptized churches' themselves. The most notable one was that in England between the General or Arminian Baptists, and the Particular or Calvinistic Baptists. With the latter division do the Regular Baptists of America hold lineal connection. . . . The churches of Philadelphia and vicinity kept the closest connection with the mother country, and were most affected by it. In New England, in 'the Great Reformation' under the lead of Jonathan Edwards, there was made from within the Congregational churches a most vigorous assault against their own 'half-way Covenant' in the interest of a pure church. Along his lines of thought he started multitudes who could not stop where he himself remained and would fain

have detained them. They separated from the Congregational churches, and were hence called Separates. A large proportion of them became Baptists, and formed themselves into Baptist churches. Through the labors of earnest men who went from them to Carolina and Virginia, their principles were widely disseminated in those and the neighboring colonies, and, in consequence, many churches came into existence."—G. D. B. Pepper, *Doctrinal history and position (Baptists and the National Centenary, pp. 51-52)*.—"Some few of [the Baptist] . . . Churches have never made a formal declaration of their faith aside from the Bible; while in the main, each separate Church expresses what it thinks the Scriptures require of it as a Church, in a 'Declaration of Faith.' There is substantial agreement in the entire fraternity of our Churches, which it is not difficult to set forth. In common with other orthodox Christians, so-called, we believe the doctrines of the Divine Unity and Trinity; of Christ's incarnation and proper Deity; of man's fall and helplessness, and his redemption by the vicarious sacrifice of our Lord Jesus Christ; of the Personality and Deity of the Holy Spirit, and his plenary inspiration of the Holy Scriptures; of free justification by Christ's mediatorial work; of sanctification by the unwrought agency of the Holy Spirit; of holy living on earth after God's commandments; of a future resurrection of the body, and the day of judgment; and of a state of eternal rewards and punishments in another world. Of course, as in all other bodies of Christians, controversies exist amongst ourselves touching the various modifications of these doctrines; enough, at least, to show that there is and must be diversity of view, where the divine right of interpretation is exercised amongst thoughtful men."—T. Armitage, *History of the Baptists, pp. 150-151*.

Triennial Convention established.—Schism of American Baptists.—Southern Convention organized.—"In response to a call, the churches generally sent delegates to a convention held at Philadelphia, in May, 1814, by which the General Baptist Convention of the Baptist denomination in the United States for Foreign Missions was organized. This title was too cumbersome for ordinary use, and as meetings of the convention were held only once in three years, it became generally known as the Triennial Convention. It was the first enterprise in which practically all the churches were united, and as a bond of union was of inestimable worth to Baptists. The constitution declared its object to be to direct 'the energies of the whole denomination in one sacred effort for sending the glad tidings of salvation to the heathen, and to nations destitute of pure gospel light.' From the first this was given a liberal construction, and home missions were undertaken as well as foreign. . . . When the Triennial Convention was organized [in 1814], there was no little difference of sentiment regarding slavery. It still existed in many of the Northern States, though a date had been fixed after which all children born of slave parents should be free, so that the ultimate extinction of the system was sure. Many of the leading men of the South opposed the system, and hoped for its extinction. But about that time, mainly owing to the invention of the cotton gin, slave labor began to be profitable to individuals in the South, though it was never economically profitable to the region as a whole; and that fact strengthened the pro-slavery sentiment immensely, so that soon all desire for its abolition died out. The South then became the ardent defender of the system and did all in its power for its propagation. In 1832 Wil-

liam Lloyd Garrison established *The Liberator*, a newspaper devoted to immediate and unconditional emancipation of slaves, on the simple moral issue that slavery was a great wrong. In time he gained a great following. With each decade there was an increase of the number of members of Baptist churches in the North who believed that slavery was morally indefensible, and its continued maintenance a sin. This made coöperation difficult with churches at the South, whose members held exactly the opposite opinion. After some years of increasing bitterness of controversy, matters were brought to a crisis by the declaration of the Executive Board of the Triennial Convention that they could not under any circumstances appoint as a missionary one who held slaves. This was, of course, a technical violation of the equal rights of the Southern churches, but a contrary decision would have offended the moral sense of the Northern churches. It was evident that an estrangement had come about that made co-operation on the original terms no longer possible. The Southern churches, therefore, called a convention, which met at Augusta, Ga., in May, 1845, and organized the Southern Baptist Convention, adopting the original articles of the Convention as its statement of object. Instead of establishing also a society for home missions, and another for publication, the Convention appointed a number of Boards for its various enterprises, which it has increased, and can increase indefinitely as circumstances in future may make necessary and wise. The American Baptist Home Mission Society and the Publication Society were not affected by this withdrawal, except in the loss of contributions and co-operation from the Southern States. The Triennial Convention, having been for many years a purely foreign missionary society, was now reincorporated under the laws of Massachusetts as the American Baptist Missionary Union."—H. C. Vedder, *Baptist history (Church history handbooks: Book IV, pp. 72, 80-82)*.—"Since the Civil War there has been no successful effort to unite the northern and southern churches. The Northern and Southern Baptist Conventions meet and act separately. The Baptists' government has always been Congregational. The individual Congregation is a self-governing unity with no control from a superior authority.

Development in Europe, Canada and Australasia.—"The movement for Baptist principles upon the continent of Europe, embracing the German, Scandinavian, Dutch, Hungarian, Slavic, Esthonian and Finnish peoples, had its beginning in Germany in 1834. The leader in this enterprise was Johann Gerhard Oncken, a courageous and devoted man of God, who through study of the Scriptures came to embrace believers' baptism and the New Testament idea of a Christian church. The high qualities of his personality soon drew others to him, who came to share his convictions. The effect of Oncken's work rapidly became international, so that to-day [1919] there are 213 churches with 47,580 members. The influence of these German pioneers spread to Austria-Hungary, where work was begun in 1846, to Roumania, where a church was formed in 1860. In Poland and Russia Baptist work has gone forward amid many difficulties. The Scandinavian countries have witnessed a rapid growth of Baptist principles; this is especially true in Sweden where a beginning was made in 1848 and where now there are 645 churches and 55,219 members. In continental Europe there are upwards of 208,000 members, gathered within the century. The work of the Baptists in Canada began in the Maritime

Provinces in 1752, where they has been steady progress, so that there are 579 churches and 61,198 members; in Ontario and Quebec 517 churches and 59,517 members; in the Western Provinces 241 churches and 17,576 members. The work of the Canadian Baptists has been characterized by an earnest evangelism, organization and co-ordinating of denominational agencies, the development of Christian education, and work in home and foreign missions. In Australasia the work of our denomination has developed wholly during the period we have under review [1819-1919]. The first missionary work began in Tasmania in 1834. In religious relations the population is closely allied to Great Britain, whence the larger number of its ministers have been drawn. This however is changing as the churches become stronger, and as educational facilities have developed. There are now [1919] in this continental island, and including New Zealand, 344 churches and 30,168 members."—A. T. Fowler, *Century of Baptist progress in Great Britain and beyond* (*Watchman-Examiner*, May 8, 1919, p. 647).

Characteristics of development in the United States.—"In the year 1819 the Baptists were one hundred and eighty years old in America. Until the Revolution their increase had been very slow. Religious freedom, affording them an equal chance with others, existed only in Rhode Island and Pennsylvania. Elsewhere they suffered under many disabilities and hardships that were always galling and hurtful to their progress. There are no reliable statistics, but it seems that they did not number more than fifty or sixty thousand at the outbreak of the Revolution. During this struggle they were unanimously and heartily on the side of freedom and the Colonies. This loyal service, together with the greater freedom assured by the national life after the adoption of the Constitution, afforded them a more favorable atmosphere, so that a period of rapid growth began and has continued without serious interruption to the present time. By 1800 there were in the neighborhood of 100,000 Baptists within the present territory of the United States. Extensive revivals during the early years of the new century in Kentucky and various other parts of the country swept multitudes into the churches, so that by 1819 the Baptists probably numbered more than 200,000. This revival was accompanied by extraordinary physical 'exercises,' such as the 'jerks' and 'barks,' but the moral improvement in the communities where these bodily contortions occurred was no less remarkable than the physical manifestations. Baptists were less affected than others by these excrescences, and seem to have profited equally as much as others in moral uplift and in additions to their churches. The year 1819 thus falls within the first period of marked Baptist growth. . . .

"The Baptist preachers, especially in the South and West, were pre-eminently evangelistic. Residing on their farms and earning a living for themselves and their families in the sweat of their brows, like other men they had little time for study or sermon preparation. Indeed many of them believed that sermon preparation was a reflection upon the work of the Holy Spirit who had been promised for the very purpose of teaching preachers what to say in the hour of need. They were men of one book, and kept their minds filled with its verbiage, though they often misinterpreted or misused individual passages. They were apt to fall into one line of thinking and preaching, failing to modify their peculiar views by thorough and sympathetic study of the

whole of the Scriptures. Most of them were Calvinists of a rather high type, and as Methodism with its Arminian theology spread over the country they were prone to spend much time in enforcing their Calvinistic convictions, especially the 'perseverance of the saints.' Not infrequently they employed 'the holy tone' in their preaching with great satisfaction to their rustic hearers. The rhythm of action and utterance, gradually rising into a flood of sound, often concealed the poverty of thought and made a really profound and lasting impression upon the emotional country people who heard them. At places foot washing was practised as an ordinance of God's house with great solemnity and conscientiousness. Few if any churches had organs or other musical instruments or stained glass windows, these things being regarded as 'rags of popery.' Most of the Baptists stood on the platform of the Philadelphia Confession of Faith, but not a few, descendants of the great revival of Whitefield and formerly known as Separate Baptists, rejected all creeds and stood on their interpretation of the Word of God. These were generally moderate Calvinists (q. v.), intensely evangelistic in their preaching. The Arminianism of the earlier General Baptists had largely disappeared and the modern Freewill Baptists had as yet made little impression on the body. In the South the 'camp-meeting' and the 'meeting of days' were the recognized means of evangelism and increase of the membership of the churches. In the New England and Middle Atlantic States the Baptists were generally more cultured, living in the villages and towns and provided with abler and more cultured preachers. Their revivalism was less boisterous and emotional, their ordinary services quieter and more dignified, but on the other hand their preaching was often lacking in the energy and fire shown in the less cultivated parts of the country. Many of the preachers in these older regions were able and cultivated men with college training and great influence in the community. In the South there were fewer men of commanding ability and advanced culture, but some like Furman, Johnson and Mercer were no whit behind their Northern brethren in those qualities of grace, manhood and culture which make great preaching."—W. J. McGlothlin, *Baptists of one hundred years ago* (*Watchman-Examiner*, May 8, 1919, pp. 596-597).

Origin and development of missionary work.—"In 1819 the Baptists were just beginning to feel the pull and uplift of three great tasks that were to transform them from a weak and scattered people without any unified life into an organized denomination responding to all the currents of emotion, aspiration and effort which were moving other religious bodies. These were 'Foreign Missions,' 'Home Missions' and 'Education.' Foreign missions were the earliest, constituting the main impulse to the awakening and unifying of the denomination and its enlargement in all directions. Only twenty-seven years before *The Watchman-Examiner* saw the light William Carey had succeeded in leading a few English Baptists to organize a society to undertake Christian work among the people of India. This society sent him out as their first missionary, thus inaugurating the modern missionary movement among English-speaking people. Other denominations in England had quickly followed the example of the Baptists by organizing other societies and sending out other missionaries. This effort had soon attracted attention in New England where various small societies had been organized among Congregationalists and Baptists to assist in the work

of the English. But in 1810 several young Congregational ministers succeeded in inducing their leaders to organize a board for the sending out of missionaries from this country—the 'American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions.' The first group of missionaries went out in 1812. On the way out and soon after landing, three of them—Adoniram Judson and his young and accomplished wife, Anne Hasseltine, and Luther Rice—were converted by their own studies to Baptist views and were baptized before the end of the year. This event touched the Baptists of America like an electric shock. Rice returned to assist in the work of awakening and unifying the denomination in the support of the Judsons who now asked to be accepted as missionaries of the Baptists. . . . The Baptists of the North and East responded at once and heartily. Dr. Thomas Baldwin, of Boston, and Dr. Bolles, of Salem, informed the denomination of the great event and took steps to organize at Boston a society for the support of the important additions. . . . Similar societies sprang up in various parts of the country, notably in the Savannah Association, where Dr. W. B. Johnson and Dr. W. T. Brantly were the leading spirits. But these local societies had no means of communication and were inadequate to the task before the denomination. It was determined, therefore, to unite the entire Baptist people, as far as they were interested, in one general missionary organization for the prosecution of the foreign mission enterprise. Accordingly delegates from local societies in eleven States met in Philadelphia, May 18, 1814, and proceeded to organize the 'General Missionary Convention of the Baptist Denomination in the United States of America for Foreign Missions.' Dr. Richard Furman, of South Carolina, was elected president, Dr. Baldwin, of Boston, secretary. It was not based upon the churches or the associations, but upon the societies composed of people who were really and vitally interested in the cause. Dr. William Staughton, of Philadelphia, was elected secretary of the board which was constituted to carry on the work between the conventions, and which was located in Philadelphia. . . . The work was only five years old when *The Watchman* was founded, but already there were rumblings of that antimission sentiment which was soon to split the denomination in the South and constitute one of the most painful chapters of our history."—W. J. McGlothlin, *Baptists of one hundred years ago* (*Watchman-Examiner*, May 8, 1910, p. 597).—"Directly after its organization the convention sent missionaries to Southern China, and Central and Northern China was entered later. A mission was at once begun in Liberia also, and in 1856 the Missionary Union turned over to the convention its mission there. Work in the Yoruba country was begun in 1872. A Japanese mission was begun in 1860, and missions have been established since 1870 in Brazil, Argentina, and Mexico, while Cuba has been entered yet more recently. In 1890 there were one thousand three hundred and thirty-eight members reported from all the mission stations, which increased in a single decade to five thousand three hundred and forty-seven. . . . In 1900 there were over one hundred thousand members in the missionary churches, and as many more in European Baptist churches that have been more or less aided by Americans. The income of the Missionary Union has, in the same period, doubled three times, while the number of supporters has doubled barely twice."—H. C. Vedder, *Baptist history* (*Church history handbooks: Book IV*, pp. 91, 93).—See also INTERCHURCH WORLD MOVEMENT.

Saratoga Convention, 1883.—Agreement on Bible publication.—"As the years passed it became evident that the denomination was seriously divided by . . . controversies . . . and at times it seemed that the division was hopeless. Some Baptists had continued to co-operate with the American Bible Society; others were warm partisans of the American and Foreign Bible Society; a smaller number, but very conscientious and persistent, were supporters of the American Bible Union. The newspapers were filled with controversial articles, editorial and contributed; the annual meetings of the societies often became scenes of debate in which feeling was roused that reminded the older members of the anti-slavery contest. Various attempts were made for the union of the various societies, but for one reason or another all failed. It was evident that the denominational interest in Bible work was not adequate to the support of a separate Bible society, to say nothing of supporting two. The peace of the denomination required that some solution should be found. Finally a convention was called and held at Saratoga, in May, 1883, a remarkable body in many ways, fairly representing the Baptist churches of the whole country and containing its ablest men. It was unanimously decided to recommend both Bible societies practically to disband; and that the work of the denomination in translating and circulating the Scriptures should be committed to the American Baptist Publication Society, for the home field, and to the Missionary Union for the foreign field. This was felt to be an honorable and happy disposition of the matter; the controversies disappeared and peace has since been maintained."—H. C. Vedder, *Baptist history* (*Church history handbooks: Book IV*, pp. 90-91).

Northern Baptist Convention.—"The Northern Baptist Convention was provisionally organized in Washington, District of Columbia, in accordance with action taken on the evening of May 16, 1907. Next morning provisional by-laws were adopted. The permanent organization occurred in Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, May 21, 1908. For many years previously there had been agitation for the promotion of denominational unity. The denominational societies met annually at anniversaries, each busy with its own concerns, composed largely of the same persons, but with little relation to one another in these meetings. Baptists as a group of Christians had no way of expressing denominational consciousness, or opinions, or of doing work other than that for which the Societies were organized. The organization of the Convention opened the way for the expression and development of denominational consciousness, for the promotion of Baptist unity, for action by the churches in many realms not covered by the Societies, and for the quickening and concentration of denominational energies of all kinds. In the twelve years of its history the Convention has amply justified its existence. The Societies, which were originally organizations of individuals, have become actual denominational agencies, with the same constituency. Their work has been brought before our churches as never before. Some overlapping and infelicities have been straightened out. There is complete feeling of harmony between all these agencies. Our educational institutions have begun to receive expert attention. Their needs have been studied. Appeals have been successfully made for the increase of the endowment and facilities of some of them. Student pastors have been at work in some of the State universities to care for the religious interests of Baptist students.' An

efficient board has been organized and incorporated for the care of ministers and missionaries, their widows and dependent children. Through the agency of this Ministers and Missionaries Benefit Board a large sum of money has been raised. The work of similar agencies in various States is more or less perfectly co-ordinated with that of the board. Religious education has been greatly stimulated. Ideals for the normal unfolding of the moral lives of growing persons have been brought to the notice of those who are active in this essential service, and Sunday School work and Young People's activities have been greatly advanced. The interest of Baptist Christians in social conditions has been increased. Brotherhoods have been organized in churches. Thousands of men have been induced to become active in the affairs of their communities. It is impossible to measure the results of this Christian interest in community welfare.

"The Convention is thoroughly democratic. Any church in the United States can send a delegate, and any delegate is entitled to the floor of the Convention. The committee that nominates Convention officers, and the committees that control its sessions, are selected by the State delegations. The executive committee has charge of the affairs of the Convention between its sessions. From the beginning it has been a policy of this committee not to originate business, but to be faithful in attending to matters referred to it by the Convention and to the discharge of its duties as prescribed in the by-laws. During these twelve years the Convention has met in the East four times—in Washington, District of Columbia, 1907, Philadelphia 1911, Boston 1914, Atlantic City 1918; on the Pacific Coast twice—Portland, Oregon, 1909, and Los Angeles 1915; and in the Middle West six times—Oklahoma City 1908, Chicago 1910, Des Moines 1913, Minneapolis 1916, Cleveland 1917. . . . [The next convention met in Denver, Colorado, May 21-27, 1919, and one was held in Buffalo, N. Y., in 1920.] Omitting the Washington meeting, the Convention has had eight presidents, of whom six have been laymen, and two ministers. Of the eleven Convention preachers since organization, seven have been pastors, two have been connected with institutions of learning and two—Drs. Morehouse and Mabie—were conspicuous, and honored and successful as missionary secretaries. The statistical tables in the *Manual* of the Northern Baptist Convention covering the period 1908-1917, inclusive, show gradual growth in financial receipts. The adoption of a unified budget including items for all organizations of the Convention, and the apportionment of these to the States, has not realized all that was hoped for, but has been an advance upon previous methods. We shall not reach our ideal until every member of every church is contributing regularly and according to his ability for every enterprise we undertake. To work toward this ideal is the present plan. . . . The organization of the Convention [is responsible for] the growing interest of Baptist laymen. . . . Women . . . are delegates to the Convention, serve on its committees, and are participants in all its affairs."—W. C. Bitting, *Northern Baptist convention (Watchman-Examiner, May 8, 1919, p. 621)*.

Conference on fundamentals.—Just before the meeting of the Northern Baptist Convention in Buffalo in 1920 a notable group of the more conservative northern leaders held a preliminary conference on the fundamentals of the Baptist faith. They took a firm stand against the teaching of some of the Baptist clergy who are very

sympathetic with the Higher Criticism. They proposed that the Northern Baptist Convention appoint a board which should make inquiry into the teachings of the theological seminaries with a view to making these institutions more conservative. The opponents of this group usually referred to this proposal as "The Inquisition."

1920.—Recommendations of Convention at Buffalo.—At its meeting in Buffalo, N. Y., January 15, 1920, the Northern Baptist Convention adopted the following recommendations, after the final one had been amended: "(1) That as a denomination we record our acceptance of the conception that the mission of the Christian Church is to establish a civilization, Christian in spirit and in passion, throughout the world. (2) That we announce our purpose to establish independent, self-supporting churches in the non-Christian world, under the direction of native leadership, and to that end we plan to enlarge our educational work in all fields. (3) That we record our belief in all those missionary agencies which will help to make intelligent men and women, and which in the spirit of the Great Physician will help to relieve human suffering. (4) That we declare our intention to increase greatly our missionary staff to the end that we may relieve over-burdened missionaries, and may adequately man our fields. (5) That we send a commission to study the situation in Eastern Europe as soon as possible, and advise us as to the work which should be undertaken there. (6) That we record our readiness to enter some of the great unoccupied fields as soon as we can adequately provide for the fields under our care. (7) That we declare our conviction that the Baptists of the North should not withdraw from the work for the Indians and for the Negroes of the South, but that we should strengthen our schools and make them as efficient as possible. (8) That we declare our determination to lay new emphasis upon our work for the new Americans in all sections, and to make a special effort to redeem our cities. (9) That we approve the plans to increase the work on the frontier, and especially to provide churches for the proposed soldier settlements. (10) That we endeavor to increase our work in Latin America on a large scale, that we may help prepare those Republics for the new day in their land. (11) That we take steps at once, in coöperation with other churches, to study the social situation in America, to the end that we may be in a position to speak with authority and helpfulness in the crisis which now faces the nation. (12) That we make a determined effort to raise sufficient funds so that we may grant pensions to all our ministers and missionaries, and that we request the Ministers and Missionaries Benefit Board to conduct a vigorous campaign this fall to induce the churches to increase their salaries. (13) That we record our conviction of the supreme importance of general and religious education, and approve plans for the extension of education of both types throughout our constituency. (14) That we appoint a committee to continue the survey and bring it to completion. (15) That we establish a denominational weekly paper which shall be of a high grade, and under the ownership and control of the Northern Baptist Convention. (16) That we approve the budgets proposed by the Committee on Survey and declare our determination to raise before April 1, 1924, the sum of \$54,006,833 for the permanent equipment of our institutions and work, and that we accept as the operating budget for the year

1923-1924, the sum of \$8,210,311. Respectfully submitted, THE COMMITTEE ON SURVEY.

"Upon presentation to the Convention, Recommendation 16 was referred back to the Committee with the request for an estimate of the total amount to be raised within five years. The Committee later submitted the following substitute for Recommendation 16: '(16) That in the light of the facts presented in this Survey and of our desire to do a work for the Kingdom that is commensurate with our resources, we declare our determination to raise before April 1, 1924, for all our benevolence, including city, state, national and foreign work, the sum of \$100,000,000.'—*Survey of the fields and work of the Northern Baptist Convention, January 15, 1920, pp. 150-151.*

1920.—*European missions.—Distribution of responsibility.*—Under the auspices of the Executive Committee of the Baptist World Alliance a conference was held in London in July, 1920, attended by representatives of the principal Baptist bodies in the United States and Canada, Great Britain and Ireland, and nearly all the European countries except Portugal, Bulgaria and Russia. "At this conference Baptists representing practically all the belligerent countries came together for the first time after the war, to renew their fellowship. . . . From the standpoint of missionary work, the most important action taken in the conference was the distribution of responsibility for lending assistance to Baptist bodies in various parts of Europe in the conduct of their work. This distribution of responsibility was approved as follows: *Portugal:* To Brazil. The Southern Baptist Convention to be asked to consider this work favorably. *Spain:* To the Southern Baptist Convention. *France, including Belgium* and French-speaking *Switzerland:* To the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society; the Breton work to the British Baptist Missionary Society. *Italy:* To be decided by conference between the Baptist Union of Italy, the Southern Baptist Convention, and the British Baptist Missionary Society. *Jugo-Slavia:* To the Southern Baptist Convention. *Hungary, Roumania, the Ukraine,* and the portions of *Russia* eastward thereof: To the Southern Baptist Convention. *Bulgaria* and *German Austria:* To the German Baptist Union, and the German-speaking Baptists of America. *Czecho-Slovakia:* Co-operative work by the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society, Great Britain, and such others as are willing. It was left an open question whether the Southern Baptist Convention shall join in a theological seminary at Prague for Slav students. *Poland:* To the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society and the German-speaking Baptists in America. The importance of one Union to be emphasized. *Finland:* To Sweden and Great Britain. *Norway:* To the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society. *Latvia, Lithuania, Estonia, and Northern Russia:* To Great Britain, Canada, and the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society. *Denmark:* To the American Baptist Foreign Mission Society. *Holland:* To Great Britain and Australia. . . . One of the most significant actions of the Conference was the election of Rev. J. H. Rushbrooke, D.D., of London, as Baptist Commissioner for Europe. . . . He will give all of his time to the discharge of duties connected with his office."—*American Baptist Foreign Mission Society, Report, 1921, pp. 15-17.*

1922.—*Northern Baptist Convention at Indianapolis.*—For the first time in its history the convention, which opened on June 14, was presided over by a woman, Mrs. Helen Barrett Montgomery, a minister of the church and president of

the Woman's Foreign Mission Society. In the course of the sessions resolutions were offered on the abolition of war, Armenia, Near East Relief, European Relief, obedience to law, industrial relations, child labor, racial justice, denominational schools, the Bible in the life of the people, the Baptist World Alliance, evangelistic advance, and missionary enterprise. In the resolutions, war is declared to be barbarous, futile and contrary to every Christian ideal and teaching as a method of settling international disputes. "We reaffirm our belief that our country should have its part in an association of nations for expressing our common humanity, adjusting difficulties, and outlawing any nation that resorts to arms to further its own interests." The United States government was petitioned to participate in the World Court of Justice, "and to take whatever other steps may be necessary to secure such co-operation on the part of the peoples of the earth as will bring about a stabilizing of world conditions and permanently banish war." Solemn protest was made "against the ruthless starvation and massacre of the first nation to accept the Christian faith. 'We hereby petition our government immediately to adopt measures to secure united action on the part of the United States and European governments looking to the deliverance and security of imperiled Christian peoples in the Near East.' (A committee was appointed, as recommended, to convey these resolutions in person to the President and Secretary of State)." A commission on international peace and good will was also appointed.—Based on *Missions (Convention Number), July, 1922.*

1922.—*Southern Baptist Convention at Jacksonville, Florida.*—*Report on Northern and Southern conference.*—The sixty-seventh annual meeting was held during May in the "Billy" Sunday Tabernacle, and was attended by some four thousand Baptists, under the presidency of Dr. E. Y. Mullins. A report was presented by a committee of about thirty men and women from the Northern and Southern Conventions who had held a three days' conference during January on matters of mutual interest. The report read as follows: "Your committee to which was referred the resolutions from the conference of brethren of Columbia, Missouri, begs leave to submit its report to the Convention. Two requests were submitted through the executive committee to the Southern Baptist Convention from this conference. *First,* that the Southern Baptist Convention appoint a committee of nine to act with a similar committee of the Northern Baptist Convention as a standing joint committee of comity and co-operation, which should be known as a joint committee of conference for matters of particular co-operation. *Second,* another committee of nine to form with a similar committee of the Northern Baptist Convention a joint committee which 'should be charged with the duty of preparing a statement of faith and polity briefly and embodying the basis of fundamental principles and beliefs of Baptists.' Your committee, after full discussion, presents the following report: *First,* that the present relations between the two conventions of American Baptists are wholly fraternal and sympathetic, and there exists no barrier to particular agreements between the accredited agencies of the two conventions in matters of particular co-operation. Therefore we do not recommend the appointment of a standing committee as requested. *Second,* that the Southern Baptist Convention does not desire to take the initiative in the matter of formulating a general doctrinal statement for American Baptists, inasmuch as there exists at

this time on the part of the Southern Baptists neither demand nor necessity for any new statements of Baptist faith and polity."—*Watchman-Examiner*, June 1, 1922.

Recent statistics.—The Baptist denomination is composed of three main groups: The Northern Convention, the Southern Convention, and the National Convention (Colored). According to the 1921 report there were 59,744 churches, 42,088 ordained ministers, and a total membership of 7,943,331. The Northern Convention embraced 8,409 churches, 8,566 ordained ministers, and a membership roll of 1,253,878; besides 7,162 Sunday schools with an attendance of 984,011. The Southern Convention was composed of 29,551 churches, 15,551 ordained ministers, and 3,434,246 members; also 19,267 Sunday schools with 1,872,457 scholars. The National Convention (Colored) return for the same year showed a total of 20,846 churches, 17,103 ministers, 3,116,325 members, and 17,476 Sunday schools attended by 947,116 pupils. For Canada the figures were: 1302 churches, 868 ministers, 138,882 members, 1200 Sunday schools and 109,834 scholars.

ALSO IN: J. C. Carlile, *Story of the English Baptists*.—H. C. Vedder, *Short history of the Baptists*.—A. H. Newman, *History of the Baptist churches in the United States*.

BAQUEDANO, Manuel (b. 1826), Chilean general; assumed command of the invasion against Peru (1880) which resulted in the defeat of the Peruvian forces, and the annexation by Chile of the Tacna nitrate regions. Was made generalissimo in the Chilean army.

BAR, an ancient territory in eastern France, the capital of which was Bar-le-Duc. It was a county and later a duchy, was united with the duchy of Lorraine in 1473, was annexed by France in 1659, and was restored to Lorraine in 1661. See FRANCE: 1659-1661, and 1733-1735.

BAR, Confederation of.—A union of Polish noblemen and other patriots formed at Bar (Poland) in 1768. "On February 29, 1768, two score or so of country gentlemen, some hundreds of peasants, and a few priests and monks, assembled at the little fort of Bar [Poland] under the banner of the Blessed Virgin, formed a Confederation to protest against the anti-Catholic resolutions of the lately dissolved Diet. Without any influence or organisation, the Confederation of Bar appeared, at first sight, insignificant enough. It owed its real importance to the fact that it was a genuine popular rising inspired by a patriotism and a devotion utterly unknown to the official classes of Poland. Its consequences were momentous and far-reaching. The original Confederates were, indeed, easily scattered by the Russian troops; but, stamped out in one place, the conflagration quickly burst forth again in half a dozen other places, and, at last, the whole Republic was, as Replin put it 'ablaze with the fire of Bar.'"—R. N. Bain, *Last king of Poland and his contemporaries*, p. 106.—The confederation was dissolved in 1772, though remnants of it lingered until 1776. "The Confederation of Polish patriots at Bar had failed in its object. Its Turkish allies, crushed by land at Choczim (1768-9) and by sea at Tchesmé (1770), were no longer capable of rendering assistance, while the fall of Choiseul extinguished all hope of aid from France. Choiseul's plan for the salvation of Poland had but hastened the disaster. Frederick II had seized the moment when Russia was absorbed in struggles with Turkey, of occupying Prussian Poland. An agreement with Emperor Joseph II at Neisse (in Silesia), Aug. 25, 1769, had the re-

sult of overawing Russia. Already in February of that year Frederick had thrown out hints to Russia of a partition. This dismemberment was upon the Poles at the point of the bayonet, while the acts consecrating it were signed between the three contracting parties at St. Petersburg, July 25, 1772."—E. Reich, *Select documents illustrating mediæval and modern history*, p. 651.—See also POLAND: 1763-1700.

BARADAEUS, James, or Jacob (c. 500-578), leader of Jacobite Church. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Syrian churches; JACOBITE CHURCH.

BARAKLI DZUMA, village in Bulgaria captured by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1917: V. Balkan theater: e, 1.

BARALONG AFFAIR.—The British decoy ship *Baralong* is alleged to have sunk a German submarine while the latter was in the act of sinking the British cargo steamer *Nicosian*, on August 19, 1915, and to have shot the commander and crew after they had offered to surrender and were struggling in the water. Affidavits to prove this allegation were presented to the British government by the German government through the United States as intermediary, and the demand made that the British government proceed against the captain and crew of the *Baralong* for murder. The British government in answer proposed that the affair be investigated by an impartial tribunal of American naval officers, along with three other incidents, in one of which a German destroyer was alleged, on the day of the *Baralong* affair, to have fired upon a British submarine stranded on the Danish coast, and upon its crew when they attempted to swim ashore. The German government declined the proposal. The incident occurred in the approach to St. George's Channel, and had the effect of keeping submarines away from those waters for six months.

BARANGAYS, groups of fifty or a hundred families in the ancient communal form of government established by the Spanish in the Philippines. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Previous to 1525.

BARANOF, Alexander Andrevich (1746-1819), first governor of Russian America. In 1796 he founded a settlement on Bering strait; in 1799 started a trading post on the large island which bears his name, on which Sitka is situated (see also ALASKA: 1787-1867); extended his operations to the vicinity of San Francisco, near which locality he had a temporary colony.

BARANOVICHI, a railroad junction near the Pripet marshes midway between Vilna and Pinsk. During the World War General Ewerts was forced to give up this strategic junction to the Germans in the fall of 1915 following the capture of Kovno and Grodno. The surrender of Baranovich gave the German army control of the railroad line from Vilna, through the junction, to Rovna, a distance of almost 300 miles. The Russians recaptured this important railroad center in the summer of 1916 at the outset of their offensive.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 6.

BARANY, Robert, otologist of Vienna, noted for discovery of hearing tests. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1914.

BARAS, tribal district of Madagascar. See MADAGASCAR.

BARATHRUM.—"The barathrum, or 'pit of punishment' at Athens, was a deep hole like a well into which criminals were precipitated. Iron hooks were inserted in the sides, which tore the body in pieces as it fell. It corresponded to the *Ceadas* of the Lacedæmonians."—G. Rawlinson, *History of Herodotus*, bk. 7, sect. 133, note.

BARATIERI, Oreste (1841-1901), Italian general, commander in Africa. See ITALY: 1895-1896.

BARBADOS, easternmost island of the British West Indies. Its area is 166 square miles. The coast is surrounded by coral reefs. Sugar cane is the chief product of the island; cotton, tobacco and coffee are also raised. In 1921 its estimated population was 200,368.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

Government.—"The constitution of Barbados was first granted by King Charles I, in 1627, and confirmed by the Commonwealth in the Articles of Agreement for the surrender of the island which have been called the Charter of Barbados. The government consists of a nominated legislative council of nine members, and a house of assembly consisting of twenty-four members elected annually by the people on the basis of a moderate franchise. At general elections to the latter body there is frequently no contest, a fact which speaks volumes for the contented state of the inhabitants, who prefer to devote their time to the development of the island rather than to political strife, an example which might with advantage be followed elsewhere. Next to the house of commons and the house of assembly in Bermuda, the Barbados house of assembly is the most ancient legislative body in British oversea dominions. The executive functions of the government are performed by an executive council which consists of the governor, the colonial secretary, and the attorney general *ex officio*, and such other persons as may be nominated by the King, and of an executive committee which consists of the members of the executive council, one member of the legislative council, and four members of the house of assembly nominated by the governor. This executive committee introduces all money votes and government measures and prepares the estimates."—A. E. Aspinall, ed. (*Oxford survey of the British empire, v. on America, p. 334.*)

1605-1685.—"There is no doubt that in the sixteenth century the island was visited by the Spaniards and Portuguese. . . . Some time in July, 1605, the *Olive Blossom* . . . happened to touch at Barbados off the western coast, and the captain . . . finding the island unoccupied by any European nation, took possession of it in the name of James I. . . . In 1624 a ship (belonging to Sir William Courteen, a wealthy London merchant of Dutch lineage) was forced, from stress of weather, to anchor in a bay on the southern coast of Barbados. . . . The sailors took home to Sir William favourable accounts of the island, and his Dutch correspondents having also written favourably of it, he resolved to colonise the place; and, under the patronage of Ley, Earl of Marlborough, Courteen's scheme of colonisation was carried out. . . . In February, 1627 (new style) the *William and John*, a vessel of 100 tons, fitted out by Sir William Courteen, commanded by Captain Henry Powell, and having on board forty white emigrants (men) and eight negroes, anchored at 'The Hole.' . . . The settlers erected a fort, named it 'Plantation Fort,' hoisted the English flag, and elected Captain William Deane as Governor. . . . In 1628 seventy settlers, under the leadership of Charles Wolferstone, a Bermudian, arrived at the island and anchored off the south-western coast in a bay now called 'Cariisle Bay,' St. Michael's. Here they landed, erected houses, fortified the place, and, finding a rude Indian bridge over a stream, called their settlement 'The Bridge' (now Bridgetown [the capital of the colony]). . . . In 1645 a considerable number of Royalists settled in the colony after the defeat of the King at Naseby.

The majority of the colonists, while loyal to the Throne, were, however, men of moderate views. Dissensions arose with the advent of these ultra-Royalists. . . . On receiving the news of the execution of Charles I. the Royalists proclaimed Charles II., and declared the Book of Common Prayer to be the only pattern of true worship. Governor Bell was set aside and Francis Lord Willoughby of Parham (who had fought against the King and was now fighting against the Parliament) was appointed in his stead; and the adherents of the Parliament were heavily fined and banished. . . . On October 3, 1650, Parliament ordered that a strong fleet should be despatched for reducing to submission the island of Barbados and all other English plantations that should persist in opposition to the Commonwealth, and Cromwell, in consequence, despatched a fleet of seven ships, mounting 236 guns, for this 'Barbados business' under Admiral Sir George Ayscue. . . . On January 11, 1652, the Royalists surrendered on the most honourable terms, and the 'Articles of Agreement' for the rendition of the island were confirmed by the Commonwealth on August 18, 1652. These 'Articles' are justly considered 'The Charter of Barbados.' As soon as the Commonwealth became possessed of the island the leading Royalists were expelled. . . . On the death of Cromwell the Committee of Public Safety appointed Colonel Modiford . . . as Governor. . . . Charles II. bestowed a few baronetcies and knight-hoods on Barbadians for their loyalty, but they got little else out of him. He confirmed the Navigation Act of Cromwell which ruined the trade of the island with the Dutch, and he added to its burdens by granting of monopolies, the chief of these being possessed by the 'Royal African Company,' at the head of which was his brother, afterwards James II.; this was a company for the supply of negro slaves."—E. G. Sinckler, *Barbados handbook, pp. 4-10.*

1663-1690.—**Emigration of settlers to North Carolina.** See NORTH CAROLINA: 1639-1663; 1663-1670.

1672-1680.—**Trade with South Carolina.—Colonization.** See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1670-1783; 1680.

1685-1885.—"In the year 1685 King James the Second came to the British throne. He had already worked ill to Barbados as the head of the Royal African Company, and his accession was accompanied by further taxes on sugar, and by an importation of political prisoners, partisans of Monmouth and victims of the Bloody Assize. War with France followed the Revolution of 1688, which sent the Stuarts over the water to the care of Louis the Fourteenth, and, in the following year, Barbadian troops were mainly instrumental in recovering St. Kitts from the French. . . . In 1700 Labat, who visited Barbados, found it given up to sugar planting, rich, flourishing, and better peopled than any other of the British West Indian colonies; the number of slaves was given to him at 60,000, but he placed it himself at the lower figure of 40,000, and he noticed the danger to the public peace from the Irish element in the community. By the middle of the eighteenth century, in 1757, the number of negroes was returned at nearly 64,000, while the white population was under 17,000. The islanders however were vigorous as ever, for in 1762 they raised a regiment for the expedition which took Martinique, and thus contributed to the British successes which led up to the peace of Paris in the following year. The Stamp Act, which helped to bring about the revolt of the North American

colonies, pressed for a while on Barbados also; and the Barbadians felt the ill effects of the policy embodied in it, for the American War of Independence cut them off from their food supplies, and brought, according to the terms of their address to the king, a population of 12,000 whites and 80,000 blacks within reach of starvation. In 1780 the island was laid desolate by an awful hurricane, and representations of the misery thus caused, led to a grant from the Imperial Parliament of £80,000, to which was added a sum raised by private subscription in England. . . . The embargo placed by the Government of the United States on the trade of Great Britain and her colonies, with the war which followed in 1812, straitened the supplies of the island. At the same time the movement against slavery was gathering strength, and premature reports of emancipation led to a slave insurrection in 1816. In 1805 there were 15,000 white inhabitants to 60,000 slaves, and in 1834, the year of liberty, the number of slaves had risen to nearly 83,000, while the white population was slightly under 13,000. Again at a critical time the island was visited by a hurricane, the storm of the eleventh of August, 1831, being in the words of the Governor 'one of the most dreadful hurricanes ever experienced in the West Indies.' It laid waste the three islands of Barbados, St. Vincent and St. Lucia, and once more the Imperial Parliament voted a grant in aid of the sufferers, supplementing the gift by a loan and by a suspension of the duties levied on the provisions imported into the island. [With respect to] emancipation and free-trade, . . . the lot of Barbados did not materially differ from that of the rest of the West Indies. . . . The Barbadians faced their difficulties manfully and well, although no colony was more dependent on slave labour, and there was none whose fortunes were more bound up with the one product of sugar. In 1833 the Governor of Barbados was constituted also Governor of St. Vincent, Grenada and Tobago. St. Lucia being also included in 1838, and for a short time Trinidad as well. Barbados thus became again the seat of government for the Windward Islands; and the arrangement continued till the year 1885, when it was severed from the other members of the group, and left to be, what it has practically been throughout the history, a separate item in the community of the West Indies."—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, pp. 188-191.—For conditions of sugar industry in Barbados, see WEST INDIES, BRITISH: 1897.

1898.—Destructive tornado.—During the night of September 10 a violent tornado swept the island, destroying 10,000 houses and damaging many hundreds more. Over one hundred lives were lost and three-fourths of the population were rendered homeless. This was the most serious storm which had visited the island since that of August 11, 1831. The home government made a grant of £40,000 to aid in repairing the devastation.

1899-1900.—Reciprocity treaty with United States.—A reciprocity treaty was concluded with the United States on June 16, providing for a twelve per cent. reduction on sugar. The sugar industry of Barbados was not in a thriving condition owing to the backward methods employed; Cuba and Porto Rico, on the other hand, proved formidable competitors, being backed by American capital and improved machinery.

1902-1904.—During 1902 and part of 1903 the island suffered from drought and an epidemic of smallpox. To relieve the economic depression the Imperial Exchequer made a grant of £80,000 to

assist the flagging sugar industry, while attempts were also made to revive the cotton industry.

1905.—Tercentenary of British occupation.—On November 30 the tercentenary of the English occupation of the island was celebrated by services in the cathedral at Bridgetown and other official exercises. An address was dispatched to King Edward relating the historic events of three centuries and expressing the loyalty of the inhabitants during that period.

1905-1910.—Negro labor for Panama Canal.—Period of increased prosperity.—The construction of the Panama Canal by the United States proved to be an important benefit to the overpopulated island of Barbados. In 1905 some 17,000 negroes shipped to the Canal Zone to prepare for the cutting of the canal; of these about 12,000 went on contract service. During 1907 it was estimated that they were sending between £4,000 and £5,000 per month to their homes, besides bringing a considerable sum with them on the expiration of their contracts. During 1908 sporadic cases of yellow fever appeared on the island, a circumstance which interfered with the tourist traffic. By 1909 there were quite 20,000 Barbadian laborers employed in the Canal Zone, and in 1910 the island benefited to the extent of £80,000 from this source.

ALSO IN: J. H. Stark, *History and guide to Barbados*.

BARBARA OF CILLI, wife of Sigismund, Roman emperor and king of Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

BARBARIAN INVASIONS: B. C. 390.—Invasion of Rome by the Gauls.—Destruction of the city. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 390-347.

B. C. 235.—Cisalpine Gaul overrun by the Gætætæ. See CELTS: Early history.

B. C. 113.—Teutones and Cimbri.—"Hitherto, the barbarians of wild Europe whom the Romans had met were either the Aryan Celts, or the non-Aryan tribes found in northern Italy, Spain and Gaul. Now, for the first time, the armies of Rome were challenged by tribes of another grand division of the Aryan stock, coming out of the farther North. These were the Cimbri and the Teutones, wandering hordes of the great Teutonic or Germanic race which has occupied Western Europe north of the Rhine since the beginning of historic time. So far as we can know, these two were the first of the Germanic nations to migrate to the South. They came into collision with Rome in 113 B. C., when they were in Noricum, threatening the frontiers of her Italian dominion. Four years later they were in southern Gaul, where the Romans were now settling colonies and subduing the native Celts. Twice they had beaten the armies opposed to them; two years later they added a third to their victories; and in 105 B. C. they threw Rome into consternation by destroying two great armies on the Rhone. Italy seemed helpless against the invasion for which these terrible barbarians were now preparing, when Marius went against them. In the summer of 102 B. C. he annihilated the Teutones, near Aquæ Sextiæ (modern Aix), and in the following year he destroyed the invading Cimbri, on a bloody field [in Piedmont, northern Italy, near the modern Vercelli]."—J. N. Larned, from the article *Europe*, in former editions.

A. D. 3rd century.—Teutonic nations.—Gothic invasion of Balkan peninsula.—Mediterranean piracy.—"The Germanic nations beyond the Rhine and the Danube had, by this time, improved their organization, and many of the tribes formerly separated and independent were now gathered into powerful confederations. The most formida-

ble of these leagues in the West was that which acquired the common name of the Franks, or Free-men, and which was made up of the peoples occupying territory along the course of the Lower Rhine. Another of nearly equal power, dominating the German side of the Upper Rhine and the headwaters of the Danube, is believed to have absorbed the tribes which had been known in the previous century as Boii, Marcomanni, Quadi, and others. The general name it received was that of the Alemanni. The Alemanni were in intimate association with the Suevi, and little is known of the distinction that existed between the two. They had now begun to make incursions across the Rhine, but were driven back in 238. Farther to the East, on the Lower Danube, a still more dangerous horde was now threatening the flanks of the empire in its European domain. These were Goths, a people akin, without doubt, to the Swedes, Norsemen and Danes; but whence and when they made their way to the neighborhood of the Black sea is a question in dispute. It was in the reign of Caracalla that the Romans became first aware of their presence in the country since known as the Ukraine. A few years later, when Alexander Severus was on the throne, they began to make incursions into Dacia. During the reign of Philip the Arabian (244-249) they passed through Dacia, crossed the Danube, and invaded Mœsia (modern Bulgaria). In their next invasion (251) they passed the Balkans, defeated the Romans in two terrible battles, the last of which cost the reigning Emperor, Decius, his life, and destroyed the city of Philippopolis, with 100,000 of its people. But when, a few years later, they attempted to take possession of even Thrace and Macedonia, they were crushingly defeated by the Emperor Claudius, whose successor Aurelian made peace by surrendering to them the whole province of Dacia (270), where they settled, giving the empire no disturbance for nearly a hundred years. Before this occurred, the Goths, having acquired the little kingdom of Bosphorus (the modern Crimea) had begun to launch a piratical navy, which plundered the coast cities of Asia Minor and Greece, including Athens itself. On the Asiatic side of the [Roman] empire a new power, a revived and regenerated Persian monarchy, had risen out of the ruins of the Parthian kingdom, which it overthrew, and had begun without delay to contest the rule of Rome in the East."—*Ibid.*

4th century.—Goths in the empire.—Raid on Constantinople.—"The death of Valentinian [in 375] was the beginning of the fatal calamities. His brother, Valens, had none of his capability or his vigor, and was unequal to such a crisis as now occurred. The terrible nation of the Huns had entered Europe from the Asiatic steppes, and the Western Goths, or Visigoths, fled before them. These fugitives begged to be permitted to cross the Danube and settle on vacant lands in Mœsia and Thrace. Valens consented, and the whole Visigothic nation, 200,000 warriors, with their women and children, passed the river (376). It is possible that they might, by fair treatment, have been converted into loyal citizens, and useful defenders of the land. But the corrupt officials of the court look advantage of their dependent state, and wrung extortionate prices from them for disgusting food, until they rose in desperation and wasted Thrace with fire and sword. Fresh bodies of Ostrogoths (Eastern Goths) and other barbarians came over to join them (378); the Roman armies were beaten in two great battles, and Valens, the emperor, was slain. The victorious

Goths swept on to the very walls of Constantinople, which they could not surmount, and the whole open country, from the Black Sea to the Adriatic, was ravaged by them at will.

"In the meantime, the western division of the empire had passed, on the death of Valentinian, under the nominal rule of his two young sons, Gratian, aged sixteen, and Valentinian II, aged four. Gratian had made an attempt to bring help to his uncle Valens; but the latter fought his fatal battle while the boy emperor was on the way, and the latter, upon hearing of it, turned back. Then Gratian performed his one great act. He sought a colleague, and called to the throne the most promising young soldier of the day. This was Theodosius, whose father, Count Theodosius, the deliverer of Britain, had been put to death by Valens, on some jealous accusation, only three years before. The new emperor took the East for his realm, having Gratian and Valentinian II for colleagues in the West. He speedily checked the ravages of the Goths and restored the confidence of the Roman soldiers. Then he brought diplomacy to bear upon the dangerous situation and succeeded in arranging a peace with the Gothic chieftains, which enlisted them in the imperial service with forty thousand of their men. But they retained their distinctive organization, under their own chiefs, and were called "fœderati," or allies. This concession of a semi-independence to so great a body of armed barbarians in the heart of the empire was a fatal mistake, as was proved before many years."—*Ibid.*

395-408.—Decay of the Western empire.—Stilicho and Alaric the Goth.—After the death of Theodosius in 395 and the subsequent division of the empire, evil days fell on the older Rome, "while the New Rome lived through them, and endured for a thousand years. No doubt the empire had weakened more on its elder side; had suffered more exhaustion of vital powers. It had little organic vitality now left in it. [Swarms of barbaric invaders were waiting and watching at its doors, and pressing upon it with increasing fierceness.] Population dwindled year by year. Recruiting from the body of citizens for the common needs of the army became more impossible. The state was fully dependent, at last, on barbaric mercenaries of one tribe for its defense against the barbaric invaders of another; and it was no longer able, as of old, to impress its savage servitors with awe of its majesty and its name. Stilicho [who was a Vandal by birth] for a time stoutly breasted the rising flood of disaster. He checked the Picts and Scots of Northern Britain, and the Alemanni and their allies on the frontiers of Gaul. But now there arose again the more dreadful barbarian host which had footing in the empire itself, and which Theodosius had taken into pay. The Visigoths elected a king (395), and were persuaded with ease to carve a kingdom for him out of the domain which seemed waiting to be snatched from one or both of the feeble monarchs [Arcadius and Honorius], who sat in mockery of state at Constantinople and Milan. Alaric, the new Gothic king, moved first against the capital on the Bosphorus; but Rufinus persuaded him to pass on into Greece, where he went pillaging and destroying for a year. Stilicho, the one defender of the empire, came over from Italy with an army to oppose him; but he was stopped on the eve of battle by orders from the Eastern court, which sent him back, as an officious meddler. This act of mischief and malice was the last that Rufinus could do. He was murdered, soon afterwards, and Arcadius, being free from his

influence, then called upon Stilicho for help. The latter came once more to deliver Greece, and did so with success. But Alaric, though expelled from the peninsula, was neither crushed nor disarmed, and the Eastern court had still to make terms with him. It did so for the moment by conferring on him the government of that part of Illyricum which the Serbia and Bosnia of the present day coincide with, very nearly. He rested there in peace for four years, and then (400) he called his people to arms again, and led the whole nation, men, women and children, into Italy. The emperor, Honorius, fled from Milan to Ravenna, which, being a safe shelter behind marshes and streams, became the seat of the court for years thereafter. Stilicho, stripping Britain and Gaul of troops, gathered forces with which, at Eastertide in the year 402, and again in the following year, he defeated the Goths, and forced them to retreat.

"He had scarcely rested from these exertions, when . . . Stilicho was called upon to confront a more savage leader, Radagaisus by name, who came from beyond the lines (405), with a vast swarm of mixed warriors from many tribes pouring after him across the Alps. Again Stilicho, by superior skill, worsted the invaders, entrapping them in the mountains near Fiesole (modern Florence), and starving them there till they yielded themselves to slavery and their chieftain to death. This was the last great service to the dying Roman state which Stilicho was permitted to do. Undermined by the jealousies of the . . . court at Ravenna, he seems to have lost suddenly the power by which he held himself so high. He was accused of treasonable designs and was seized and instantly executed by the emperor's command [in 408]."—*Ibid.*

408-410.—Alaric and his Goths in Rome.—Sack of the city.—"Stilicho dead, there was no one in Italy for Alaric to fear, and he promptly returned across the Alps, with the nation of the Visigoths behind him. There was no resistance to his march, and he advanced straight upon Rome. He did not assail the walls, but sat down before the gates (408), until the starving citizens paid him a great ransom in silver and gold and precious spices and silken robes. With this booty he retired for the winter into Tuscany, where his army was swelled by thousands of fugitive barbarian slaves, and by reinforcements of Goths and Huns. From his camp he opened negotiations with Honorius, demanding the government of Dalmatia, Venetia and Noricum, with certain subsidies of money and corn. The contemptible court, skulking at Ravenna, could neither make war nor make concessions, and it soon exhausted the patience of the barbarian by its puerilities. [Alaric] marched again to Rome (409), seized the port of Ostia, with its supplies of grain, and forced the helpless capital to join him in proclaiming a rival emperor. The prefect of the city, one Attalus, accepted the purple at his hands, and played the puppet for a few months in imperial robes. But the scheme proved unprofitable, Attalus was deposed, and negotiations were reopened with Honorius. Their only result was a fresh provocation which sent Alaric once more against Rome, and this time with wrath and vengeance in his heart. Then the great, august capital of the world, was entered, through treachery or by surprise, on the night of the 24th of August, 410, and suffered all that the lust, the ferocity and the greed of a barbarous army let loose could inflict on an unresisting city. It was her first experience of that supreme catastrophe of war, since Brennus and the Gauls came in; but it was not to be the last. [See also

CHRISTIANITY: 337-476.] From the sack of Rome, Alaric moved southward, intending to conquer Sicily; but a sudden illness brought his career to an end [in 410].

"The empire was now like a dying quarry, pulled down by fierce hunting packs and torn on every side. The Goths were at its throat; the tribes of Germany—Sueves, Vandals, Burgundians, Alans—had leaped the Rhine (406) and swarmed upon its flanks, throughout Gaul and Spain. The inrush began after Stilicho, to defend Italy against Alaric and Radagaisus, had stripped the frontiers of troops. Sueves, Vandals, and Alans passed slowly through the provinces, devouring their wealth and making havoc of their civilization as they went. After three years, they had reached and surmounted the Pyrenees, and were spreading the same destruction through Spain. The confederated tribes of the Franks had already been admitted as allies into northwestern Gaul, and were settled there in peace. At first, they stood faithful to the Roman alliance, and valiantly resisted the new invasion; but its numbers overpowered them, and their fidelity gave way when they saw the pillage of the doomed provinces going on. They presently joined the barbarous mob, and with an energy which secured the lion's share of plunder and domain. The Burgundians did not follow the Vandals and Sueves to the southwest, but took possession of the left bank of the middle Rhine, whence they gradually spread into western Switzerland and Savoy, and down the valleys of the Rhone and Saone, establishing in time an important kingdom, to which they gave their name.

No help from Ravenna or Rome came to the perishing provincials of Gaul in the extremity of their distress; but a pretender arose in Britain, who assumed the imperial title and promised deliverance. He crossed over to Gaul in 407 and was welcomed with eagerness, both there and in Spain, to which he advanced. He gained some success, partly by enlisting and partly by resisting the invaders; but his career was brief. Other pretenders appeared in various provinces of the West; but the anarchy of the time was too great for any authority, legitimate or revolutionary, to establish itself."—*Ibid.*

408-423.—Visigoths in Gaul.—Eastern empire.—"And, now, into the tempting country of the afflicted Gauls, already crowded with rapacious freebooters, the Visigoths made their way. Their new king, Ataulph, or Adolphus, who succeeded Alaric, passed into Gaul, but not commissioned, as sometimes stated, to restore the imperial sovereignty there. He moved with his nation, as Alaric had moved, and Italy, by his departure, was relieved; but Nabonne, Toulouse, Bordeaux, and the Aquitainian country at large, was soon subject to his command (412-410). He passed the Pyrenees and entered Spain, where an assassin took his life. His successor, Wallia, drove the Sueves into the mountains and the Vandals into the South; but did not take possession of the country until a later time. The Visigoths, returning to Aquitaine, found there, at last, the kingdom which Alaric set out from the Danube to seek, and they were established in it with the Roman emperor's consent. It was known as the kingdom of Gothia, or Septimania, but is more commonly called, from its capital, the kingdom of Toulouse. Affairs in the Eastern empire had never arrived at so desperate a state as in the West. With the departure of Alaric, it had been relieved from its most dangerous immediate foe. There had been tumults, disorders, assassinations, court conspiracies, fierce religious strifes, and every

evidence of a government with no settled authority and no title to respect; but yet the empire stood and was not yet seriously shaken. In 408 Arcadius died. His death was no loss, though he left an infant son to take his place; for he also left a daughter, Pulcheria, who proved to be a woman of rare virtue and talents, and who reigned in her brother's name. The imbecile Honorius, with whose name the failing sovereignty of Rome had been so disastrously linked for eight and twenty years, died in 423. An infant nephew was his heir, and Placidia, the mother, ruled at Ravenna for a fourth of a century, in the name of her child. Her reign was far stronger than her wretched brother's had been, because she gave loyal support to a valiant and able man, who stood at her side. Aetius, her minister, did all, perhaps, that man could do to hold some parts of Gaul, and to play barbarian against barbarian—Hun against Goth and Frank—in skilful diplomacy and courageous war. But nothing that he won was any lasting gain."—*Ibid.*

423-455.—Aetius and the Huns in Europe.—Defeat of Attila near Chalons.—Huns threaten Rome.—City sacked by Genseric the Vandal.—“In his youth, Aetius had been a hostage in the camps of both the Goths and the Huns, and had made acquaintances among the chieftains of both which served his policy many times. He had employed the terrible Huns in the early years of his ministry, and perhaps they had learned too much of the weakness of the Roman state. These most fearful of all the barbarian peoples then surging in Europe had been settled, for some years, in the region since called Hungary, under Attila, their most formidable king. He terrorized all the surrounding lands and exercised a lordship from the Caspian to the Baltic and the Rhine. The imperial court at the East stooped to pay him annual tribute for abstaining from the invasion of its domain. But in 450, when the regent Pulcheria became empress of the East, by her brother's death, and married a brave old soldier, Marcian, in order to give him the governing power, a new tone was heard in the voice from Constantinople which answered Attila's demands. The Hun then appears to have seen that the sinking empire of the West offered a more certain victim to his terrors and his arms, and he turned them to that side. First forming an alliance with the Vandals (who had crossed from Spain to Africa in 429, had ravaged and subdued the Roman provinces, and had established a kingdom on the Carthaginian ground, with a naval power in the Carthaginian sea), Attila led his huge army into suffering Gaul. There were Ostrogoths, and warriors from many German tribes, as well as Huns, in the terrific host; for Attila's arm stretched far, and his subjects were forced to follow when he led. His coming into Gaul affrighted Romans and barbarians alike, and united them in a common defense. Aetius formed an alliance with Theodoric, the Visigothic king, and their forces were joined by Burgundians and Franks. They met Attila near Chalons, and there, on a day in June, 451, upon the Catalaunian fields, was fought a battle that is always counted among the few which gave shape to all subsequent history. The Huns were beaten back, and Europe was saved from the hopeless night that must have followed a Tartar conquest in that age. Attila retreated to Germany, foiled but not daunted. The next year (452) he invaded Italy and laid siege to Aquileia, an important city which stood in his path. It resisted for three months and was then utterly destroyed. The few inhabitants who escaped, with

fugitives from neighboring ports, found a refuge in some islands of the Adriatic coast, and formed there a sheltered settlement which grew into the great city and republican state of Venice. Aetius made strenuous exertions to gather forces for another battle with the Huns; but the resources of the empire had sunk very low. While he labored to collect troops, the effect of a pacific embassy was despairingly tried, and it went forth to the camp of Attila, led by the venerable bishop of Rome—the first powerful pope—Leo I., called the Great. The impression which Leo made on the Hunnish king, by his venerable presence, and by the persuasiveness of his words, appears to have been extraordinary. At all events, Attila consented to postpone his designs on Rome; though he demanded and received promise of an annual tribute. The next winter (453), he died, and Rome was troubled by him no more.”—*Ibid.*—See also VENICE: 452.

“But another enemy came, who rivalled Attila in ruthlessness, and who gave a name to barbarity which it has kept to this day. The Vandal king, Genseric, who now swept the Mediterranean with a piratical fleet, made his appearance in the Tiber (455) and found the Roman capital powerless to resist his attack. The venerable Pope Leo again interceded for the city, and obtained a promise that captives should not be tortured nor buildings burned,—which was the utmost stretch of mercy that the Vandal could afford. Once more, then, was Rome given up, for fourteen days and nights, to pillage and the horrors of barbaric debauch. ‘Whatever had survived the former sack,—whatever the luxury of the Roman Patriciate, during the intervening forty-five years, had accumulated in reparation of their loss,—the treasures of the imperial palace, the gold and silver vessels employed in the churches, the statues of pagan divinities and men of Roman renown, the gilded roof of the temple of Capitoline Jove, the plate and ornaments of private individuals, were leisurely conveyed to the Vandal fleet and shipped off to Africa’ (Sheppard). The Vandal invasion had been preceded, in the same year, by a palace revolution which brought the dynasty of Theodosius to an end. Placidia was dead, and her unworthy son, Valentinian III, provoked assassination by dishonoring the wife of a wealthy senator, Maximus, who mounted to his place. Maximus was slain by a mob at Rome, just before the Vandals entered the city. The empire was now without a head, and the throne without an heir. In former times, the Senate or the army would have filled the vacant imperial seat; now, it was a barbarian monarch, Theodoric, the Visigothic king, who made choice of a successor to the Cæsars. He named a Gallic noble, Avitus by name, who had won his esteem, and the nomination was confirmed by Marcian, emperor of the East [in 455].”—*Ibid.*—See also EUROPE: Ancient: Roman civilization: Fall of Rome.

488-526.—Barbarian invasion of Rome. See ROME: medieval city: 488-526.

527-553.—Justinian I.—Repels series of barbarian invasions.—Belisarius campaigns against the Goths.—Totila the Ostrogoth captures Rome.—End of Ostrogoth kingdom.—Exarchate.—“The reign of Justinian, from its length, its glory and its disasters, may be compared to the reign of Louis XIV, which exceeded it in length, and equalled it in glory and disaster. . . . He extended the limits of his empire; but he was unable to defend the territory he had received from his predecessors. Every one of the thirty-eight years of his reign was marked by an invasion of the

barbarians; and it has been said that, reckoning those who fell by the sword, who perished from want, or were led into captivity, each invasion cost 200,000 subjects to the empire. Calamities which human prudence is unable to resist seemed to combine against the Romans, as if to compel them to expiate their ancient glory. . . . So that the very period which gave birth to so many monuments of greatness, may be looked back upon with horror, as that of the widest desolation and the most terrific mortality' (Sismondi). The first and longest of the wars of Justinian was the Persian war, which he inherited from his predecessors, and which scarcely ceased while the Persian monarchy endured. It was in these Asiatic campaigns that Belisarius began his career. But his first great achievement was the overthrow and extinction of the Vandal power in Africa, and the restoration of Roman authority (the empire of the new Rome) in the old Carthaginian province (533-534). He accomplished this with a force of but 10,000 foot and 5,000 horse, and was hastily recalled by his jealous lord on the instant of his success. But the ambition of Justinian was whetted by this marvellous conquest, and he promptly projected an expedition against the kingdom of the Eastern Goths. The death of Theodoric had occurred in 526. His successor was a child of ten years, his grandson, whose mother exercised the regency. Amalsuentha, the queen-regent, was a woman of highly cultivated mind, and she offended her subjects by too marked a Romanization of her ideas. Her son died in his eighteenth year, and she associated with herself on the throne the next heir to it, a worthless nephew of Theodoric, who was able, in a few weeks, to strip all her power from her and consign her to a distant prison, where she was soon put to death (535). She had previously opened negotiations with Justinian for the restoration of his supremacy in Italy, and the ambitious emperor assumed with eagerness a right to avenge her deposition and death. The fate of Amalsuentha was his excuse, the discontent of Roman orthodoxy with the rule of the heretic Goths was his encouragement, to send an army into Italy with Belisarius at its head. First taking possession of Sicily, Belisarius landed in Italy in 536, took Naples and advanced on Rome. An able soldier, Vitiges, had been raised to the Gothic throne, and he evacuated Rome in December; but he returned the following March and laid siege to the ancient capital, which Belisarius had occupied with a moderate force. It was defended against him for an entire year, and the strength of the Gothic nation was consumed on the outer side of the walls, while the inhabitants within were wasted by famine and disease. The Goths invoked the aid of the Franks in Gaul, and those fierce warriors, crossing the Alps (538), assailed both Goths and Greeks, with indiscriminate hostility, destroyed Milan and Genoa, and mostly perished of hunger themselves before they retreated from the wasted Cisalpine country. [See also MILAN: 539.]

"Released from Rome, Belisarius advanced in his turn against Ravenna, and took the Gothic capital, making Vitiges a prisoner (539). His reward for these successes was a recall from command. The jealous emperor could not afford his generals too much glory at a single winning. As a consequence of his folly, the Goths, under a new king, Totila, were allowed to recover so much ground in the next four years that, when, in 544, Belisarius was sent back, almost without an army, the work of conquest had to be done anew. Rome was still being held against Totila, who besieged it, and the great general went by sea to its relief. He forced

the passage of the Tiber, but failed through the misconduct of the commander in the city to accomplish an entry, and once more the great capital was entered and yielded to angry Goths (546). They spared the lives of the few people they found, and the chastity of the women; but they plundered without restraint. Totila commanded the total destruction of the city; but his ruthless hand was stayed by the remonstrances of Belisarius. After demolishing a third of the walls, he withdrew towards the South, dragging the few inhabitants with him, and, during forty days, Rome is said to have been an unpeopled solitude. . . . At the end of that period it was entered by Belisarius, who hastily repaired the walls, collected his forces, and was prepared to defend himself when Totila came back by rapid marches from Apulia. The Goths made three assaults and were bloodily repulsed. But again Belisarius was recalled by a mean and jealous court, and again the Gothic cause was re-animated and restored. Rome was taken again from its feeble garrison (549), and this time it was treated with respect. Most of Italy and Sicily, with Corsica and Sardinia, were subdued by Totila's arms, and that king, now successful, appealed to Justinian for peace. It was refused, and in 552 a vigorous prosecution of the war resumed, under a new commander—the remarkable eunuch Narses, who proved himself to be one of the great masters of war. Totila was defeated and slain in the first battle of the campaign; Rome was again beleaguered and taken; and the last blow needed to extinguish the Gothic kingdom in Italy was given the following year (553), when Totila's successor, Teia, ended his life on another disastrous field of battle. Italy was restored for the moment to the empire, and was placed under the government of an imperial viceroy, called Exarch, which high office the valiant Narses was the first to fill. His successors, known in history as the Exarchs of Ravenna, resided in that capital for a long period, while the arm of their authority was steadily shortened by the conquests of new invaders."—*Ibid.*—See also EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map.

5th and 6th centuries.—Invasions of Britain. —Picts and Scots.—Teutonic conquest.—"Leaving Italy and Rome, once more in the imperial fold, but mere provinces now of a distant and alienated sovereignty, it is necessary to turn back to the West, and glance over the regions in which . . . the institutions of Roman government and society were being dissolved and broken up by flood upon flood of barbaric invasion from the Teutonic North. If we begin at the farthest West which the Roman dominion reached, we shall find that the island of Britain was abandoned, practically, by the imperial government earlier than the year 410, when Rome was sinking under the blows of Alaric. From that time the inhabitants were left to their own government and their own defense. To the inroads of the savage . . . Picts and . . . Scots, there were added, now, the coast ravages of a swarm of ruthless pirates, which the tribes of north-western Europe had begun to launch upon the German or North sea. The most cruel and terrible of these ocean freebooters were the Saxons, of the Elbe, and they gave their name for a time to the whole. Their destructive raids upon the coasts of Britain and Gaul had commenced more than a century before the Romans withdrew their legions, and that part of the British coast most exposed to their ravages was known as the Saxon Shore. For about thirty years after the Roman and Romanized inhabitants of Britain had been left to defend themselves, they held their ground with good courage,

as appears; but the incessant attacks of the Picts wore out, at last, their confidence in themselves, and they were fatally led to seek help from their other enemies, who scoured them from the sea. Their invitation was given, not to the Saxons, but to a band of Jutes—warriors from that Danish peninsula in which they have left their name. The Jutes landed at Ebbsfleet, in the Isle of Thanet (449 or 450), with two chiefs, Hengest and Horsa, at their head. They came as allies, and fought by the side of the Britons against the Picts with excellent success. Then came quarrels, and presently, in 455, the arms of Hengest and Horsa were turned against their employers. Ten years later the Jutes had secure possession of the part of Britain now called Kent, and Hengest was their king, Horsa having fallen in the war. This was the beginning of the transformation of Roman-Celtic Britain into the Teutonic England of later history. The success of the Jutes drew their cousins and piratical comrades, the Saxons and the Angles, to seek kingdoms in the same rich island. The Saxons came first, landing near Selsey, in 477, and taking gradual possession of a district which became known as the kingdom of the South Saxons, or Sussex. The next invasion was by Saxons under Cedric, and Jutes, who joined to form the kingdom of the West Saxons, or Wessex, covering about the territory of modern Hampshire. So much of their conquest was complete by the year 519. At about the same time, other colonies were established and gave their names, as East Saxons and Middle Saxons, to the Essex and Middlesex of modern English geography. A third tribe from the German shore, the Angles, now came (547) to take their part in the conquest of the island, and these laid their hands upon kingdoms in the East and North of England, so much larger than the modest Jute and Saxon realms in the south that their name fixed itself, at last, upon the whole country, when it lost the name of Britain. Northumberland, which stretched from the Humber to the Firth of Forth, Mercia, which covered at one time the whole middle region of England, and East Anglia, which became divided into the two English counties of Norfolk (North-folk) and Suffolk (South-folk), were the three great kingdoms of the Angles. Before the end of the sixth century, almost the whole of modern England, and part of Scotland, on its eastern side, as far to the north as Edinburgh, was in possession of the German invaders. They had not merely subdued the former possessors—Britons and Roman provincials (if Romans remained in the island after their domination ceased),—but, in the judgment of the best investigators of the subject, they had practically swept them from all the parts of the island in which their own settlements were established. That is to say, the prior population was either exterminated by the merciless swords of these Saxon and English pagans, or was driven into the mountains of Wales, into the peninsula of Cornwall and Devon, or into the Strathclyde corner of Scottish territory,—in all which regions the ancient British race has maintained itself to this day. Scarcely a vestige of its existence remains elsewhere in England,—neither in language, nor in local names, nor in institutions, nor in survivals of any other kind; which shows that the inhabitants were effaced by the conquest, as the inhabitants of Gaul, of Spain, and of Italy, for example, were not. The new society and the new states which now arose on the soil of Britain, and began to shape themselves into the England of the future, were as purely Germanic as if they had grown up in the Jutish peninsula or on the Elbe. The institutions, political

and social, of the immigrant nations, had been modified by changed circumstances, but they had incorporated almost nothing from the institutions which they found existing in their new home and which they supplanted. Broadly speaking, nothing Roman and nothing Celtic entered into them. They were constructed on German lines throughout. The barbarism of the Saxons and their kin when they entered Britain was far more unmitigated than that of most of the Teutonic tribes which overwhelmed the continental provinces of Rome had been. The Goths had been influenced to some extent and for quite a period by Roman civilization, and had nominally accepted Christian precepts and beliefs, before they took arms against the empire. The Franks had been allies of Rome and in contact with the refinements of Roman Gaul, for a century or two before they became masters in that province. Most of the other nations which transplanted themselves in the fifth century from beyond the Rhine to new homes in the provinces of Rome, had been living for generations on the borders of the empire, or near; had acquired some acquaintance, at least, with the civilization which they did not share, and conceded to it a certain respect; while some of them had borne arms for the Emperor and taken his pay. But the Saxons, Angles and Jutes had thus far been remote from every influence or experience of the kind. They knew the Romans only as rich strangers to be plundered and foes to be fought. Christianity represented nothing to them but an insult to their gods. There seems to be little doubt, therefore, that the civilizing work which Rome had done in western Europe was obliterated nowhere else so ruthlessly and so wantonly as in Britain. Christianity, still sheltered and strong in Ireland, was wholly extinguished in England for a century and more, until the memorable mission of Augustine, sent by Pope Gregory the Great (597), began the conversion of the savage islanders.

5th-10th centuries.—**Kingdom of the Franks.**—**Appearance of the Northmen.**—**Danes in England.**—**Normans.**—**Northmen in West and East.**—“In Gaul, meanwhile, and in southwestern Germany, the Franks had become the dominant power. They had moved tardily to the conquest, but when they moved it was with rapid strides. While they dwelt along the Lower Rhine, they were in two divisions: the Salian Franks, who occupied, first, the country near the mouth of the river, and then spread southwards, to the Somme, or beyond; and the Ripuarian, who lived farther up the Rhine, in the neighborhood of Cologne, advancing thence to the Moselle. In the later part of the fifth century a Roman Patrician, Syagrius, still exercised some kind of authority in northern Gaul; but in 486 he was defeated and overthrown by Chlodwig, or Clovis, the chief of the Salian Franks. Ten years later, Clovis, leading both the Salian and the Ripuarian Franks in an attack upon the German Alemanni, beyond the Upper Rhine, subdued that people completely, and took their country. Their name survived, and adhered to the whole people of Germany, whom the Franks and their successors the French have called *Alemanni* to this day. After his conquest of the Alemanni, Clovis, who had married a Christian wife, accepted her faith and was baptized, with three thousand of his chief men. He adopted the Christianity which was that of the Roman Church—the Catholic Christianity of the Athanasian creed—and he stood forth at once as the champion of orthodoxy against the heretic Goths and Burgundians, whose religion had been poisoned by the condemned doctrines of Arius. The blessings,

and the more substantial endeavors, of the Roman Church were, therefore, on his side, when he attacked the Burgundians and made them tributary, and when, a few years later, he expelled the Goths from Aquitaine and drove them into Spain (500-508). Beginning, apparently, as one of several chiefs among the Salian Franks, he ended his career (510) as sole king of the whole Frank nation, and master of all Gaul except a Gothic corner of Provence, with a considerable dominion beyond the Rhine. [Less than three hundred years later] Charlemagne . . . made his dominion imperial in extent, by the magnitude of his conquests. North, south, east, and west, his armies had been everywhere victorious. In eighteen campaigns against the fierce and troublesome Saxons, he subdued those stubborn pagans and forced them to submit to a Christian baptism—with how much of immediate religious effect may be easily surmised. But by opening a way for the more Christ-like missionaries of the cross, who followed him, this missionary of the battle-ax did, no doubt, a very real apostolic work. He checked the ravages of the piratical Danes. He crushed the Avars and took their country, which comprised parts of the Austria and Hungary of the present day. He occupied Bavaria, on the one hand, and Brittany on the other. He crossed the Pyrenees to measure swords with the Saracens, and drove them from the north of Spain, as far as the Ebro. . . . He was unquestionably one of the greatest monarchs of any age, and deserves the title *Magnus*, affixed to his name. . . . There was much more in his character than the mere aggressive energy which subjugated so wide a realm. He was a man of enlightenment far beyond his time; a man who strove after order, in that disorderly age, and who felt oppressed by the ignorance into which the world had sunk. He was a seeker after learning, and the friend and patron of all in his day who groped in the darkness and felt their way towards the light. He organized his empire with a sense of political system which was new among the Teutonic masters of Western Europe (except as shown by Theodoric in Italy); but there were not years enough in his own life for the organism to mature, and his sons brought back chaos again. Before Charlemagne died (814) he saw the western coasts and river valleys of his empire harried by a fresh outpouring of sea-rovers from the far North, and it is said that he had sad forebodings of the affliction they would become to his people thereafter. These new pirates of the North sea, who took up, after several centuries, the abandoned trade of their kinsmen, the Saxons (now retired from their wild courses and respectably settled on one side of the water, while subdued and kept in order on the other), were of the bold and rugged Scandinavian race, which inhabited the countries since known as Denmark, Sweden and Norway. They are more or less confused under the general name of Northmen, or Norsemen—men of the North; but that term appears to have been applied more especially to the freebooters from the Norwegian coast, as distinguished from the "Danes" of the lesser peninsula. It is convenient, in so general a sketch as this, to ignore the distinction, and to speak of the Northmen as inclusive, for that age, of the whole Scandinavian race. Their visitations began to terrify the coasts of England, France and Germany, and the lower valleys of the rivers which they found it possible to ascend, some time in the later half of the eighth century. It is probable that their appearance on the sea at this time, and not before, was due to a revolution which united Norway under a single king and a stronger gov-

ernment, and which, by suppressing independence and disorder among the petty chiefs, drove many of them to their ships and sent them abroad, to lead a life of lawlessness more agreeable to their tastes. It is also probable that the northern countries had become populated beyond their resources, as seemed to have happened before, when the Goths swarmed out, and that the outlet by sea was necessarily and deliberately opened. Whatever the cause, these Norse adventurers, in fleets of long boats, issued with some suddenness from their "vics," or fiords (whence the name "viking"), and began an extraordinary career. For more than half a century their raids had no object but plunder, and what they took they carried home to enjoy. First to the Frisian coast, then to the Rhine—the Seine—the Loire,—they came again and again to pillage and destroy; crossing at the same time to the shores of their nearest kinsmen—but heeding no kinship in their savage and relentless forays along the English coasts—and around to Ireland and the Scottish islands, where their earliest lodgments were made. About the middle of the ninth century they began to seize tracts of land in England and to settle themselves there in permanent homes. The Angles in the northern and eastern parts and the Saxons in the southern part of England had weakened themselves and one another by rivalry and war between their divided kingdoms. There had been for three centuries an unceasing struggle among them for supremacy. At the time of the coming of the Danes (who were prominent in the English invasion and gave their name to it), the West Saxon kings had won a decided ascendancy. The Danes, by degrees, stripped them of what they had gained. Northumberland, Mercia and East Anglia were occupied in succession, and Wessex itself was attacked. King Alfred, the great and admirable hero of early English history, who came to the throne in 871, spent the first eight years of his reign in a deadly struggle with the invaders. He was obliged in the end to concede to them the whole northeastern part of England, from the Thames to the Tyne, which was known thereafter as "the Danelaw"; but they became his vassals, and submitted to Christian baptism. A century later, the Norse rovers resumed their attacks upon England, and a cowardly English king, distrusting the now settled and peaceful Danes, ordered an extensive massacre of them (1002). The rage which this provoked in Denmark led to a great invasion of the country. England was completely conquered, and remained subject to the Danish kings until 1042, when its throne was recovered for a brief space of time by the English line. Meanwhile the Northmen had gained a much firmer and more important footing in the territory of the Western Franks—which had not yet acquired the name of France. The Seine and its valley attracted them again and again, and after repeated expeditions up the river, even to the city of Paris, which they besieged several times [see PARIS: 845 and 857-861], one of their chiefs, Rolf or Rollo, got possession of Ronen and began a permanent settlement in the country. The Frank King, Charles the Simple, now made terms with Rollo and granted him a district at the mouth of the Seine (912), the latter acknowledging the suzerainty or feudal superiority of Charles, and accepting at the same time the doubly new character of a baptised Christian and a Frankish duke. The Northmen on the Seine were known thenceforth as Normans, their dukedom as Normandy, and they played a great part in European history during the next two centuries. The northern sea-rovers who had settled neither

in Ireland, England, nor Frankland, went farther afield into the West and North and had wonderful adventures there. They took possession of the Orkneys, the Shetlands, the Hebrides, and other islands in those seas, including Man, and founded a powerful island-kingdom, which they held for a long period. Thence they passed on to Faroë and Iceland, and in Iceland, where they lived peaceful and quiet lives of necessity, they founded an interesting republic, and developed a very remarkable civilization, adorned by a literature which the world is learning more and more to admire. From Iceland, it was a natural step to the discovery of Greenland, and from Greenland, there is now little doubt that they sailed southwards and saw and touched the continent of America, five centuries before Columbus made his voyage. While the Northmen of the ninth and tenth centuries were exciting and disturbing all Western Europe by their naval exploits, other adventurers from the Swedish side of the Scandinavian country were sallying eastwards under different names. Both as warriors and as merchants, they made their way from the Baltic to the Black Sea and the Bosphorus, and bands of them entered the service of the Eastern Emperor, at Constantinople, where they received the name of Varangians, from the oath by which they bound themselves. One of the Swedish chiefs, Rurik by name, was chosen by certain tribes of the country now called Russia, to be their prince. Rurik's capital was Novgorod, where he formed the nucleus of a kingdom which grew, through many vicissitudes, into the modern empire of Russia. His successors transferred their capital to Kief, and ultimately it was shifted again to Moscow, where the Muscovite princes acquired the title, the power, and the great dominion of the Czars of all the Russias.—*Ibid.*

BARBARIANS.—"The feeling of unity (in ancient Hellas) was intensified by their conflicts with foreigners, whom they called 'barbarians.' This word originally signified a people whose language was unintelligible; but as the Greeks discovered their own superiority to others, they began to attach to the word the meaning which it now has in our own language."—G. W. Botsford, *History of the ancient world*, pp. 155-156.

BARBAROSSA, Frederick. See **FREDERICK I**, "BARBAROSSA," emperor of Germany.

BARBAROSSA, Horuk (d. 1518), and **Khair-ed-Din** (d. 1546), two Mohammedan sea rovers of the sixteenth century. See also **BARBARY STATES: 1516-1535**.

BARBARY PIRATES. See **AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses of: 1818; BARBARY STATES; and FREEDOM OF THE SEAS: 1815-1914**.

BARBARY STATES.—The expression "Barbary States" has for a long time been applied to the Mediterranean coast of Africa from Morocco to Egypt. The history of this region is dealt with here from the conquest of the Mohammedans to the period of European predominance about the middle of the nineteenth century. For the modern history of these states see **MOROCCO, ALGERIA, TUNIS, and TRIPOLI**.

647-709.—Mohammedan conquest of north Africa. See **CALIPHATE: 647-709**.

908-1171.—Fatimite caliphs. See **CALIPHATE: 908-1171**.

1415.—Siege and capture of Ceuta by the Portuguese. See **PORTUGAL: 1415-1460**.

1505-1510.—Spanish conquests on the coast.—**Oran.**—**Bugia.**—**Algeria.**—**Tripoli.**—In 1505, a Spanish expedition, planned and urged by Cardinal Ximenes, captured Mazarquivar, an "important port, and formidable nest of pirates, on the Bar-

bary coast, nearly opposite Carthagenia." In 1509, the same energetic prelate led personally an expedition of 4,000 horse and 10,000 foot, with a fleet of ten galleys and eighty smaller vessels, for the conquest of Oran. "This place, situated about a league from the former, was one of the most considerable of the Moslem possessions in the Mediterranean, being a principal mart for the trade of the Levant," and maintained a swarm of cruisers, which swept the Mediterranean "and made fearful depredations on its populous borders." Oran was taken by storm. "No mercy was shown; no respect for age or sex; and the soldiery abandoned themselves to all the brutal license and ferocity which seem to stain religious wars above every other. . . . No less than 4,000 Moors were said to have fallen in the battle, and from 5,000 to 8,000 were made prisoners. The loss of the Christians was inconsiderable." Recalled to Spain by King Ferdinand, Ximenes left the army in Africa under the command of Count Pedro Navarro. Navarro's "first enterprise was against Bugia (Jan. 13th, 1510), whose king, at the head of a powerful army, he routed in two pitched battles, and got possession of his flourishing capital (Jan. 31st). Algiers, Tunis, Tremecin, and other cities on the Barbary coast, submitted one after another to the Spanish arms. The inhabitants were received as vassals of the Catholic king. . . . They guaranteed, moreover, the liberation of all Christian captives in their dominions; for which the Algerians, however, took care to indemnify themselves, by extorting the full ransom from their Jewish residents. . . . On the 26th of July, 1510, the ancient city of Tripoli, after a most bloody and desperate defence, surrendered to the arms of the victorious general, whose name had now become terrible along the whole northern borders of Africa. In the following month, however (Aug. 28th), he met with a serious discomfiture in the island of Gelves, [Jerba], where 4,000 of his men were slain or made prisoners. This check in the brilliant career of Count Navarro put a final stop to the progress of the Castilian arms in Africa under Ferdinand. The results obtained, however, were of great importance. . . . Most of the new conquests escaped from the Spanish crown in later times, through the imbecility or indolence of Ferdinand's successors. The conquests of Ximenes, however, were placed in so strong a posture of defence as to resist every attempt for their recovery by the enemy, and to remain permanently incorporated with the Spanish empire."—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, v. 3, ch. 21.

1516-1535.—Piratical dominion of the Barbarossas in Algeria.—Establishment of Turkish sovereignty.—Seizure of Tunis by the Corsairs and its conquest by Charles V.—"About the beginning of the 16th century, a sudden revolution happened, which, by rendering the states of Barbary formidable to the Europeans, hath made their history worthy of more attention. This revolution was brought about by persons born in a rank of life which entitled them to act no such illustrious part. Horuc and Hayradin, the sons of a potter in the isle of Lesbos, prompted by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their father's trade, ran to sea, and joined a crew of pirates. They soon distinguished themselves by their valor and activity, and, becoming masters of a small brigantine, carried on their infamous trade with such conduct and success that they assembled a fleet of 12 galleys, besides many vessels of smaller force. Of this fleet Horuc, the elder brother, called Barbarossa from the red color of his beard, was

admiral, and Hayradin second in command, but with almost equal authority. They called themselves the friends of the sea, and the enemies of all who sail upon it; and their names soon became terrible from the Straits of the Dardanelles to those of Gibraltar. . . . They often carried the prizes which they took on the coasts of Spain and Italy into the ports of Barbary, and, enriching the inhabitants by the sale of their booty, and the thoughtless prodigality of their crews, were welcome guests in every place at which they touched. The convenient situation of these harbours, lying so near the greatest commercial states at that time in Christendom, made the brothers wish for an establishment in that country. An opportunity of accomplishing this quickly presented itself [1516], which they did not suffer to pass unimproved." Invited by Entemi, king of Algiers, to assist him in taking a Spanish fort which had been built in his neighbourhood, Barbarossa was able to murder his too confiding employer, master the Algerine kingdom and usurp its crown. "Not satisfied with the throne which he had acquired, he attacked the neighbouring king of Tremecen, and, having vanquished him in battle, added his dominions to those of Algiers. At the same time, he continued to infest the coasts of Spain and Italy with fleets which resembled the armaments of a great monarch, rather than the light squadrons of a corsair. Their frequent cruel devastations obliged Charles [the Fifth—the great emperor and king of Spain: 1519-1555], about the beginning of his reign, to furnish the Marquis de Comares, governor of Oran, with troops sufficient to attack him." Barbarossa was defeated in the ensuing war, driven from Tremecen, and slain [1518]. "His brother Hayradin, known likewise by the name of Barbarossa, assumed the sceptre of Algiers with the same ambition and abilities, but with better fortune. His reign being undisturbed by the arms of the Spaniards, which had full occupation in the wars among the European powers, he regulated with admirable prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his naval operations with great vigour, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa. But perceiving that the Moors and Arabs submitted to his government with reluctance, and being afraid that his continual depredations would one day draw upon him the arms of the Christians, he put his dominions under the protection of the Grand Seignior [1519], and received from him [with the title of Bey, or Beylerbey] a body of Turkish soldiers sufficient for his domestic as well as foreign enemies. At last, the fame of his exploits daily increasing, Solymán offered him the command of the Turkish fleet. . . . Barbarossa repaired to Constantinople, and . . . gained the entire confidence both of the sultan and his vizier. To them he communicated a scheme which he had formed of making himself master of Tunis, the most flourishing kingdom at that time on the coast of Africa; and this being approved of by them, he obtained whatever he demanded for carrying it into execution. His hopes of success in this undertaking were founded on the intestine divisions in the kingdom of Tunis." The last king of that country, having thirty-four sons by different wives, had established one of the younger sons on the throne as his successor. This young king attempted to put all of his brothers to death; but Alraschid, who was one of the eldest, escaped and fled to Algiers. Barbarossa now proposed to the Turkish sultan to attack Tunis on the pretence of vindicating the rights of Alraschid. His proposal was adopted and carried out; but even before the Turkish expedition sailed, Alraschid

himself disappeared—a prisoner, shut up in the seraglio—and was never heard of again. The use of his name, however, enabled Barbarossa to enter Tunis in triumph, and the betrayed inhabitants discovered too late that he came as a viceroy, to make them the subjects of the sultan. "Being now possessed of such extensive territories, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states to a greater extent and with more destructive violence than ever. Daily complaints of the outrages committed by his cruisers were brought to the emperor by his subjects, both in Spain and Italy. All Christendom seemed to expect from him, as its greatest and most fortunate prince, that he would put an end to this new and odious species of oppression. At the same time Muley-Hascen [Hassan], the exiled king of Tunis, . . . applied to Charles as the only person who could assert his rights in opposition to such a formidable usurper." The emperor, accordingly, in 1535, prepared a great expedition against Tunis, drawing men and ships from every part of his wide dominions—from Spain, Italy, Germany and the Netherlands. "On the 16th of July the fleet, consisting of near 500 vessels, having on board above 30,000 regular troops, set sail from Cagliari, and, after a prosperous navigation, landed within sight of Tunis." The fort of Goletta, commanding the bay, was invested and taken; the corsair's fleet surrendered, and Barbarossa, advancing boldly from Tunis to attack the invaders, was overwhelmingly beaten, and fled, abandoning his capital. Charles's soldiers rushed into the unfortunate town, escaping all restraint, and making it a scene of indescribable horrors. "Above 30,000 of the innocent inhabitants perished on that unhappy day, and 10,000 were carried away as slaves. Muley-Hascen took possession of a throne surrounded with carnage, abhorred by his subjects, on whom he had brought such calamities." Before quitting the country, Charles concluded a treaty with Muley-Hascen, under which the latter acknowledged that he held his kingdom in fee of the crown of Spain, doing homage to the emperor as his liege, and maintaining a Spanish garrison in the Goletta. He also released, without ransom, all the Christian slaves in his dominions, 20,000 in number, and promised to detain in servitude no subject of the emperor thereafter. He opened his kingdom to the Christian religion, and to free trade, and pledged himself to exclude Turkish corsairs from his ports.—W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V.*, v. 2, bk. 5.

1541.—Disastrous expedition of Charles V against Algeria.—Encouraged, and deceived, by his easy success at Tunis, the emperor, Charles V, determined, in 1541, to undertake the reduction of Algiers, and to wholly exterminate the freebooters of the north African coast. Before his preparations were completed, "the season unfortunately was far advanced, on which account the Pope entreated, and Doria conjured him not to expose his whole armament to a destruction almost unavoidable on a wild shore during the violence of the autumnal gales. Adhering, however, to his plan with determined obstinacy, he embarked at Porto Venere. . . . The force . . . which he had collected . . . consisted of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, mostly veterans, together with 3,000 volunteers. . . . Besides these there had joined his standard 1,000 soldiers sent by the Order of St. John, and led by 100 of its most valiant knights. Landing near Algiers without opposition, Charles immediately advanced towards the town. To oppose the invaders, Hassan had only 800 Turks, and 5,000 Moors, partly natives of Africa, and partly refu-

gees from Spain. When summoned to surrender he, nevertheless, returned a fierce and haughty answer. But with such a handful of troops, neither his desperate courage nor consummate skill in war could have long resisted forces superior to those which had formerly defeated Barbarossa at the head of 60,000 men." He was speedily relieved from danger, however, by an opportune storm, which burst upon the region during the second day after Charles's debarkation. The Spanish camp was flooded; the soldiers drenched, chilled, sleepless and dispirited. In this condition they were attacked by the Moors at dawn, and narrowly escaped a rout. "But all feeling of this disaster was soon obliterated by a more affecting spectacle. As the tempest continued with unabated violence, the full light of day showed the ships, on which alone their safety depended, driving from their anchors, dashing against one another, and many of them forced on the rocks, or sinking in the waters. In less than an hour, 15 ships of war and 140 transports, with 8,000 men, perished before their eyes; and such of the unhappy sailors as escaped the fury of the sea, were murdered by the Arabs as soon as they reached land." With such ships as he could save, Doria sought shelter behind cape Matakuz, sending a message to the emperor, advising that he follow with the army to that point. Charles could not do otherwise than act according to the suggestion; but his army suffered horribly in the retreat, which occupied three days. "Many perished by famine, as the whole army subsisted chiefly on roots and berries, or on the flesh of horses, killed for that purpose by the emperor's orders; numbers were drowned in the swollen brooks; and not a few were slain by the enemy." Even after the army had regained the fleet, and was reembarked, it was scattered by a second storm, and several weeks passed before the emperor reached his Spanish dominions, a wiser and a sadder man.—M. Russell, *History of the Barbary States*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: W. Robertson, *History of the reign of Charles V.*, v. 2, bk. 6.

1543-1560.—Pirate Dragut and his exploits.—Turkish capture of Tripoli.—Disastrous Christian attempt to recover the place.—Dragut, or Torgud, a native of the Caramanian coast, opposite the island of Rhodes, began his career as a Mediterranean corsair some time before the last of the Barbarossas quitted the scene and was advanced by the favor of the Algerine. In 1540 he fell into the hands of one of the Dorias and was bound to the oar as a galley-slave for three years,—which did not sweeten his temper toward the Christian world. In 1543 he was ransomed, and resumed his piracies, with more energy than before. "Dragut's lair was at the island of Jerba [called Gelves, by the Spaniards]. . . . Not content with the rich spoils of Europe, Dragut took the Spanish outposts in Africa, one by one—Susa, Sfax, Monastir; and finally set forth to conquer 'Africa.' It is not uncommon in Arabic to call a country and its capital by the same name. . . . 'Africa' meant to the Arabs the province of Carthage or Tunis and its capital, which was not at first Tunis but successively Kayrawan and Mahdiya. Throughout the later middle ages the name 'Africa' is applied by Christian writers to the latter city. . . . This was the city which Dragut took without a blow in the spring of 1550. Mahdiya was then in an anarchic state, ruled by a council of chiefs, each ready to betray the other, and none owing the smallest allegiance to any king, least of all the despised king of Tunis, Hamid, who had deposed and blinded his father, Hasan, Charles

V's protégé. One of these chiefs let Dragut and his merry men into the city by night. . . . So easy a triumph roused the emulation of Christendom. . . . Don Garcia de Toledo dreamed of outshining the Corsair's glory. His father, the Viceroy of Naples, the Pope, and others, promised their aid, and old Andrea Doria took the command. After much delay and consultation a large body of troops was conveyed to Mahdiya and disembarked on June 28, 1550. Dragut, though aware of the project, was at sea, devastating the Gulf of Genoa, and paying himself in advance for any loss the Christians might inflict in Africa: his nephew Hisar Reis commanded in the city. When Dragut returned, the siege had gone on for a month," but he failed in attempting to raise it and retired to Jerba. Mahdiya was carried by assault on September 8. "Next year, 1551, Dragut's place was with the Ottoman navy, then commanded by Sinan Pasha. . . . With nearly 150 galleys or galleots, 10,000 soldiers, and numerous siege-guns, Sinan and Dragut sailed out of the Dardanelles—whither bound no Christian could tell. They ravaged, as usual, the Straits of Messina, and then revealed the point of attack by making direct for Malta." But the demonstration made against the strong fortifications of the Knights of St. John was ill-planned and feebly executed; it was easily repelled. To wipe out his defeat, Sinan "sailed straight for Tripoli, some 64 leagues away. Tripoli was the natural antidote to Malta; for Tripoli, too, belonged to the Knights of St. John—much against their will—inasmuch as the Emperor had made their defence of this easternmost Barbary state a condition of their tenure of Malta." But the fortifications of Tripoli were not strong enough to resist the Turkish bombardment, and Gaspard de Villiers, the commandant, was forced to surrender (August 15), "on terms, as he believed, identical with those which Suleyman granted to the Knights of Rhodes. But Sinan was no Suleyman; moreover, he was in a furious rage with the whole Order. He put the garrison—all save a few—in chains and carried them off to grace his triumph at Stambol. Thus did Tripoli fall once more into the hands of the Moslems. . . . The misfortunes of the Christians did not end here. Year after year the Ottoman fleet appeared in Italian waters. . . . Unable as they felt themselves to cope with the Turks at sea, the powers of Southern Europe resolved to strike one more blow on land, and recover Tripoli. A fleet of nearly 100 galleys and ships, gathered from Spain, Genoa, 'the Religion,' the Pope, from all quarters, with the Duke de Medina-Celi at their head, assembled at Messina. . . . Five times the expedition put to sea; five times was it driven back by contrary winds. At last, on February 10, 1560, it was fairly away for the African coast. Here fresh troubles awaited it. Long delays in crowded vessels had produced their disastrous effects: fevers and scurvy and dysentery were working their terrible ravages among the crews, and 2,000 corpses were flung into the sea. It was impossible to lay siege to Tripoli with a diseased army, and when actually in sight of their object the admirals gave orders to return to Jerba. A sudden descent quickly gave them the command of the beautiful island. . . . In two months a strong castle was built, with all scientific earthworks, and the admiral prepared to carry home such troops as were not needed for its defence. Unhappily for him, he had lingered too long. . . . He was about to prepare for departure when news came that the Turkish fleet had been seen at Goza. Instantly all was panic. Valiant gentlemen forgot their valour, forgot their

coolness. . . . Before they could make out of the strait . . . the dread Corsair [Dragut] himself, and Ochiali, and Piali Pasha were upon them. Then ensued a scene of confusion that baffles description. Despairing of weathering the north side of Jerba the panic-stricken Christians ran their ships ashore and deserted them, never stopping even to set them on fire. . . . On rowed the Turks; galleys and galleons to the number of 56 fell into their hands; 18,000 Christians bowed down before their scimitars; the beach on that memorable 11th of May, 1560, was a confused medley of stranded ships, helpless prisoners, Turks busy in looting men and galleys—and a hideous heap of mangled bodies. The fleet and the army which had sailed from Messina . . . were absolutely lost.”—S. Lane-Poole, *Story of the Barbary corsairs*.

ALSO IN: W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Philip II., v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1.*

1563-1565.—Repulse of the Moors from Oran and Mazarquivier.—Capture of Peñon de Velez.

—In the spring of 1563 a most determined and formidable attempt was made by Hassen, the dey of Algiers, to drive the Spaniards from Oran and Mazarquivier, which they had held since the African conquests of Cardinal Ximenes. The siege was fierce and desperate; the defence most heroic. The beleaguered garrisons held their ground until a relieving expedition from Spain came in sight, on June 8, when the Moors retreated hastily. In the summer of the next year the Spaniards took the strong island fortress of Peñon de Velez, breaking up one more nest of piracy and strengthening their footing on the Barbary coast. In the course of the year following they blocked the mouth of the river Tetuan, which was a place of refuge for the marauders.—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Philip II., v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 1.*

1565.—Participation in the Turkish siege of Malta.—Death of Dragut. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN: 1530-1565.

1570-1571.—War with the Holy League of Spain, Venice and the pope.—Battle of Lepanto. See TURKEY: 1566-1571.

1572-1573.—Capture of Tunis by Don John of Austria.—Its recovery, with Goletta, by the Turks. See TURKEY: 1572-1573.

1579.—Invasion of Morocco by Sebastian of Portugal.—His defeat and death. See PORTUGAL: 1579-1580.

1664-1684.—Wars of France against the piratical powers.—Destructive bombardments of Algeria.—“The ancient alliance of the crown of France with the Ottoman Porte, always unpopular and less necessary since France had become so strong, was at this moment [early in the reign of Louis XIV] well-nigh broken, to the great satisfaction both of the Christian nations of the South and of the Austrian empire. . . . Divers plans were proposed in the King’s council for attacking the Ottoman power on the Moorish coasts, and for repressing the pirates, who were the terror of the merchant-shipping and maritime provinces. Colbert induced the king to attempt a military settlement among the Moors as the best means of holding them in check. A squadron commanded by the Duke de Beaufort . . . landed 5,000 picked soldiers before Jijeli (or Djigelli), a small Algerine port between Boughia and Bona. They took possession of Jijeli without difficulty (July 22, 1664); but discord arose between Beaufort and his officers; they did not work actively enough to fortify themselves,” and before the end of September they were obliged to evacuate the place precipitately. “The success of Beaufort’s squadron, commanded under the duke by the celebrated Chevalier Paul,

ere long effaced the impression of this reverse: two Algerine flotillas were destroyed in the course of 1665.” The dey of Algiers sent one of his French captives, an officer named Du Babinais, to France with proposals of peace, making him swear to return if his mission failed. The proposals were rejected; Du Babinais was loyal to his oath and returned—to suffer death, as he expected, at the hands of the furious barbarian. “The devotion of this Breton Regulus was not lost: despondency soon took the place of anger in the heart of the Moorish chiefs. Tunis yielded first to the guns of the French squadron, brought to bear on it from the Bay of Goletta. The Pacha and the Divan of Tunis obligated themselves to restore all the French slaves they possessed, to respect French ships, and thenceforth to release all Frenchmen whom they should capture on foreign ships. . . . Rights of aubaine, and of admiralty and shipwreck, were suppressed as regarded Frenchmen (November 25, 1665). The station at Cape Negro was restored to France. . . . Algiers submitted, six months after, to nearly the same conditions imposed on it by Louis XIV.: one of the articles stipulated that French merchants should be treated as favorably as any foreign nation, and even more so (May 17, 1666). More than 3,000 French slaves were set at liberty.” Between 1669 and 1672, Louis XIV was seriously meditating a great war of conquest with the Turks and their dependencies, but preferred, finally, to enter upon his war with Holland, which brought the other project to naught. France and the Ottoman empire then remained on tolerably good terms until 1681, when a “squadron of Tripolitan corsairs having carried off a French ship on the coast of Provence, Duquesne, at the head of seven vessels, pursued the pirates into the waters of Greece. They took refuge in the harbor of Scio. Duquesne summoned the Pacha of Scio to expel them. The Pacha refused, and fired on the French squadron, when Duquesne cannonaded both the pirates and the town with such violence that the Pacha, terrified, asked for a truce, in order to refer the matter to the Sultan (July 23, 1681). Duquesne converted the attack into a blockade. At the news of this violation of the Ottoman territory, the Sultan, Mahomet IV., fell into a rage . . . and dispatched the Captain-Pacha to Scio with 32 galleys. Duquesne allowed the Turkish galleys to enter the harbor, then blockaded them with the pirates, and declared that he would burn the whole if satisfaction were not had of the Tripolitans. The Divan hesitated. War was about to recommence with the Emperor; it was not the moment to kindle it against France.” In the end there was a compromise, and the Tripolitans gave up the French vessel and the slaves they had captured, promising, also, to receive a French consul at Tripoli. “During this time another squadron, commanded by Château-Renault, blockaded the coasts of Morocco, the men of Maghreb having rivalled in depredations the vassals of Turkey. The powerful Emperor of Morocco, Muley Ismael, sent the governor of Tetuan to France to solicit peace of Louis XIV. The treaty was signed at Saint-Germain, January 20, 1682, on advantageous conditions,” including restitution of French slaves. “Affairs did not terminate so amicably with Algiers. From this piratical centre had proceeded the gravest offenses. A captain of the royal navy was held in slavery there, with many other Frenchmen. It was resolved to inflict a terrible punishment on the Algerines. The thought of conquering Algeria had more than once presented itself to the king and Colbert, and they appreciated the value of this conquest; the Jijeli

expedition had been formerly a first attempt. They did not, however, deem it incumbent on them to embark in such an enterprise; a descent, a siege, would have required too great preparations; they had recourse to another means of attack. The regenerator of the art of naval construction, Petit-Renau, invented bomb-ketches expressly for the purpose. . . . July 23, 1682, Duquesne anchored before Algiers, with 11 ships, 15 galleys, 5 bomb-ketches, and Petit-Renau to guide them. After five weeks' delay caused by bad weather, then by a fire on one of the bomb-ketches, the thorough trial took place during the night of August 30. The effect was terrible: a part of the great mosque fell on the crowd that had taken refuge there. During the night of September 3-4, the Algerines attempted to capture the bomb-ketches moored at the entrance of their harbor; they were repulsed, and the bombardment continued. The Dey wished to negotiate; the people, exasperated, prevented him. The wind shifting to the northwest presaged the equinoctial storm; Duquesne set sail again, September 12. The expedition had not been decisive. It was begun anew. June 18, 1683, Duquesne reappeared in the road of Algiers; he had, this time, seven bomb-ketches instead of five. These instruments of extermination had been perfected in the interval. The nights of June 26-27 witnessed the overthrow of a great number of houses, several mosques, and the palace of the Dey. A thousand men perished in the harbor and the town." The Dey opened negotiations, giving up 700 French slaves, but was killed by his janizaries, and one Hadgi-Hussein proclaimed in his stead. "The bombardment was resumed with increasing violence. . . . The Algerines avenged themselves by binding to the muzzles of their guns a number of Frenchmen who remained in their hands. . . . The fury of the Algerines drew upon them redoubled calamities. . . . The bombs rained almost without intermission. The harbor was strewn with the wrecks of vessels. The city was . . . a heap of bloody ruins." But "the bomb-ketches had exhausted their ammunition. September was approaching. Duquesne again departed; but a strong blockading force was kept up, during the whole winter, as a standing threat of the return of the 'infernal vessels.' The Algerines finally bowed their heads, and, April 25, 1684, peace was accorded by Tourville, the commander of the blockade, to the Pacha, Dey, Divan, and troops of Algiers. The Algerines restored 320 French slaves remaining in their power, and 180 other Christians claimed by the King; the janizaries only which had been taken from them were restored; they engaged to make no prizes within ten leagues of the coast of France, nor to assist the other Moorish corsairs at war with France; to recognize the precedence of the flag of France over all other flags, &c., &c.; lastly, they sent an embassy to carry their submission to Louis XIV.; they did not, however, pay the damages which Duquesne had wished to exact of them."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV.*, v. 1, ch. 4 and 7.

1785-1801.—Piratical depredations upon American commerce.—Humiliating treaties and tribute.—Example of resistance given by the United States.—"It is difficult for us to realize that only 70 years ago the Mediterranean was so unsafe that the merchant ships of every nation stood in danger of being captured by pirates, unless they were protected either by an armed convoy or by tribute paid to the petty Barbary powers. Yet we can scarcely open a book of travels during the last century without mention being made of the immense risks to which every one

was exposed who ventured by sea from Marseilles to Naples. . . . The European states, in order to protect their commerce, had the choice either of paying certain sums per head for each captive, which in reality was a premium on capture, or of buying entire freedom for their commerce by the expenditure of large sums yearly. The treaty renewed by France, in 1788, with Algiers, was for fifty years, and it was agreed to pay \$200,000 annually, besides large presents distributed according to custom every ten years, and a great sum given down. The peace of Spain with Algiers is said to have cost from three to five millions of dollars. There is reason to believe that at the same time England was paying an annual tribute of about \$280,000. England was the only power sufficiently strong on the sea to put down these pirates; but in order to keep her own position as mistress of the seas she preferred to leave them in existence in order to be a scourge to the commerce of other European powers, and even to support them by paying a sum so great that other states might find it difficult to make peace with them. When the Revolution broke out, we [of the United States of America] no longer had the safeguards for our commerce that had been given to us by England, and it was therefore that in our very first negotiations for a treaty with France we desired to have an article inserted into the treaty, that the king of France should secure the inhabitants of the United States, and their vessels and effects, against all attacks or depredations from any of the Barbary powers. It was found impossible to insert this article in the treaty of 1778, and instead of that the king agreed to 'employ his good offices and interposition in order to provide as fully and efficaciously as possible for the benefit, conveniency and safety of the United States against the princes and the states of Barbary or their subjects.'" Direct negotiations between the United States and the piratical powers were opened in 1785, by a call which Mr. Adams made upon the Tripolitan ambassador. The latter announced to Mr. Adams that "'Turkey, Tripoli, Tunis, Algiers, and Morocco were the sovereigns of the Mediterranean; and that no nation could navigate that sea without a treaty of peace with them.' . . . The ambassador demanded as the lowest price for a perpetual peace 30,000 guineas for his employers and £3,000 for himself; that Tunis would probably treat on the same terms; but he could not answer for Algiers or Morocco. Peace with all four powers would cost at least \$1,000,000, and Congress had appropriated only \$80,000. . . . Mr. Adams was strongly opposed to war, on account of the expense, and preferred the payment of tribute. . . . Mr. Jefferson quite as decidedly preferred war.'" The opinion in favor of a trial of pacific negotiations prevailed, and a treaty with the emperor of Morocco was concluded in 1787. An attempt at the same time to make terms with the dey of Algiers and to redeem a number of American captives in his hands, came to nothing. "For the sake of saving a few thousand dollars, fourteen men were allowed to remain in imprisonment for ten years. . . . In November, 1793, the number of [American] prisoners at Algiers amounted to 115 men, among whom there remained only ten of the original captives of 1785." At last, the nation began to realize the intolerable shame of the matter, and, "on January 2, 1794, the House of Representatives resolved that a 'naval force adequate for the protection of the commerce of the United States against the Algerine forces ought to be provided.' In the same year authority was given to build six frigates, and to procure ten smaller ves-

sels to be equipped as galleys. Negotiations, however, continued to go on," and in September, 1795, a treaty with the dey was concluded. "In making this treaty, however, we had been obliged to follow the usage of European powers—not only pay a large sum for the purpose of obtaining peace, but an annual tribute, in order to keep our vessels from being captured in the future. The total cost of fulfilling the treaty was estimated at \$992,-463.25."—E. Schuyler, *American diplomacy*, pt. 4.—"The first treaty of 1795, with Algiers, which was negotiated during Washington's administration, cost the United States, for the ransom of American captives, and the Dey's forbearance, a round \$1,000,000, in addition to which an annuity was promised. Treaties with other Barbary States followed, one of which purchased peace from Tripoli by the payment of a gross sum. Nearly \$2,000,000 had been squandered thus far in bribing these powers to respect our flag, and President Adams complained in 1800 that the United States had to pay three times the tribute imposed upon Sweden and Denmark. But this temporizing policy only made matters worse. Captain Bainbridge arrived at Algiers in 1800, bearing the annual tribute money for the Dey in a national frigate, and the Dey ordered him to proceed to Constantinople to deliver Algerine dispatches. 'English, French, and Spanish ships of war have done the same,' said the Dey, insolently, when Bainbridge and the American consul remonstrated. 'You pay me tribute because you are my slaves.' Bainbridge had to obey. . . . The lesser Barbary States were still more exasperating. The Bashaw of Tripoli had threatened to seize American vessels unless President Adams sent him a present like that bestowed upon Algiers. The Bashaw of Tunis made a similar demand upon the new President [Jefferson]. . . . Jefferson had, while in Washington's cabinet, expressed his detestation of the method hitherto favored for pacifying these pests of commerce; and, availing himself of the present favorable opportunity, he sent out Commodore Dale with a squadron of three frigates and a sloop of war, to make a naval demonstration on the coast of Barbary. . . . Commodore Dale, upon arriving at Gibraltar [July, 1801], found two Tripolitan cruisers watching for American vessels; for, as had been suspected, Tripoli already meditated war. The frigate Philadelphia blockaded these vessels, while Bainbridge, with the frigate Essex, convoyed American vessels in the Mediterranean. Dale, in the frigate President, proceeded to cruise off Tripoli, followed by the schooner Experiment, which presently captured a Tripolitan cruiser of 14 guns after a spirited action. The Barbary powers were for a time overawed, and the United States thus set the first example among Christian nations of making reprisals instead of ransom the rule of security against these commercial marauders. In this respect Jefferson's conduct was applauded at home by men of all parties."—J. Schouler, *History of the United States*, ch. 5, sect. 1, v. 2.

ALSO IN: R. L. Playfair, *Scourge of Christendom*, ch. 16.

1803-1805.—American war with the pirates of Tripoli.—"The war with Tripoli dragged tediously along, and seemed no nearer its end at the close of 1803 than 18 months before. Commodore Morris, whom the President sent to command the Mediterranean squadron, cruised from port to port between May, 1802, and August, 1803, convoying merchant vessels from Gibraltar to Leghorn and Malta, or lay in harbor and repaired his ships, but neither blockaded nor molested Tripoli; until at length, June 21, 1803, the President called him

home and dismissed him from the service. His successor was Commodore Preble, who, Sept. 12, 1803, reached Gibraltar with the relief-squadron which Secretary Gallatin thought unnecessarily strong. . . . He found Morocco taking part with Tripoli. Captain Bainbridge, who reached Gibraltar in the 'Philadelphia' August 24, some three weeks before Preble arrived, caught in the neighborhood a Moorish cruiser of 22 guns with an American brig in its clutches. Another American brig had just been seized at Mogador. Determined to stop this peril at the outset, Preble united to his own squadron the ships which he had come to relieve, and with this combined force, . . . sending the 'Philadelphia' to blockade Tripoli, he crossed to Tangiers October 6, and brought the Emperor of Morocco to reason. On both sides prizes and prisoners were restored, and the old treaty was renewed. This affair consumed time; and when at length Preble got the 'Constitution' under way for the Tripolitan coast, he spoke a British frigate off the Island of Sardinia, which reported that the 'Philadelphia' had been captured October 21, more than three weeks before. Bainbridge, cruising off Tripoli, had chased a Tripolitan cruiser into shoal water, and was hauling off, when the frigate struck on a reef at the mouth of the harbor. Every effort was made without success to float her; but at last she was surrounded by Tripolitan gunboats, and Bainbridge struck his flag. The Tripolitans, after a few days work, floated the frigate, and brought her under the guns of the castle. The officers became prisoners of war, and the crew, in number 300 or more, were put to hard labor. The affair was in no way discreditably to the squadron. . . . The Tripolitans gained nothing except the prisoners; for at Bainbridge's suggestion Preble, some time afterward, ordered Stephen Decatur, a young lieutenant in command of the 'Enterprise,' to take a captured Tripolitan craft renamed the 'Intrepid,' and with a crew of 75 men to sail from Syracuse, enter the harbor of Tripoli by night, board the 'Philadelphia,' and burn her under the castle guns. The order was literally obeyed. Decatur ran into the harbor at ten o'clock in the night of Feb. 16, 1804, boarded the frigate within half gun-shot of the Pacha's castle, drove the Tripolitan crew overboard, set the ship on fire, remained alongside until the flames were beyond control, and then withdrew without losing a man."—H. Adams, *History of the United States: Administration of Jefferson*, v. 2, ch. 7.—"Commodore Preble, in the meantime, hurried his preparations for more serious work, and on July 25th arrived off Tripoli with a squadron, consisting of the frigate Constitution, three brigs, three schooners, six gunboats, and two bomb vessels. Opposed to him were arrayed over a hundred guns mounted on shore batteries, nineteen gunboats, one ten-gun brig, two schooners mounting eight guns each, and twelve galleys. Between August 3rd and September 3rd five attacks were made, and though the town was never reduced, substantial damage was inflicted, and the subsequent satisfactory peace rendered possible. Preble was relieved by Barron in September, not because of any loss of confidence in his ability, but from exigencies of the service, which forbade the Government sending out an officer junior to him in the relief squadron which reinforced his own. Upon his return to the United States he was presented with a gold medal, and the thanks of Congress were tendered him, his officers, and men, for gallant and faithful services. The blockade was maintained vigorously, and in 1805 an attack was made upon the Tripolitan town of Derna, by a combined land and naval force; the

former being under command of Consul-General Eaton, who had been a captain in the American army, and of Lieutenant O'Bannon of the Marines. The enemy made a spirited though disorganized defence, but the shells of the war-ships drove them from point to point, and finally their principal work was carried by the force under O'Bannon and Midshipman Mann. Eaton was eager to press forward, but he was denied reinforcements and military stores, and much of his advantage was lost. All further operations were, however, discontinued in June, 1805, when, after the usual intrigues, delays, and prevarications, a treaty was signed by the Pasha, which provided that no further tribute should be exacted, and that American vessels should be forever free of his rovers. Satisfactory as was this conclusion, the uncomfortable fact remains that tribute entered into the settlement. After all the prisoners had been exchanged man for man, the Tripolitan Government demanded, and the United States paid, the handsome sum of sixty thousand dollars to close the contract. This treaty, however, awakened the conscience of Europe, and from the day it was signed the power of the Barbary Corsairs began to wane. The older countries saw their duty more clearly, and ceased to legalize robbery on the high seas."—S. Lane-Poole, *Story of the Barbary corsairs*, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: J. F. Cooper, *History of the United States Navy* v. 1, ch. 18 and v. 2, ch. 1-7.—The same, *Life of Preble*.—A. S. Mackenzie, *Life of Decatur*, ch. 3-7.

1815.—Final war of Algeria with the United States.—Death-blow to Algerian piracy.—"Just as the late war with Great Britain broke out, the Dey of Algiers, taking offense at not having received from America the precise articles in the way of tribute demanded, had unceremoniously dismissed Lear, the consul, had declared war, and had since captured an American vessel, and reduced her crew to slavery. Immediately after the ratification of the treaty with England, this declaration had been reciprocated. Efforts had been at once made to fit out ships, new and old, including several small ones lately purchased for the proposed squadrons of Porter and Perry, and before many weeks Decatur sailed from New York with the *Guerrière*, *Macedonian*, and *Constellation* frigates, now released from blockade; the *Ontario*, new sloop of war, four brigs, and two schooners. Two days after passing Gibraltar, he fell in with and captured an Algerine frigate of 44 guns, the largest ship in the Algerine navy, which struck to the *Guerrière* after a running fight of twenty-five minutes. A day or two after, an Algerine brig was chased into shoal water on the Spanish coast, and captured by the smaller vessels. Decatur having appeared off Algiers, the terrified Dey at once consented to a treaty, which he submitted to sign on Decatur's quarter deck, surrendering all prisoners on hand, making certain pecuniary indemnities, renouncing all future claim to any American tribute or presents, and the practice, also, of reducing prisoners of war to slavery. Decatur then proceeded to Tunis and Tripoli, and obtained from both indemnity for certain American vessels captured under the guns of their forts by British cruisers during the late war. The Bey of Tripoli being short of cash, Decatur agreed to accept in part payment the restoration of liberty to eight Danes and two Neapolitans held as slaves."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, *Second Series*, v. 3, ch. 30.

ALSO IN: A. S. Mackenzie, *Life of Decatur*, ch. 13-14.

1816.—Bombardment of Algeria by Lord Exmouth.—Relinquishment of Christian slavery in Algeria, Tripoli and Tunis.—"The corsairs of Barbary still scoured the Mediterranean; the captives, whom they had taken from Christian vessels, still languished in captivity in Algiers; and, to the disgrace of the civilized world, a piratical state was suffered to exist in its very centre. . . . The conclusion of the war [of the coalition against Napoleon and France] made the continuance of these ravages utterly intolerable. In the interests of civilization it was essential that piracy should be put down; Britain was mistress of the seas, and it therefore devolved upon her to do the work. . . . Happily for this country the Mediterranean command was held by an officer [Lord Exmouth] whose bravery and skill were fully equal to the dangers before him. . . . Early in 1816 Exmouth was instructed to proceed to the several states of Barbary; to require them to recognize the cession of the Ionian Islands to Britain; to conclude peace with the kingdoms of Sardinia and Naples; and to abolish Christian slavery. The Dey of Algiers readily assented to the two first of these conditions; the Beys of Tripoli and Tunis followed the example of the Dey of Algiers, and in addition consented to refrain in future from treating prisoners of war as slaves. Exmouth thereupon returned to Algiers, and endeavoured to obtain a similar concession from the Dey. The Dey pleaded that Algiers was subject to the Ottoman Porte," and obtained a truce of three months in order to confer with the sultan. But meantime the Algerines made an unprovoked attack upon a neighbouring coral fishery, which was protected by the British flag, massacring the fishermen and destroying the flag. This brought Exmouth back to Algeria in great haste, with an ultimatum which he delivered on August 27. No answer to it was returned, and the fleet (which had been joined by some vessels of the Dutch navy) sailed into battle range that same afternoon. "The Algerines permitted the ships to move into their stations. The British reserved their fire till they could deliver it with good effect. A crowd of spectators watched the ships from the shore; and Exmouth waved his hat to them to move and save themselves from the fire. They had not the prudence to avail themselves of his timely warning. A signal shot was fired by the Algerines from the mole. The *Queen Charlotte* replied by delivering her entire broadside. Five hundred men were struck down by the first discharge. . . . The battle, which had thus begun at two o'clock in the afternoon, continued till ten o'clock in the evening. By that time half Algiers had been destroyed; the whole of the Algerine navy had been burned; and, though a few of the enemy's batteries still maintained a casual fire, their principal fortifications were crumbling ruins; the majority of their guns were dismounted." The dey humbled himself to the terms proposed by the British commander. "On the first day of September Exmouth had the satisfaction of acquainting his government with the liberation of all the slaves in the city of Algiers, and the restitution of the money paid since the commencement of the year by the Neapolitan and Sardinian Governments for the redemption of slaves." He had also extorted from the piratical dey a solemn declaration that he would, in future wars, treat all prisoners according to the usages of European nations. In the battle which won these important results, "128 men were killed and 600 wounded on board the British fleet; the Dutch lost 13 killed and 52 wounded."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 1, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: H. Martineau, *History of the Thirty Years Peace*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 6.—L. Hertsllet, *Collection of treaties and conventions*, v. 1.

1830.—French conquest of Algeria.—“During the Napoleonic wars, the Dey of Algiers supplied grain for the use of the French armies; it was bought by merchants of Marseilles, and there was a dispute about the matter which was unsettled as late as 1829. Several instalments had been paid; the dey demanded payment in full according to his own figures, while the French government, believing the demand excessive, required an investigation. In one of the numerous debates on the subject, Hussein Pasha, the reigning dey, became very angry, struck the consul with a fan, and ordered him out of the house. He refused all reparation for the insult, even on the formal demand of the French government, and consequently there was no alternative but war.” The expedition launched from the port of Toulon, for the chastisement of the insolent Algerine, “comprised 37,500 men, 3,000 horses, and 180 pieces of artillery. . . . The sea-forces included 11 ships of the line, 23 frigates, 70 smaller vessels, 377 transports, and 230 boats for landing troops. General Bourmont, Minister of War, commanded the expedition, which appeared in front of Algiers on the 13th of June, 1830.” Hussein Pasha “had previously asked for aid from the Sultan of Turkey, but that wily ruler had blankly refused. The beys of Tunis and Tripoli had also declined to meddle with the affair.” The landing of the French was effected safely and without serious opposition, at Sidi-Ferruch, about sixteen miles west of Algiers. The Algerine army, 40,000 to 50,000 strong, commanded by Aga Ibrahim, son-in-law of the dey, took its position on the table-land of Staoueli, overlooking the French, where it waited while their landing was made. On June 19 General Bourmont was ready to advance. His antagonist, instead of adhering to the waiting attitude, and forcing the French to attack him, on his own ground, now went out to meet them, and flung his disorderly mob against their disciplined battalions, with the result that seldom fails. “The Arab loss in killed and wounded was about 3,000, . . . while the French loss was less than 500. In little more than an hour the battle was over, and the Osmanlis were in full and disorderly retreat.” General Bourmont took possession of the Algerine camp at Staoueli, where he was again attacked on June 24, with a similar disastrous result to the Arabs. He then advanced upon the city of Algiers, established his army in position behind the city, constructed batteries, and opened, on July 4, a bombardment so terrific that the dey hoisted the white flag in a few hours. “Hussein Pasha hoped to the last moment to retain his country and its independence by making liberal concessions in the way of indemnity for the expenses of the war, and offered to liberate all Christian slaves in addition to paying them for their services and sufferings. The English consul tried to mediate on this basis, but his offers of mediation were politely declined. . . . It was finally agreed that the dey should surrender Algiers with all its forts and military stores, and be permitted to retire wherever he chose with his wives, children, and personal belongings, but he was not to remain in the country under any circumstances. On the 5th of July [1830] the French entered Algiers in great pomp and took possession of the city. . . . The spoils of war were such as rarely fall to the lot of a conquering army, when its numbers and the circumstances of the campaign are considered. In the treasury was found a large room filled with gold and silver coins heaped to-

gether indiscriminately, the fruits of three centuries of piracy; they were the coins of all the nations that had suffered from the depredations of the Algerines, and the variety in the dates showed very clearly that the accumulation had been the work of two or three hundred years. How much money was contained in this vast pile is not known; certain it is that nearly 50,000,000 francs, or £2,000,000 sterling, actually reached the French treasury. . . . The cost of the war was much more than covered by the captured property. . . . Many slaves were liberated. . . . The Algerine power was forever broken, and from that day Algeria has been a prosperous colony of France. Hussein Pasha embarked on the 10th of July with a suite of 110 persons, of whom 55 were women. He proceeded to Naples, where he remained for a time, went afterwards to Leghorn, and finally to Egypt.” In Egypt he died, under circumstances which indicated poison.—T. W. Knox, *Decisive battles since Waterloo*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: R. L. Playfair, *Scourge of Christendom*, ch. 10.—E. E. Crowe, *History of the reigns of Louis XVIII. and Charles X.*, v. 2, ch. 13.

1830-1846.—French war of subjugation in Algeria with Abd-el-Kader.—“When Louis Philippe ascended the throne [of France, 1830] the generals of his predecessor had overrun the country [of Algeria]—though they did not effectually subdue it; their absolute dominion now extending far round Algiers—from Bona, on the east, in lat. 36° 53' N., long. 7° 46' W., to Oran, on the west—nearly the entire extent of the ancient Libya. . . . There was always a party in the chamber of deputies opposed to the conquest who deprecated the colonisation of Algeria, and who steadily opposed any grants of either men or money to be devoted to the African enterprise. The natural result followed. Ten thousand men could not effect the work for which 40,000 were required; and, whilst the young colony languished, the natives became emboldened, and encouraged to make that resistance which cost the French so dear. Marshal Clausel, when entrusted with the government of the colony, and the supreme command of the troops . . . established a series of fortified posts, which were adequately garrisoned; and roads were opened to enable the garrisons promptly to communicate with each other. These positions, rapidly acquired, he was unable to maintain, in consequence of the home government recalling the greater part of his force. To recruit his army, he resolved to enlist some corps of the natives; and, in October, 1830, the first regiment of zouaves was raised.” . . . In 1833 we “first hear of Abd-el-Kader. This chief was the son of a marabout, or priest, in the province of Oran. He united consummate ability with great valour; was a devout Mohammedan; and when he raised the standard of the prophet, he called the Arabs around him, with the fullest confidence of success. His countrymen obeyed his call in great numbers; and, encouraged by the enthusiasm they displayed, he first, at the close of 1833, proclaimed himself emir of Tlemsen (the former name of Oran), and then seized on the port of Arzeu, on the west side of the gulf of that name; and the port of Mostaganem, on the opposite coast. The province of Mascara, lying at the foot of the Atlas, was also under his rule. At that time general Desmichels commanded at Oran. He had not a very large force, but he acted promptly. Marching against Abd-el-Kader, he defeated him in two pitched battles; retook Arzeu and Mostaganem; and, on the 26th of February, 1834, entered into a treaty with the emir, by which both parties were bound to keep

the peace towards each other. During that year the terms were observed; but, in 1835, the Arab chief again commenced hostilities. He marched to the east, entered the French territories, and took possession of Medeah, being received with the utmost joy by the inhabitants. On the 26th of June, General Trezel, with only 2,300 men, marched against him. Abd-el-Kader had 8,000 Arabs under his command; and a sanguinary combat took place in the defiles of Mouley-Ismael. After a severe combat, the French forced the passage, but with considerable loss. . . . The French general, finding his position untenable, commenced a retrograde movement on the 28th of June. In his retreat he was pursued by the Arabs; and before he reached Oran, on the 4th of July, he lost all his waggons, train, and baggage; besides having ten officers, and 252 sous-officers and rank-and-file killed, and 308 wounded. The heads of many of the killed were displayed in triumph by the victors. This was a severe blow to the French, and the cause of great rejoicing to the Arabs. The former called for Marshal Clausel to be restored to his command, and the government at home complied; at the same time issuing a proclamation, declaring that Algeria should not be abandoned, but that the honour of the French arms should be maintained. The marshal left France on the 28th of July; and as soon as he landed, he organised an expedition against Mascara, which was Abd-el-Kader's capital. . . . The Arab chieftain advanced to meet the enemy; but, being twice defeated, he resolved to abandon his capital, which the French entered on the 6th of December, and found completely deserted. The streets and houses were alike empty and desolate; and the only living creature they encountered was an old woman, lying on some mats, who could not move of herself, and had been either forgotten or abandoned. The French set fire to the deserted houses; and having effected the destruction of Mascara, they marched to Mostaganem, which Clausel determined to make the centre of French power in that district."—T. Wright, *History of France*, v. 3, pp. 633-635.—"A camp was established on the Taafna in April 1836, and an action took place there on the 25th when the Tableau states that 3,000 French engaged 10,000 natives; and some of the enemies being troops of Morocco, an explanation was required of Muley-Abd-er-Rachman, the emperor, who said that the assistance was given to the Algerines without his knowledge. On July 6th, 1836, Abd-el-Kader suffered a disastrous defeat on the river Sikkak, near Tlemsen, at the hands of Marshal Bugeaud. November 1836, the first expedition was formed against Constantina. . . . After the failure of Clauzel, General Darnémont was appointed governor, Feb. 12th, 1837; and on the 30th of May the treaty of the Taafna between General Bugeaud and Abd-el-Kader left the French government at liberty to direct all their attention against Constantina, a camp being formed at Medjoy-el-Ahmar in that direction. An army of 10,000 men set out thence on the 1st of October, 1837, for Constantina. On the 6th it arrived before Constantina; and on the 13th the town was taken with a severe loss, including Darnémont. Marshal Vallée succeeded Darnémont as governor. The fall of Constantina destroyed the last relic of the old Turkish government. . . . By the 27th January, 1838, 100 tribes had submitted to the French. A road was cleared in April by General Négrier from Constantina to Stora on the sea. This road, passing by the camps of Smendou and the Arrouch, was 22 leagues in length. The coast of the Bay of Stora, on the site of the ancient Rusicada, became

covered with French settlers: and Philippeville was founded October, 1838, threatening to supplant Bona. Abd-el-Kader advancing in December, 1837, to the province of Constantina, the French advanced also to observe him; then both retired, without coming to blows. A misunderstanding which arose respecting the second article of the treaty of Taafna was settled in the beginning of 1838. . . . When Abd-el-Kader assumed the royal title of Sultan and the command of a numerous army, the French . . . sought to infringe the Taafna treaty, and embroil the Arab hero, in order to ruin his rising empire, and found their own on its ashes. The Emir had been recognised by the whole country, from the gates of Ouchda to the river Mijerda. . . . The war was resumed, and many French razzias [raids] took place. They once marched a large force from Algiers on Milianah to surprise the sultan's camp. They failed in their chief object, but nearly captured the sultan himself. He was surrounded in the middle of a French square, which thought itself sure of the reward of 100,000 francs (£4,000) offered for him; but uttering his favourite 'enshallah' (with the will of God), he gave his white horse the spur, and came over their bayonets unwounded. He lost, however, thirty of his body-guard and friends, but killed six Frenchmen with his own hand. Still, notwithstanding his successes, Abd-el-Kader had been losing all his former power, as his Arabs, though brave, could not match 80,000 French troops, with artillery and all the other ornaments of civilised warfare. Seven actions were fought at the Col de Mouzaia, where the Arabs were overthrown by the royal dukes, in 1841; and at the Oued Fodhha, where Changarnier, with a handful of troops, defeated a whole population in a frightful gorge. It was on this occasion that, having no guns, he launched his Chasseurs d'Afrique against the fort, saying, 'Voilà mon artillerie!' Abd-el-Kader had then only two chances,—the support of Muley-Abd-er-Rahman, Emperor of Morocco; or the peace that the latter might conclude with France for him. General Bugeaud, who had replaced Marshal Vallée, organised a plan of campaign by movable columns radiating from Algiers, Oran, and Constantina; and having 100,000 excellent soldiers at his disposal, the results as against the Emir were slowly but surely effective. General Négrier at Constantina, Changarnier amongst the Hadjouts about Medeah and Milianah, Cavaignac and Lamoricière in Oran,—carried out the commander-in-chief's instructions with untiring energy and perseverance; and in the spring of 1843 the Duc d'Aumale, in company with General Changarnier, surprised the Emir's camp in the absence of the greatest part of his force, and it was with difficulty that he himself escaped. Not long afterwards he took refuge in Morocco, excited the fanatical passions of the populace of that empire, and thereby forced its ruler, Muley-Abd-er-Rahman, much against his own inclination, into a war with France; a war very speedily terminated by General Bugeaud's victory of Isly, with some slight assistance from the bombardment of Tangier and Mogador by the Prince de Joinville. In 1845 the struggle was maintained amidst the hills by the partisans of Abd-el-Kader; but our limits prevent us from dwelling on its particulars. . . . A taste of French bayonets at Isly, and the booming of French guns at Mogador, had brought Morocco to reason. . . . Morocco sided with France, and threatened Abd-el-Kader, who cut one of their corps to pieces, and was in June on the point of coming to blows with Muley-Abd-er-Rahman, the emperor. But the Emperor of Morocco took vig-

orous measures to oppose him, nearly exterminating the tribes friendly to him; which drew off many partisans from the Emir, who tried to pacify the emperor, but unsuccessfully." In December, 1846, "he asked to negotiate, offered to surrender; and after 24 hours' discussion he came to Sidi Brahim, the scene of his last exploits against the French, where he was received with military honours, and conducted to the Duke of Aumale at Nemours. France has been severely abused for the detention of Abd-el-Kader in Ham."—J. R. Morell, *Algeria*, ch. 22.

BARBECUES.—"In the old days, before the Civil War, political picnics were in vogue, especially in the South, and were known by the name of 'barbecues' (the word 'barbecue,' which means ox, pig, etc., roasted whole, is very probably derived from the French (*barbe à queue*), although a native origin is also assigned to it, from which is supposed to come the Spanish word *barbacôa*, (borrowed from the Aborigines by the first explorers of the New World), because animals roasted whole, at a fire lighted in the open air for the occasion, were often consumed at them. The barbecues were the great social and political rendezvous; the planters came to them with their wives and daughters and accompanied by a number of servants; the best political speakers of the district used them as a practising ground. Their eloquence was lavished as generously as the provisions on the assembled crowd. Often the debates were 'joint' ones; political opponents feasted together and in the intervals indulged in oratorical tourneys. Sometimes this lasted for several days, and invitations were sent out beforehand for a 'protracted barbecue.' In the South and in the West the barbecues still take place; occasionally the programme includes, besides the political speeches and the meals, athletic contests, dances, sports, horse races. In the East the barbecues are less common and not so picturesque; it is more a sort of fair for which the railroad companies consider it a good opportunity to organize excursion trains."—M. Ostrogorski, *Democracy and the organization of political parties*, pp. 335-336.

BARBE-MARBOIS, François, Marquis de (1745-1837), French diplomatist and writer. He was Napoleon's counsellor of state, 1801; minister of the treasury, 1801-1805; negotiating in 1803 the Louisiana Purchase, which ceded the American continental possessions of France to the United States.

BARBERINI, a Roman princely family, which gained prestige through the raising of Maffeo Barberini to the papal throne as Urban VIII in 1623 (see **ROME**: Modern City: 1600-1656); he gave to his nephew, Taddeo, the principality of Palestrina and made two other nephews and his brother cardinals. From the family's way of gathering ancient treasures for their palace and library at Rome, comes the Roman saying "Quod non fecerunt barbari, fecerunt Barberini."

Tapestries, now in Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York. See **GIFTS AND BEQUESTS**.

BARBERTON, town of the Transvaal, South Africa, from which the Boers were driven out in 1900. See **SOUTH AFRICA**, Union of: 1900 (June-December).

BARBES, **BARBETS**.—The elders among the early Waldenses were called barbes, which signified "Uncle," whence came the nickname Barbets, applied to the Waldensian people generally.—E. Comba, *History of the Waldenses of Italy*, p. 147.

BARBIER, Charles, French officer, who invented the telegraphic and sonographic alphabets. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th cen-

tury: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded; Blind.

BARBIZON SCHOOL.—"A group of French artists established themselves at Barbizon, in the Forest of Fontainebleau, face to face with trees and rocks and pools, and produced faithful and impassioned portraits of their native land, such as French art had never yet known. The classicists accused them of representing 'arid landscapes devoid of all charm, the lines of which are poor and the vegetation dry and stunted,' because they took their subjects from France, not from Italy, and renounced the 'adjusted landscape' with a ruined temple in the foreground. These heretics, at least, have triumphed; the Italian landscape is no more."—S. Reinach, *Apollo*, p. 311.—Some of the more prominent representatives of the school were Corot, Rousseau, Millet, Daubigny, Diaz, Dupré, Jacque, Troyon, and Harpignies.—See also **PAINTING**: Europe: 19th century.

BARBON (Barebone or Barebones), Praise-God (c. 1596-1679), English Puritan, who gave the name to the Barebones Parliament of 1653, assembled by Cromwell. See **ENGLAND**: 1653 (June-September).

BARBUDO. See **ANDESIANS**.

BARCA, city and district in Tripoli. See **CYRENAICA**.

BARCELONA, a Mediterranean seaport and chief city of the Spanish province to which it gives its name, and formerly capital of the kingdom of Catalonia. "A great, famous, rich, and well-established city"—so Barcelona seemed to Cervantes three centuries ago. Barcelona has developed much since then; it is not only the greatest city in Spain, almost the largest city of the Mediterranean, it is one of the commercial centres of Europe, the Spanish Manchester, of about the same size and population, but indeed unlike the English Manchester. One might say, indeed, that of all the great commercial cities of Europe Barcelona is that in which amenity of climate and the claims of humane living have been least hidden and crushed by the hurry and ugliness of business. . . . At Barcelona a magnificent site has been wisely and spaciouly planned to the best advantage, while the precious remains of antiquity have been, so far as possible, harmoniously preserved without detriment to the insistent demands of a modern community's life. . . . Barcelona cannot fail to be a revelation of what a great commercial city may be when humanely and harmoniously organized. In a beautiful and exquisitely tempered climate . . . , a robust independent population has here freely expanded itself, loving work and loving play, and combining these two fundamentally human impulses more completely and more admirably than any other equally great city. When it has achieved the highest degree of economic and political freedom compatible with the integrity of Spain, of which it is more than any other region the brain and arm, Barcelona will worthily appear as in some essentials a model city, a place worthy of municipal pilgrimage and urban inspiration."—H. Ellis, *Soul of Spain*, pp. 273, 274, 276, 280, 281.

B. C. 3rd—A. D. 6th centuries.—According to traditionary accounts Barcelona (or as it was called in ancient times, *Barcino*) was founded by the Carthaginian Hamilcar Barca, in the third century B. C., and was the centre of Carthaginian power in the peninsula. After the Roman conquest the city received from Cæsar Augustus the name of Julia Faventia, with the status of a Roman colony. It grew to be the leading trade centre of the western Mediterranean, rivalling even Tarragona and Marseilles. Barcelona was im-

portant under the Visigoths, being their temporary capital in 415 and again in 531. In 540 and 599 church councils were held at Barcelona, which had been a bishopric since 343.

713.—Surrender to the Arab-Moors. See SPAIN: 711-713.

801.—In 801 Barcelona with the rest of Catalonia passed under the dominion of the Franks.

874-1151.—Counts of Barcelona ruled as independent monarchs.—“Wifredo, count of Barcelona, is believed to have established his independence as early as 874, although that event is doubtful; at any rate the separation from the Frankish kingdom was not much longer delayed. Each count was a lord unto himself. By the beginning of the eleventh century they were saluted with the title of prince in recognition of their sovereignty.”—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, pp. 50-65.—“At the time when Ramon Berenguer I (1035-1076) became the count of Barcelona, Catalonia was a federation of counties, acknowledging the ruler of Barcelona as overlord. By the end of his reign he had united five Catalonian counties and many other territories under his rule, including almost as much land in southern France as he possessed in Spain. No further progress was made until the reign of Ramon Berenguer III (1096-1131) who, through inheritance, without civil wars, acquired all the Catalonian counties but two and a great part of southern France. He also waged war against the Moslems, though perhaps the most notable thing about them was that the Pisans fought as his allies. Indeed, he established commercial and diplomatic relations with the various Italian republics. . . . Ramon Berenguer IV (1131-1162) inherited only the Spanish portions of his father's domain, but extended his authority over Tortosa, Lérida, and other Moslem regions. . . . In 1150 he married the daughter of the king of Aragon [see also SPAIN: 1035-1258] and in 1164 his son by this marriage united Aragon and Catalonia under a single rule.”—C. E. Chapman, *A History of Spain*, pp. 77-78.

1151.—The country joined to Aragon. See SPAIN: 1035-1258.

12th-16th centuries.—Commercial prosperity and municipal freedom.—“The city of Barcelona, which originally gave its name to the county of which it was the capital, was distinguished from a very early period by ample municipal privileges. After the union with Aragon in the 12th century, the monarchs of the latter kingdom extended towards it the same liberal legislation; so that, by the 13th, Barcelona had reached a degree of commercial prosperity rivalling that of any of the Italian republics. She divided with them the lucrative commerce with Alexandria; and her port, thronged with foreigners from every nation, became a principal emporium in the Mediterranean for the spices, drugs, perfumes, and other rich commodities of the East, whence they were diffused over the interior of Spain and the European continent. Her consuls, and her commercial factories, were established in every considerable port in the Mediterranean and in the north of Europe. The natural products of her soil, and her various domestic fabrics, supplied her with abundant articles of export. Fine wool was imported by her in considerable quantities from England in the 14th and 15th centuries, and returned there manufactured into cloth; an exchange of commodities the reverse of that existing between the two nations at the present day. Barcelona claims the merit of having established the first bank of exchange and deposit in Europe, in 1491; it was

devoted to the accommodation of foreigners as well as of her own citizens. She claims the glory, too, of having compiled the most ancient written code, among the moderns, of maritime law now extant, digested from the usages of commercial nations, and which formed the basis of the mercantile jurisprudence of Europe during the Middle Ages. The wealth which flowed in upon Barcelona, as the result of her activity and enterprise, was evinced by her numerous public works, her docks, arsenals, warehouses, exchange, hospitals, and other constructions of general utility. Strangers, who visited Spain in the 14th and 15th centuries, expatiate on the magnificence of this city, its commodious private edifices, the cleanliness of its streets and public squares (a virtue by no means usual in that day), and on the amenity of its gardens and cultivated environs. But the peculiar glory of Barcelona was the freedom of her municipal institutions. Her government consisted of a senate or council of one hundred, and a body of regidores or counsellors, as they were styled, varying at times from four to six in number; the former intrusted with the legislative, the latter with the executive functions of administration. A large proportion of these bodies were selected from the merchants, tradesmen, and mechanics of the city. They were invested not merely with municipal authority, but with many of the rights of sovereignty. They entered into commercial treaties with foreign powers; superintended the defence of the city in time of war; provided for the security of trade; granted letters of reprisal against any nation who might violate it; and raised and appropriated the public moneys for the construction of useful works, or the encouragement of such commercial adventures as were too hazardous or expensive for individual enterprise. The counsellors, who presided over the municipality, were complimented with certain honorary privileges, not even accorded to the nobility. They were addressed by the title of magnificos; were seated, with their heads covered, in the presence of royalty; were preceded by mace-bearers, or licitors, in their progress through the country; and deputies from their body to the court were admitted on the footing and received the honors of foreign ambassadors. These, it will be recollected, were plebeians,—merchants and mechanics. Trade never was esteemed a degradation in Catalonia, as it came to be in Castile.”—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella, introduction*, sect. 2.—See also MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 14th-15th centuries.

1450.—Founding of the University of Barcelona.—“The most noteworthy university founded in the period was that of Barcelona, which evolved from an academy in the opening years of the fourteenth century to the rank of a university in 1450 with courses in theology, civil and canon law, philosophy, arts and medicine.”—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 188.

1640.—Insurrection.—In 1640 Barcelona was the centre of the Catalonian rebellion against Philip IV, and called upon France for protection. See SPAIN: 1640-1642.

ALSO IN: M. A. S. Hume, *Spain*, pp. 258-260.

1651-1652.—Siege and capture by the Spaniards.—“The Catalans at this time were heartily tired of their French masters. . . . Mortara, the Spanish commander who was a man of energy and resource, lost no opportunity. He captured Tortosa (November, 1650), and then besieged Barcelona, whilst Don Juan blockaded the front by sea. After fifteen months of siege, and incredible suffering from famine, the place capitulated (Octo-

ber, 1652) and a general amnesty was granted."—M. A. S. Hume, *Spain*, p. 279. See SPAIN: 1648-1652.

1705.—Capture by the earl of Peterborough. See SPAIN: 1705.

1706.—Unsuccessful siege by the French and Spaniards. See SPAIN: 1706.

1713-1714.—Betrayal and desertion by the Allies.—Siege, capture and massacre by French and Spaniards. See CATALONIA: 1713-1714; and SPAIN: 1713-1714.

1842.—Rebellion and bombardment. See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

1857-1864.—Population.—By the census of 1857 the population of the city amounted to 180,014 and by an enumeration in 1864 the city and its suburbs were found to contain 252,000 persons. (In 1921 the population was about 600,000.)

1895.—Student riots. See SPAIN: 1885-1896.

1902.—General strike and battle with soldiery.—Barcelona, the scene of frequent disturbance, both political and industrial, produced in the middle of February, a general strike of 80,000 workmen, between whom and the troops of General Weyler, the minister of war, a week of battle in the streets occurred, with martial law in force.

1903-1919.—Relations with Spain.—Industrial unrest.—Syndicalism.—"It is a city of the North, full of restlessness, an unnatural energy, haunted by a desire for gain, absolutely modern in its expression, that has made of one of the oldest cities in Spain a sort of Manchester, almost without smoke it is true but full of mean streets and the immense tyranny of machinery, that for the most part Spain has escaped so fortunately. Barcelona has nothing in common with any other Mediterranean city, unless indeed it be Marseilles, but it lacks the lucidity of that great French city. . . . It is the one city in Spain that is devoted to commerce and indeed, it is not really Spanish at all. . . . Little by little, in passing up and down Barcelona, Spain falls away from you, and you find yourself in a cosmopolitan city of the modern world."—E. Hutton, *Cities of Spain*, pp. 30-31.—Barcelona has long been the industrial and commercial centre of eastern Spain—a preëminence which dates from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. It received a temporary check after the discovery of America and again from the disasters of the Spanish-American war (1898) but it soon picked up again and by 1904 was a port of regular call of thirty-five important shipping companies. The historic antagonism between the Catalans and the other inhabitants of Spain was strengthened by the industrial development of Barcelona. The Catalans look upon their rulers as reactionary and reserve all their sympathies for their Provençal neighbors whom they resemble so nearly in race, temperament and language. Republican ideals were abroad and took the form partly of powerful labour and socialist organizations. In 1903 seventy-five strikes occurred and that year is supposed to have been a comparatively quiet one.

"Barcelona is historically turbulent. The Province of Catalonia of which Barcelona is the capital is inhabited by a race that has ethnological variation from the general Spanish type. These people speak a language of their own and think and act differently from the other people of Spain. Politically, Barcelona presents to Spain something of the same problem that Ireland does to Great Britain. Their aspiration is for at least a modified home rule and the answer of the Cortez to that invariably has been measures of stern repression. So there is a political foundation for

unrest in Catalonia that is not found in any other province, but there is also a social phenomenon there far more interesting and significant than anything that has its root in political differences. Barcelona is the great manufacturing center of Spain for almost everything except iron and a great percentage of its population is made up of wage-workers. The provincial characteristics of the Catalonians, their independence, their disregard for authority, their progressiveness, have all found play in creating what to me was the most menacing, the most extraordinary, the most terrifying organization with which I have ever come in contact. General strikes are called merely as a sort of organization gymnastics, without any demands being made and with no one put forward with whom negotiation might be made to end the strike. Such a strike may last a day or a week and as suddenly and mysteriously as work stopped, it will be resumed. All this is done to impress the public and to train the organization. One of the latest phases has been the censorship of newspapers. The newspapers were told they must submit all proofs before publication and that if they published anything unauthorized, they would be fined. Two papers were fined 5,000 pesetas each for printing official orders issued by the Government. If they did not pay the fine so levied, they were told that their presses would be mysteriously destroyed. Even if they did pay the fine, as happened in one case, there still was no relinquishing of the severity of the censorship. The result was that every paper in Barcelona ceased publication and for fifteen days prior to the time I was there, not a single paper had been printed and the only news of the world which the town had came twenty-four hours old in the Madrid papers. The essence of the Syndicalist methods as exhibited in Barcelona is assassination. Up to the time I was there, there had been 72 employers or industrial foremen mysteriously slain. . . . The civil governor, obedient to threats of assassination within twelve hours, threw up his post and went to Madrid. One of the results was the fall of the Romanones Ministry. . . . Opposed to this mysterious organization of workmen, there is growing up what we would term Vigilantes but what is called in Catalonia a Soman. This is now said to embrace 40,000 citizens who are banded together to fight the sort of domination the Syndicate stands for."—F. A. Vanderlip, *What happened to Europe*, pp. 71-76.—See also SPAIN: 1909.

1909.—Revolutionary outbreak.—Hostility to war in Morocco.—Execution of Ferrer. See SPAIN: 1909.

1912.—Prices and cost of living. See SPAIN: 1912.

1915-1919.—Attitude of radicals in Barcelona towards World War.—Demand for home rule.—Barcelona has been and continues to be the hot-bed of radicalism and unrest in Spain. "Early in August [1915] a meeting of Radicals was held at Barcelona to protest against the limitation of public meetings. One of the speakers demanded intervention in favour of the Allies; whereupon the Government delegate immediately suspended the meeting; revolver shots were fired and several persons injured. As the year went on the cleavage of opinion between the Ultra-Montanes and the Interventionist Radicals became still more pronounced."—*Annual Register*, 1915, p. 271.—See also SPAIN: 1914-1918; 1919-1920.—"The most important question before the country at the beginning of January [1919] was the demand of Catalonia to be granted a large measure of Home

Rule. This desire for autonomy was expressed by nearly all the Catalonian Deputies, irrespective of their opinions upon other matters. . . . On January 24 the Catalonian Mancomunidad, or Union, met in Barcelona and formally drew up its scheme for the wisest measure of Home Rule. This Mancomunidad was a voluntary representative body able to speak in the name of the whole Province of Catalonia. . . . At the same time a plebiscite was taken of all the municipalities in Catalonia, and it was stated that of more than a thousand replies which were received all except four were in complete agreement with the ambitious measure drawn up by the Mancomunidad."—*Annual Register*, 1919, p. 245.

1919.—General confederation of labor. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1919: Organized labor in Spain.

1921.—Activities of Sindicato Unico.—Stringent repression by Governor Anido.—Assassination of Premier Dato by member of Sindicato Unico. See SPAIN: 1921.

BARCELONA, Treaty of. See ITALY: 1527-1529.

BARCENOS. See PAMPAS TRIBES.

BARCHON, one of the six main forts around Liège, surrendered in 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: b.

BARCIDES, or Barcine family, the family of the great Carthaginian, Hamilcar Barca, father of the more famous Hannibal. The surname Barca, or Barcas, given to Hamilcar, is equivalent to the Hebrew Barak and signified lightning.

BARCINO, ancient name for the city of Barcelona.

BARCLAY, Robert H. (d. 1837), Scottish naval officer in Battle of Lake Erie. See U. S. A.: 1812-1813: Harrison's northwestern campaign.

BARCLAY DE TOLLY, Michael Andreas (1761-1818), also known as Michael, Prince Bogdanovich, Russian field marshal. Of Scottish descent, this general took a prominent part in the Napoleonic campaigns, being in large measure successful; Russian commander in several important victories of the Russian and allied arms, including Leipzig (1813).

BARDI. See MONEY AND BANKING: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

BARDS, Celtic. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: England, Ireland and Wales.

BARDULIA, ancient district in Spain. See SPAIN: 1026-1230.

BARÉ, Indian tribe. See GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

BAREBONES, Praise-God. See BARBON.

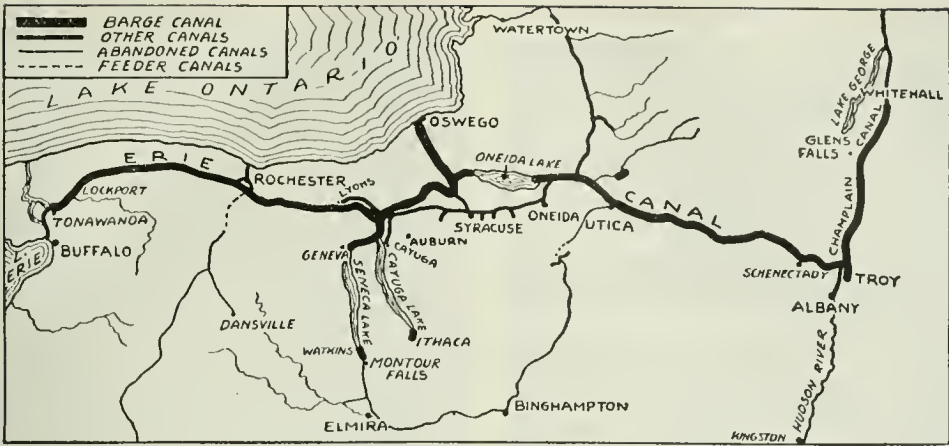
BAREBONES PARLIAMENT, The. See ENGLAND: 1653 (June-December).

BARENTS, Willem (d. 1597), Dutch explorer of the Arctic. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronology: 1594-1595; 1596-1597; SPITSBERGEN: 1596-1820.

BARÈRE DE VIEUZAC, Bertrand (1755-1841), famous French revolutionist statesman. Deputy to States-general, 1789, distinguishing himself in the National assembly whose actions he reported in a journal, *Le point du jour*. He delivered the funeral oration of Mirabeau. Deputy to the Constitutional convention, he was made its president and presided at the trial of Louis XVI, voting for death. Member of the Committee of Public Safety 1793-1795 and its reporter to the convention. [See FRANCE: 1793 (March-June); (September-December); 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus; 1794-1795 (July-April).] Became a secret agent of Napoleon. Banished for life in 1815, he returned to France in 1830 and received a pension from Louis Philippe.

ALSO IN: *Mémoires de B. Barère*.

BARGE CANAL, New York State.—"In 1903, almost ninety years from the date of the beginning of Clinton's canal, the people of the State decided to again enlarge the canal and make it a Barge canal. The Barge canal consists of four branches: the Erie, running across the State from Waterford on the Hudson river to Tonawanda, where the Niagara river is entered and followed to Lake Erie; the Champlain, running northward along the easterly boundary of the State from Waterford to Whitehall at the southern end of Lake Champlain; the Oswego, branching from the Erie canal north of Syracuse and running northward to Oswego on Lake Ontario; and the Cayuga-Seneca canal, leaving the Erie west of the Oswego junction and running southward, connecting with the two large lakes from which it takes its name. The enlargement of this last canal was not decided upon until 1909. The Barge canal is one of the world's greatest feats of engineering. It is about ten times as long as the Panama canal and has many more engineering works and some of the most notable locks in the world. The old canals followed what is called a 'land line' which means an artificial channel constructed by means of excavations and embankments, avoiding the natural streams and lakes wherever possible so as to be above danger of flood. The new system, on the other hand, makes use of all these rivers and lakes, whenever practical; it makes them into a canal ('canalizes them') by the building of dams, locks, and other engineering works and obtains what is known as 'slack water navigation.' In fact, less than thirty per cent. of the Barge canal is built in 'land line.' There will be 446 miles of Barge canals, the Erie being 339 miles long, the Champlain 61, the Oswego 23, and the Cayuga-Seneca 23 miles long. . . . The dimensions of the Barge canal vary according to the locality, but at all places it will be at least 12 feet deep. It is 125 feet wide in earth sections of the land line, 94 feet wide in rock cuts, and has a width of at least 200 feet in the beds of rivers and lakes through which it runs. . . . All the locks (there are 57 in the Barge canal) are built of concrete and operated by electricity. They are filled with water and emptied by means of culverts, one in each of the side walls, opening into the lock chamber through 20 ports or openings located just above the lock floor. The lock gates are massive steel doors swinging on steel pivots. Some of these lock gates weigh more than 200,000 pounds each and are of the so-called 'mitre gate' type. A pair of gates may be opened or closed in about 30 seconds. Their operation, as well as the operation of the valves which control the flow of water in the feed culverts, the operation of the power capstans, the buffer beams and all other lock machinery is controlled by a series of small switches collected together in a small controller box located on one of the lock walls. The Barge canal locks are 328 feet long and 45 feet wide. They will lift at one time from one water level to another six such boats as are at present in use on the canals. The most wonderful of these locks are the five at Waterford, near Troy, which have a combined lift of 169 feet, the greatest series of high lift locks in the world. These locks cost about one-quarter of a million dollars each. The lock at Little Falls has a lift of 40½ feet; this is remarkable because it has a greater lift than any lock on the Panama canal. The siphon lock at Oswego has a lift of 25 feet, is the first lock of this type to be built in the United States and the largest



BARGE CANAL
(New York State)

of its type in the world. Other notable structures connected with the Barge canal are: (1) The movable dams. These dams, unique in this country, retain the waters of the Mohawk river and look like immense truss bridges, heavy steel gates being raised and lowered to govern the depth of water in the canalized river bed. (2) The big dams at Delta and Hinckley. These have created two lakes of about 5 square miles each, and store up water that is to be let into the canal channel during the dry summer months so that the depth of 12 feet can be maintained. (3) The massive steel guard gates which protect the various locks and other works. (4) The curved fixed dam at Crescent which is located just above the Waterford locks. (5) The 300 new bridges which carry the railroads and the highways across the Barge canal. (6) The automatic spillways which help to maintain the water levels in the canal. (7) The 50-foot Taintor gates, the largest in the world. (8) The power houses where electrical power is created for operating the canal structures. In the construction of the Barge canal a greater variety of machinery has been used than ever before used on any engineering undertaking; this machinery represents a cost of about \$10,000,000. This great inland canal will cost \$150,000,000 and is being paid for by the people of New York State without any aid from the United States government. There will be no towpaths on the new canal so that the big barges which will be used must be run by mechanical means. The State is also building Barge canal terminals at all the cities and important towns along the different channels. These will be provided with machinery to load and unload barges. It is quite certain that the Barge canal will serve to attract once more the inland shipping that once passed through the old canals and did so much toward making New York the Empire State, and New York city the greatest metropolis in the American Union. De Witt Clinton's dream will have become a reality.—F. M. Williams, *Story of New York State canals*, pp. 5-11.—See also New York: 1899-1909.

List of prominent facts connected with the Barge canal.—“(A) First canal locks at Little Falls in 1796.
“(B) ‘Clinton’s Big Ditch,’ began 1817, completed 1825.
“(C) What the Barge canal (1903) consists of: (1) Erie—across State from Waterford on Hud-

son to Tonawanda; (2) Champlain—north along east boundary from Waterford to Whitehall; (3) Oswego—branching from Erie north of Syracuse and running north to Oswego; (4) Cayuga-Seneca—leaving Erie west of Oswego canal and running south connecting with Lakes Cayuga and Seneca.

“(D) Length of canals: (1) Erie—339 miles; (2) Champlain—61 miles; (3) Oswego—23 miles; (4) Cayuga-Seneca—23 miles; (5) Total—446 miles.

“(E) Four hundred miles now complete.

“(F) Minimum depth 12 feet.

“(G) Width: (1) 125 feet in earth sections; (2) 94 feet in rock cuts; (3) 200 feet in rivers and lakes.

“(H) Number of locks—57.

“(I) Construction and operation: (1) Built of concrete; (2) operated by electricity; (3) lock gates opened or closed in 30 seconds; (4) uniform length of locks 328 feet; (5) width of locks 45 feet; (6) lift of locks varies from 6 to 40½ feet.

“(J) Notable locks: (1) Five at Waterford—combined lift of 169 feet; (2) one at Little Falls—lift of 40½ feet; (4) one at Oswego—lift of 25 feet: (a) siphon lock; (b) first in United States—largest in world.

“(K) Notable features: (1) Movable dams; (2) dams at Delta and Hinckley; (3) massive steel guard gates; (4) curved fixed dam at Crescent; (5) three hundred railroad and highway bridges; (6) automatic spillways; (7) fifty-foot Taintor gates; (8) power houses.

“(L) Total cost, 150 million dollars.

“(M) Total cost of machinery used in construction, 10 million dollars.—*Ibid.*, pp. 11-13.

Definitions connected with the Barge Canal.
“*Slack water navigation.* Navigation in a pool of water created by a dam.

“*Earth sections.* That part of a land line where the soil is chiefly earth, and little rock is encountered.

“*Tons capacity.* The maximum number of tons which a boat can carry.

“*Feed culverts.* The hollow spaces or tunnels within the lock walls through which the water for filling or ‘feeding’ the locks and for emptying them is carried.

“*Mitre gate type.* A pair of gates which, when

closed, form a definite angle at the point of junction.

"Power capstans. A cleated cylinder revolving around a spindle, built on the lock walls, and operated by electricity. A rope fastened to a barge can be thrown around the capstan, and the barge can thus be towed into a lock.

"Buffer beams. A steel beam resting in a pocket in one of the approach walls to a lock, and swinging on a pivot to meet the other approach wall in front of the lock gates. Buffer beams serve as protection to the lock gates.

"Controller box. A steel box standing on a lock wall containing the switches which, when operated, open and close the lock gates and the valves in the 'feed' culverts.

"Lockage. The passage of a boat or boats through a lock. The raising or lowering of a boat or boats from one water level to another water level, by means of a lock.

"Siphon lock. A lock which can be filled and emptied by means of a series of pipes and without the aid of any mechanical means.

"Movable dams. Dams which can be raised or lowered so as to keep the water in canalized streams at the depth which is necessary for navigation.

"Truss bridge. A bridge supported by a truss. A truss is a structure whose members are collected in the form of a series of triangles so that it cannot be weakened unless the length of one of its members is changed.

"Guard gates. Steel gates built across the canal channel, usually at the head of a series of locks, so that in case of accident to one of the locks, the gate can be lowered and the water supply shut off."—*Ibid.*, p. 13.

BARI, seaport of Apulia, Italy. In 852 it became a stronghold of the Saracens, who were driven out in 871 by the Greeks.—See also **ITALY** (Southern): 800-1016.

BARIATINSKI, Alexander Ivanovich, Prince (1814-1870), Russian field-marshal. Participated in the Caucasian and Crimean wars; distinguished himself by the capture of Shamyl in 1859; retired in 1862.

BARILLAS, Manuel Lisandro (1840-1907), President of Guatemala. See **GUATEMALA**: 1885-1898.

BARING, a family of English financiers and bankers. See **CAPITALISM**: 18th-19th centuries.

BARKER, W. S., director of Salvation Army work with the A.E.F. in France. See **SALVATION ARMY**: 1917-1918.

BARKIAROK, Seljuk Turkish Sultan, 1092-1104.

BARKLA, C. G. See **NOBEL PRIZES**: Physics 1917.

BARLEUX, a village three miles southwest of Peronne, northeastern France. Was held by the Germans during the first half of the World War; taken in 1916 by the French in the battle of the Somme; captured in March, 1918, by the Germans; retaken by the Allies in the final campaign.—See also **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: d.

BARLOW, Peter (1776-1862), an English mathematician and physicist. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

BARMECIDES, or Barmekides.—"The Barmecides were the members of one of those powerful Persian families who, during the days of the first Arabian invasions, had abjured their religion, forsworn their loyalty to their king, boldly adopted the language and creed of their conquerors, and by their wealth and intelligence re-

tained their position in the state. The first Moslem of the Barmecide race was a Magian priest who surrendered to Qotaiba, when the latter invaded the province of Balkh. His son, Khaled-ibn-Barmek, had been one of Abu Muslim's supporters during the first years of the revolution which overthrew the House of Omayya; his services in Khorasan ingratiated him in the favours of the first Abbasid Caliph. [See **CALIPHATE**: 715-750.] Thenceforward Ibn Barmek and his descendants took care to remain in close proximity to the person of the Commander of the Faithful, insensibly moulding the Imperial policy on matters of finance, foreign affairs, or internal administration. . . . Harun could have had no other choice than to repose confidence in the Barmecide family. For three generations they had been the subservient slaves, the disinterested advisers, and the principal supporters of his house. During that time they had probed every channel of administration, gathered up every detail of foreign and domestic policy into their hands, had learned the whole financial gamut of the provinces, and acquainted themselves with the records, characters and capacities of the leading public men. . . . At the time of Harun's accession, the chief representatives of the Barmecide family were Yahyah and his sons Fadl, Ja'afar, Musa and Mohammed. The young Caliph decided to accept them all as his ministers and servants. Yahyah, his tutor, he made his chief wazir; to Fadl, his milk-brother, he gave the commissionership of the Eastern Empire, to Ja'afar the West; to Musa and Mohammed, posts in his privy council. During their tenure of office the Barmecides exerted their combined abilities in developing and enriching the Empire of their masters; from a material point of view nothing could have been more successful. In the eastern and western provinces order was restored, justice was formally administered, roads were repaired, caravanserais were built, trackless deserts were made passable for trade by means of wells and cisterns, the armies were more carefully disciplined, taxes were imposed with science and care, and a regular fleet was established on the Mediterranean. Combined with these schemes, developing the financial resources of the Empire, the Barmecides fostered a benevolent policy of tolerance towards the non-Moslems. Christians and Jews were encouraged to make use of their capacities as public servants, to build churches and synagogues, and to celebrate their feasts and religious services in public without fear of shame, while bishops and rabbis were received at court as honoured guests. Besides inspiring the Christians and Jews with a sense of gratitude and loyalty towards the state, the Barmecides conceived an even bolder project of endeavouring to bring about a truce between the followers of Ali and the Sunnis: certain potential leaders of the Alid party were persuaded to surrender, and an era of tolerance was inaugurated. . . . During this period the Barmecides themselves reaped something of the fruits which they had husbanded for their patron. Their audience halls were thronged with clients and suppliants; for their entertainment, philosophers and divines contended in subtle arguments and disputes; in their honour, the greatest poets polished and re-polished the most delicious epigrams and flattering couplets; while the proudest Emirs humbled themselves before them in hopes of favour and promotion. . . . So slowly and so gradually had the canker of disunion introduced itself between the Commander of the Faithful and his ministers, that neither suspected the other of harbouring hostile intentions, both refrained from precipitating

an open breach; Harun-el-Rashid still jested and talked with Ja'afar; Yahyah still gave orders as the chief minister; Musa, Mohammed and Fadl still retained their posts. . . . So matters continued for a full year. At the end of that time Harun-el-Rashid carried the Barmecides with him on the pilgrimage to Mecca. During the outward and return voyage the Caliph had appeared depressed and melancholy; over the whole party brooded a sense of apprehension and foreboding as of some terrible calamity yet to come. When the homeward journey was nearly ended, and the Royal camp was pitched at Anbar, a short distance from Baghdad, Harun-el-Rashid suddenly cast despondency aside, called Yahyah and his son Ja'afar and the rest to him, robed them in dresses of honour, and discoursed with them of the future and on affairs of state. . . . Ja'afar at last withdrew to his own tents and sat down to listen to his singers, to drink wine, and to pass the night in merriment; but his spirits were oppressed with misery, and he found no pleasure either in cup or song. . . . A little later there appeared Mesrur the Eunuch. 'Arise, O Ja'afar,' he cried, 'the Commander of the Faithful calls thee.' . . . When they reached the Imperial tent Mesrur drew his scimitar and bade Ja'afar bare his neck. In despair the luckless Barmecide implored Mesrur to spare his life, reminding the slave of their ancient friendship, and begging him to remember that their master might repent. At last the Eunuch consented to approach Harun-el-Rashid. Mesrur found the Caliph sitting on his prayer-rug, alone. 'Where is the head of Ja'afar?' cried El Rashid. 'O Commander of the Faithful,' cried Mesrur, 'I bring Ja'afar himself'; and drawing aside the curtain of the door showed the Caliph his adopted brother crouched upon the threshold. 'I called not for Ja'afar, but for his head,' replied Harun. Mesrur, seeing it was hopeless, struck off Ja'afar's head with a single blow. Yahyah and Fadl were loaded with chains, Musa and Mohammed were slain by order of the Caliph, their clients and freedmen were imprisoned, their slaves were distributed, their goods confiscated, their nearest and dearest all perished miserably, some falling under the knife of the executioner, some expiring in the dungeons, others dying in misery and want. Thus departed the glories and hopes of the Barmecides, and with them those of the House of Abbas."—M. Sykes, *Caliph's last heritage*, pp. 226-235.

ALSO IN: E. H. Palmer, *Haroun Alraschid*, ch. 3.

BARNABAS (fl. 38), saint and missionary in Asia Minor. See CHRISTIANITY: A. D. 33-52.

BARNABITES; PAULINES.—"The clerks-regular of St. Paul (Paulines), whose congregation was founded by Antonio Maria Zacharia of Cremona and two Milanese associates in 1532, approved by Clement VII. in 1533, and confirmed as independent by Paul III. in 1534, in 1545 took the name of Barnabites, from the church of St. Barnabas, which was given up to them at Milan. The Barnabites . . . actively engaged in the conversion of heretics."—A. W. Ward, *Counter Reformation*, p. 29.—See also MONASTICISM: Modern orders.

BARNARD, George Grey (1863-), American sculptor. Won the gold medal at the Paris Exposition, 1900, and at Buffalo, 1901. Best known works are "The Two Natures," "Abraham Lincoln," and decorations for the State Capitol at Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

BARNARD, Henry (1811-1900), American educational reformer, who aided in starting a teachers' institute. See EDUCATION: Modern developments:

20th century: General education: United States: Training teachers.

BARNARD COLLEGE, a college in the educational scheme of Columbia University, founded in 1889, for women undergraduates. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Secondary education.

BARNAVE, Antoine Pierre Joseph Marie (1761-1793), one of the most distinguished orators of the French revolution. Member of the States-general, 1789; a member, and in 1790, a president of the Constituent assembly, where his policy was one of moderation. [See FRANCE: 1790-1791]. Appointed one of the three commissioners to conduct Louis XIV and Marie Antoinette in the return from Varennes, his sympathies for the king and queen were greatly roused, and he finally joined the monarchist party. Papers found during the burning of the Tuileries were said to implicate him in a conspiracy against the republic. He was arrested, 1792, and guillotined the following year. Barnave's most famous speeches are edited by H. M. Stephens, in *Statesmen and orators of the French revolution*.

BARNBURNERS, one of the two factions of the New York Democrats; made up of radical reformers, who, like the Dutch farmer, would burn the barn to destroy the rats in it. The two factions, Hunkers and Barnburners, could not agree in the Democratic convention of 1848: the Hunkers nominated Cass for president, and made no stand on the Wilmot Proviso, while the Barnburners repudiated Cass and urged the adoption of the Wilmot Proviso. The Barnburners thereupon joined the Free Soil Party, whose nominee was Van Buren. This division of the Democratic vote caused the victory of Taylor, the Whig candidate, in New York State and in the nation. See U. S. A.: 1845-1846; and 1848: Free Soil convention at Buffalo.

BARNES, George Nicoll (1859-), British Labor member of Parliament; member of the War Cabinet, 1917; minister plenipotentiary at Paris Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BARNES, Julius Howland (1873-), American wheat exporter, president of U. S. Food Administration Grain Corporation, 1917-1919. See U. S. A.: 1918-1920.

BARNES, William, jr. (1866-), American publisher and politician. Owner and editor of *Albany Journal* since 1880. Member Republican state committee of New York, 1892-1914; chairman, 1911-1914; member Republican national committee, 1912-1916.

BARNET, Battle of (1471), the decisive battle, and the last but one fought, in the "Wars of the Roses." Edward IV, having been driven out of England and Henry VI reinstated by Warwick, "the King-maker," the former returned before six months had passed and made his way to London. Warwick hastened to meet him with an army of Lancastrians and the two forces came together on Easter Sunday, April 14, 1471, near Barnet, only ten miles from London. The victory, long doubtful, was won for the white rose of York, and it was very bloodily achieved. The Earl of Warwick was among the slain. See E&7. (&4: 1455-1471.

BARNEVELDT, John of. See OLDENBARNEVELDT, JOHAN VAN (1547-1610).

BARODA, a native state of the Indian empire, in the Bombay region. The former rulers (gaekwars) were corrupt and incompetent, but since 1875 British influence has secured enlightened administration. In the World War, the gaekwar heartily supported the Allied cause.

BAROMETER, *Invention of*. See *INVENTIONS*: 16th and 17th centuries; *Instruments*.

BARON.—"The title of baron, unlike that of Earl, is a creation of the [Norman] Conquest. The word, in its origin equivalent to 'homo,' receives under feudal institutions, like 'homo' itself, the meaning of vassal. Homage (hominium) is the ceremony by which the vassal becomes the man of his lord; and the homines of the king are barons. Possibly the king's thegn of Anglo-Saxon times may answer to the Norman baron."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 11, sect. 124.

BARONET.—"One approaches with reluctance the modern title of baronet. . . . Grammatically, the term is clear enough; it is the diminutive of baron; but baron is emphatically a man, the liege vassal of the king; and baronet, therefore, etymologically would seem to imply a doubt. Degrees of honor admit of no diminution; a 'damoisel' and a 'donzello' are grammatical diminutives, but they do not lessen the rank of the bearer; for, on the contrary, they denote the heir to the larger honor, being attributed to none but the sons of the prince or nobleman, who bore the paramount title. They did not degrade, even in their etymological signification, which baronet appears to do, and no act of parliament can remove this radical defect. . . . Independently of these considerations, the title arose from the expedient of a needy monarch [James I] to raise money, and was offered for sale. Any man, provided he were of good birth, might, 'for a consideration,' canton his family shield with the red hand of Ulster."—R. T. Hampson, *Origines patriciae*, pp. 368-369.

BARONIUS, Cæsar (1538-1607), Italian cardinal and historian. See *HISTORY*: 23.

BARONS' WAR, *The*. See *ENGLAND*: 1216-1274.

BARONY OF LAND.—"Fifteen acres, but in some places twenty acres."—N. H. Nicolas, *Notitia historica*, p. 134. In Ireland it is the equivalent of the English "hundred."

BAROQUE, a term applied chiefly to the more extravagant fashions of design in architecture, common in the first half of the eighteenth century. It is characterized by a profusion of detail, irregularity, grotesqueness as distinct from the purity of the classic style. See *ARCHITECTURE*: Renaissance.—Italy.

BAROTSELAND, a former kingdom of South Central Africa, now composing the northwest portion of Rhodesia, a British protectorate; it extended approximately from the Kuito river in the west to the Kafue river in the east, and in the north, from the Congo-Zambezi watershed to the Linyante or Kwando river and Zambezi in the south. In 1889 the British South Africa Company was permitted to establish its rule in the regions north of the middle Zambezi not included in the Portuguese dominions, and in 1891 by a treaty with Portugal, the Barotse kingdom was declared within the British sphere of influence. After disputes between the two contracting powers as to the western limits of Barotse, the question was submitted to the king of Italy for arbitration in 1905. He fixed the frontier at the Kwando river as far north as 22° E., then that meridian up to 13° S., which parallel it follows as far east as 24° E., and then that meridian to the Belgian Congo frontier. The first agent to penetrate into Barotse was a Frenchman, François Coillard, an admirer of British institutions. It was mainly due to his magnetic personality and purpose that Great Britain was enabled to extend her rule over these dominions.—

See also *SOUTH AFRICA*, *UNION OF*: 1900 (September).

BARRACKS, the permanent or temporary quarters of military or naval forces, often consisting of rows of buildings each housing a company or larger unit.

BARRAGE, in military usage, a rain of artillery missiles or a gas curtain, under which troops could advance or retreat. See *ORDNANCE*: 20th century; *WORLD WAR*: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: a, 1.

BARRAGE WORKS, Nile. See *CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES*: Egypt; *EGYPT*: 1884-1891; 1898-1901; 1909-1912.

BARRANCAS, Fort, one of the defenses at Pensacola bay which was seized by the Secessionists in 1861. See *U. S. A.*: 1860-1861 (December-February).

BARRANI, or Sidi Barani, town of northwestern Egypt on the Mediterranean coast occupied by the British in 1916. See *WORLD WAR*: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 1.

BARRAS, Paul François Jean Nicholas, Comte de (1755-1829), French statesman, deputy of the French National Assembly, 1792. As commander of the army besieging Toulon, he is judged responsible for the cruelty of the massacres there (see *FRANCE*: 1793-1794: October-April). He took a leading part in the overthrow of Robespierre, 1794 (see *FRANCE*: 1794 [June-July]; French victory at Fleurus), and was made president of the National Assembly in 1795 (see *FRANCE*: 1795 October-December). He commanded the troops in defense of the Convention against the National Guard, selecting Napoleon as general of artillery, and became one of the five Directors (1795-1799) by the Constitution of the year III. Unscrupulous use of office by Barras and the violent Jacobins led to the ease of the overthrow of the directory by Napoleon in the *coup d'état* of the eighteenth Brumaire (q. v.). It is not known to what extent Barras was an accomplice of Napoleon's, but this event marked his retirement from public life.

ALSO IN: *Barras' Memoirs* (M. G. Duruy, ed.).

BARRE, Colonel Isaac (1726-1802), a British officer and politician, who vigorously opposed England's attitude toward the American colonies. See *U. S. A.*: 1765: News of the Stamp act.

BARRÈS, Maurice (1862-), French writer and politician. A strong advocate of individualism, he upheld it in his novels and books of travel, and in politics, which he entered as a supporter of Boulanger; was a deputy, 1889-1893. Admitted to the French Academy in 1906.

BARRETT, Sir Arthur Arnold (1857-), British general in command of the campaign in Mesopotamia during World War. See *WORLD WAR*: 1914: IV. Turkey: i.

BARRETT, John (1866-), American diplomat. Minister to Siam 1898; United States delegate to the second Pan-American conference (Mexico, 1901); United States minister to Argentina (1903-1904), to Panama (1904-1905), to Colombia (1905-1906); director-general of the Pan-American union (1907-1920) secretary-general of Pan-American Scientific Congress (1916); presiding officer of second Pan-American Commercial Conference (1919). See *AMERICAN REPUBLICS*, *INTERNATIONAL UNION OF*: 1906-1908.

BARRICADES, Day of (1588). See *FRANCE*: 1584-1589.

BARRIE, Sir James Matthew (1860-), British novelist and playwright. His stories give a simple, but exceedingly appealing picture of Scottish life. Author of "The Little Minister," "Sentimental Tommy," "Tommy and Grizel." Whim-

sical fancy and gentle satire mark his plays, of which one of the best examples is "Peter Pan."—See also DRAMA: 1888-1921.

BARRIER FORTRESSES.—In 1701 Austria and England had assured the United Provinces of the Netherlands of a barrier against French aggression. "The importance of such a protection to the provinces was of course patent. Nature had done little or nothing for the Low Countries in the way of barrier and boundary. . . . The First Barrier Treaty [was] concluded on October 29, 1709. [See ENGLAND: 1709.] In this compact the British Government undertook to secure to the States General the right of garrisoning nine strong places which belonged or had belonged to the Spanish Netherlands, namely Nieuport, Furnes, Knoque, Ypres, Menin, Lille, Tournay, Condé, and Valenciennes, in addition to ten others (including Charleroi, Namur, and the citadel of Ghent) in case of their being recaptured from the French, in whose hands they at the present remained. A million of *francs* was to be annually paid to the Dutch out of the revenues of the Spanish Netherlands for the maintenance of the fortresses and garrisons aforesaid. . . . The Treaty of Utrecht closed the ensuing war. [See UTRECHT: 1712-1714 and NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): 1713-1715.] In this Treaty, by which, the First was formally revoked, it was settled that the States General should have the right of keeping garrisons in Knoque, Ypres, Menin, Tournay, Mons, Charleroi, Namur, and Ghent, but Lille, Condé, Valenciennes and Mauberge, which were included as Barrier places in the First Treaty, were not so included in the Second. . . . The Third Barrier Treaty, concluded at Antwerp on November 15, 1715, was more favourable to the claims of the United Provinces than might have seemed possible during the course of the Utrecht negotiations. They obtained the Barrier places desired by them, namely Namur, Tournay, Menin, Furnes, Warneton, Ypres, and Knoque, together with the right of joint garrison at Dendermonde."—C. T. Atkinson, *War of the Spanish succession (Cambridge modern history, ch. 14, pp. 456-459)*.—The barrier fortresses were razed by Joseph II of Austria when an alliance between Austria, including the Austrian Netherlands, and France "made them needless." (See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND): 1747-1795.) They became a part of Belgium in 1830 and their dismantling was completed when Antwerp was strongly fortified.

BARRIER TREATIES. See BARRIER FORTRESSES.

BARRIOS, José Maria Reina (d. 1898), President of Guatemala. See GUATEMALA: 1885-1898.

BARRIOS, Justo Rufino (1835-1885), President of Guatemala. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1871-1885.

BARROS LUCO, Ramon, President of Chile. See CHILE: 1910.

BARROT, Camille Hyacinthe Odilon (1791-1873), French statesman, a leader of the constitutional monarchists during the revolutions of 1830 and 1848. In 1830 he became a member of the council of state and was leader of the opposition until 1848. Head of Louis Napoleon's cabinet, 1848-1849, vice-president of the council of state, 1872.

BARROW.—A mound raised over the buried dead. "This form of memorial, . . . as ancient as it has been lasting, is found in almost all parts of the globe. Barrows, under diverse names, line the coasts of the Mediterranean, the seats of ancient empires and civilisations. . . . They abound in Great Britain and Ireland, differing in shape and size and made of various materials; and are known as barrows (mounds of earth) and cairns (mounds

of stone) and popularly in some parts of England as lows, hoes, and tumps."—W. Greenwell, *British barrows, pp. 1-2*.

BARROWS, David Prescott (1873-), American educator. See ACADEMIC FREEDOM: Practical Proposals.

BARRUNDIA INCIDENT. See ASYLUM, RIGHT OF: Right of asylum on merchant ships; and CENTRAL AMERICA: 1886-1894.

BARRY, Sir Charles (1795-1860), English architect. The Houses of Parliament at Westminster occupied him for twenty-four years and constitute his chief claim to fame.

BARRY, Sir Redmond (1813-1880), British judge of Australia. First solicitor general, 1851. Founder of the university of Melbourne, first chancellor, 1854. Fostered volunteer movement.

BARSTOW, William A., governor of Wisconsin, 1856-1858. See WISCONSIN: 1856-1893.

BAR-SUR-AUBE, a town in eastern France, some thirty miles east of Troyes and twenty-five miles northwest of Chaumont. Was the scene of a conference of allied sovereigns on the plan of campaign in 1814, which meeting was shortly followed by a battle in which the allies defeated the French. During the World War, the town was the center of a billeting area for American troops.

BART, or Barth, Jean (1651-1702), French naval hero. His peasant birth barred him from promotion in the navy and he early became famous as captain of a privateer. Louis XIV was forced to recognize his ability, making him lieutenant, then captain, and finally, in 1697, commander of a squadron.

BARTENSTEIN, Treaty of. See GERMANY: 1807 (February-June).

BARTER. See MONEY AND BANKING.

BARTHELEMY, François, Marquis de (1747-1830), minister of France to Switzerland, negotiating the treaty of Basel with Prussia and Spain, 1795, through which success he was made a member of the directory, 1797. (See FRANCE: 1797: September.) He was shortly deported as a royalist, returning to public life in 1800 first as a member, then as vice-president of the senate. In 1814 he became a member of the commission charged by Louis XVIII with drawing up the constitutional charter and in 1815 received the title of marquis.

BARTLETT, Josiah (1720-1795), a signer of Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

BARTOLUS (1314-1357), famous Italian jurist. See INTERNATIONAL LAW: Private: 14th century.

BARTON, Charles Walter (1876-), British captain in Nyassaland during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: c, 3.

BARTON, Clara (1821-1912), founder of the American Red Cross and its first president, 1881-1904. Was in charge of hospitals in the Civil War and Franco-Prussian War, becoming an international figure in organized relief work; was at the head of Red Cross activities in the Spanish-American and Boer Wars; also originated and supervised American Red Cross work in times of disaster at home and abroad, whether flood, famine or pestilence. In 1806 organized relief to Armenians. See RED CROSS; TURKEY: 1806 (January-March).

BARTON, Sir Edmund (1840-1920), first premier of Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1903-1904.

BARUCH, Bernard Mannes, American financier and economist. Member Advisory Committee of Council of National Defense 1916 (see NATIONAL DEFENSE, COUNCIL OF); Chairman Committee on Raw Materials and commissioner in charge of

purchasing for War Industries Board (see PRICE CONTROL: 1917-1919: United States); member commission in charge of all purchases for the Allies; chairman War Industries Board 1918; member of drafting committee on Economic Section of American Commission to Negotiate Peace; chairman raw materials division of Supreme Economic Council; American delegate on economic and reparation clauses and economic advisor for the American Peace Commission; member President Wilson's Conference for Capital and Labor, 1919.—See also PARIS CONFERENCE: Sources of information.

BÄRWALDE, Treaty of. See GERMANY: 1631 (January).

BARYATINSKI, Prince. See BARIATINSKI, PRINCE ALEXANDER IVANOVICH.

BARZILAI, Salvatore, Italian representative at Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BASE HOSPITALS, in war, those hospitals which receive the wounded from the front line dressing stations, treat their wounds and when necessary pass them on to permanent hospitals and convalescent camps. During the World War the American Red Cross established base hospitals, and later they were conducted for the American expeditionary forces by the United States medical corps aided by the army nurse corps.

BASEDOW, Johann Bernhard (1723-1790), German educator, who, influenced by Rousseau, advocated naturalism in education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Basedow, etc., Rousseau.

BASEL, name applied to the most northerly of the Swiss cantons and to its capital. In 1833 the canton of Basel was divided into two half cantons and the city of Basel became the capital of one of these—Basel Stadt or Bâle Ville.

374.—Origin.—The town was founded in 374 by the Emperor Valentinian who established a frontier post, Basilia, near the town of Augusta Rauracorum.

5th-11th centuries.—In the fifth century the Bishop of Augusta Rauracorum moved his see to Basel and from that date the town grew in power and importance. It was successively overrun by the Alemanni and the Franks, and after the break up of Charlemagne's empire it formed a part of the kingdom of Louis the German.

11th-14th centuries.—The growing power of the burghers gradually supplanted that of the principal nobility. Basel continued to be prosperous as a free imperial city, while its control over the surrounding territory was widened.

1356.—Earthquake.—Terrible earthquake nearly destroyed the city.

1444.—Opposition to Hapsburgs.—Basel joined the war of the Swiss confederates against the Hapsburgs.

1460-1500.—Growth of publishing.—Development in book-trade.—Leading publishers.—“The city of Basel secured at an early date an important position among the centres of publishing. The university, founded in 1460, brought to the city men devoted to scholarly pursuits many of whom took an early interest in the work of the printing press and were ready to give coöperation to the publishers. In 1501, Basel broke away from the imperial control. At that time, there were in the city no less than twenty-six important publishing and printing concerns. During the most active period of its publishing interests, Basel had the advantage over the majority of the German towns in its comparative freedom from censorship either ecclesiastical or civil. The authority of Rome was permitted to exert prac-

tically no restrictions upon the productions of the printing-presses; while as a free imperial city, it had the right to claim exemption from any authority other than that of the emperor, whose examiners were too far distant to be able to bring their influence to bear, to any extent, upon the operations of the Basel publishers. It was this freedom that constituted the most important cause of the great development of the book-trade of the city during the 15th and 16th centuries. The leader among the great publishers of Basel, who ranked at the time with Aldus as one of the great publishers of the world, was Johann Froben, the publisher, friend, and close associate of Erasmus. It is the imprint of Froben that is associated with the most important of the volumes of Erasmus, including not only those that secured the approval of Leo X and of other of the Church authorities, but the group which brought the author into sharp criticism with the ecclesiastical censors. During the years between 1460 and 1500, the popes themselves sent to Basel for printing certain books which required more trustworthy work than could be secured in Rome.”—G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, v. II, pp. 352-353.

16th century.—In the Reformation.—During the Reformation Basel became one of the centers for the new doctrines, so that the bishop was forced to move to Porrentruy, where he resided until 1792. The bishopric was finally reestablished 1814.

17th-19th centuries.—Under the guilds.—Struggle for equality of rights.—The government of Basel was in the hands of the guilds during these years, and, although the town itself was ruled democratically, the policy towards the rural districts was decidedly autocratic. Equality of rights was acquired during the French Revolution, and the reaction of 1814 brought on a rebellion two decades later.

1831-1833.—Civil War.—Formation of the cantons.—The civil war which broke out in 1831 resulted in the independence of the rural district the following year. In 1833 the city formed the canton of Basel Stadt and the rural communities the canton of Basel Landschaft. In 1831 there were also reforms granted in the suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Switzerland: 1830-1848.

1897.—Poor relief laws. See CHARITIES: Switzerland: 1844-1921.

1912.—International Congress. See INTERNATIONAL: 1912.

BASEL, Council of. See FRANCE: 1438; and PAPACY: 1431-1448.

BASEL, Treaties of (1795). See FRANCE: 1794-1795 (October-May), and 1795 (June-December).

BASHAN, ancient region east of the Jordan invaded by the Israelites. See JEWS: Israel under the Judges.

BASHI, or Bachi Islands, northernmost group of the Philippines. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-December).

BASHFORD, Coles, governor of Wisconsin, 1856-1858. See WISCONSIN: 1856-1893.

BASHI BOZOUKS, or Bazouks.—For the suppression of the revolt of 1875-1877 in the Christian provinces of the Turkish dominions (see TURKS: 1861-1876). “besides the regular forces engaged against the Bulgarians, great numbers of the Moslem part of the local population had been armed by the Government and turned loose to fight the insurgents in their own way. These irregular warriors are called Bashi Bozouks, or Rottenheads. The term alludes to their being sent out

without regular organization and without officers at their head."—H. O. Dwight, *Turkish life in war time*, p. 15.—See also GREECE: 1862-1881; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: d, 1.

BASIL, the Great (c. 330-379), bishop of Cæsarea and metropolitan of Cappadocia; introduced reforms in monastic orders; author of numerous theological treatises.

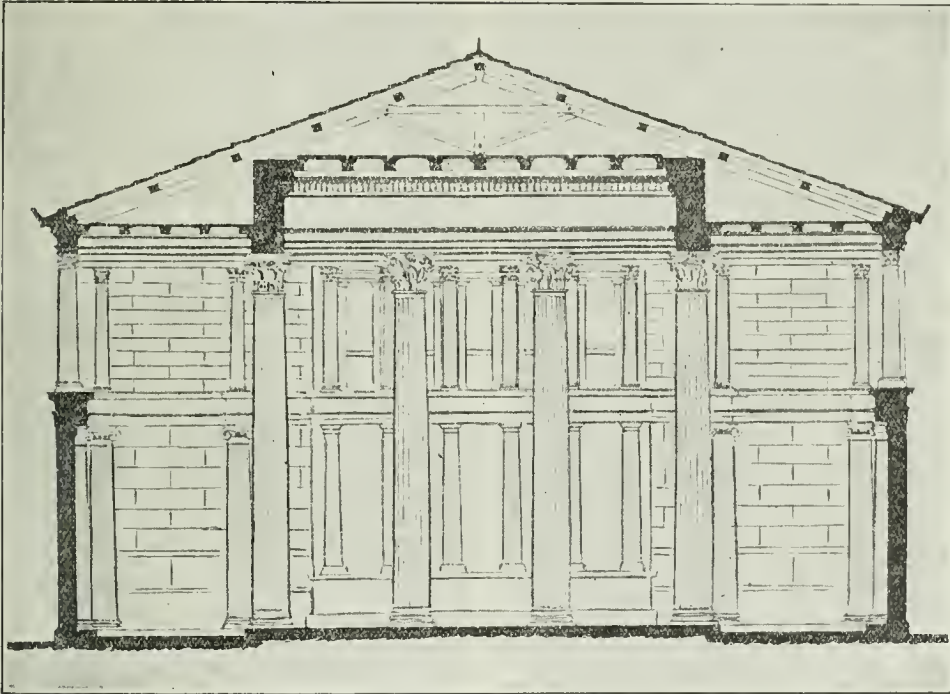
BASIL I. (called the Macedonian), emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek), 867-886. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 820-1057.

Basil II, emperor in the East (Byzantine, or Greek), 963-1025. See BULGARIA: 10th-11th centuries.

Basil, or **Vassili, I**, grand duke of Volodimir, 1272-1276.

Basil, or **Vassili, II**, grand prince of Moscow, 1389-1425.

Cato, hence called the Basilica Porcia. Then followed the Basilica Fulvia, Basilica Aemilia, and Basilica Julia, the last being the largest of the five which existed during the reign of Augustus. In A.D. 112, Trajan built the great Basilica Ulpia in connection with his forum, and some two hundred years later was erected the vaulted Basilica of Maxentius or Constantine on the Via Sacra. In all there came to be some twenty basilicas in Rome alone. One great interest of the basilica halls consists in the fact that from them were derived the plan and form of the early Christian churches. It has been conjectured that the plan of a basilica was derived from that of a Greek temple, the cella walls being replaced by ranges of columns, opening into the peristyle where in turn the columns were replaced by side walls. The colonnades thus became aisles to the central



BASILICA OF ST. PETER'S CATHEDRAL, ROME
(Front elevation)

Basil III, the Blind, grand Prince of Moscow, 1425-1462.

Basil IV, tsar of Russia, 1505-1533.

BASILEUS.—"From the earliest period of history, the sovereigns of Asia had been celebrated in the Greek language by the title of Basileus, or King; and since it was considered as the first distinction among men, it was soon employed by the servile provincials to the east in their humble address to the Roman throne."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 13.

BASILIA, frontier post of the Romans. See BASEL: 374.

BASILIAN DYNASTY. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 820-1057.

BASILICAS, "structures intended at first to relieve the congestion of business in the various fora and to afford quiet as well as protection from the weather, for the transaction of business. The earliest in Rome were erected B. C. 184 by Porcius

wave; the vestibule being retained at one end and later to be called a *narthex*, while at the opposite end an apse projected. Here in the Roman basilica were the seats of the quaestor and his assessors, occupied in early Christian basilica churches by the bishop and presbyters. [See also CATHEDRALS.] The interiors of the Roman basilicas present two types of treatment. In the Basilica of Constantine, for example, the nave columns were attached to great piers which supported groined vaults, the thrust of which was sustained by walls at right angles to the piers. These walls divided each aisle into three bays, corresponding to the three bays of the nave, and over each aisle-bay was a barrel-vault, which, being at right angles to the nave, served as extra support to the nave-vaults. Light was admitted through windows in the side walls of the aisles and also through windows in the upper part of the nave, above the aisle vaults. On the other hand, in the interior of

the Basilica Ulpia a range of columns, supporting an entablature, took the place of the piers on each side of the nave. On the entablature rested another range of columns, surmounted by another entablature, above which walls, pierced with windows, were carried up to carry the flat coffered ceiling. Both tiers of nave columns opened into the aisle, which correspondingly had two stories, the upper crowned with a flat ceiling."—C. H. Caffin, *How to study architecture*, pp. 177-178.—"Among the buildings appropriated to the public service at Rome, none were more important than the Basilicæ. Although their name is Greek, yet they were essentially a Roman creation, and were used for practical purposes peculiarly Roman,—the administration of law and the transaction of merchants' business. Historically, considerable interest attaches to them from their connection with the first Christian churches. The name of Basilica was applied by the Romans equally to all large buildings intended for the special needs of public business. . . . Generally, however, they took the form most adapted to their purposes—a semi-circular apse or tribunal for legal trials and a central nave, with arcades and galleries on each side for the transaction of business. They existed not only as separate buildings, but also as reception rooms attached to the great mansions of Rome. . . . It is the opinion of some writers that these private basilicæ, and not the public edifices, served as the model for the Christian Basilica."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, introduction.—See also FORUMS OF ROME.

ALSO IN: A. P. Stanley, *Christian institutions*, ch. 9.

BASILIKA, a compilation or codification of the imperial laws of the Byzantine Empire promulgated 884, in the reign of Basil I and afterwards revised and amplified by his son, Leo VI.—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire*, from 716 to 1057, bk. 2, ch. 1, sect. 1.

BASING HOUSE: *Storming and destruction* 61.—"Basing House [mansion of the marquis of Winchester, near Basingstoke, in Hampshire], an immense fortress, with a feudal castle and a Tudor palace within its ramparts, had long been a thorn in the side of the Parliament. Four years it had held out, with an army within, well provisioned for years, and blocked the road to the west. At last it was resolved to take it; and Cromwell was directly commissioned by Parliament to the work. Its capture is one of the most terrible and stirring incidents of the war. After six days' constant cannonade, the storm began at six o'clock in the morning of the 14th of October [1645]. After some hours of desperate fighting, one after another its defences were taken and its garrison put to the sword or taken. The plunder was prodigious; the destruction of property unsparing. It was gutted, burnt, and the very ruins carted away."—F. Harrison, *Oliver Cromwell*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *History of the Civil War*, v. 2, ch. 37.—Mrs. Thompson, *Recollections of literary characters and celebrated places*, v. 2, ch. 1.

BASKS, or **Basques**, in Spain. See **BASQUES**; and **SPAIN**: Aboriginal people.

BASLE. See **BASEL**.

BASOCHE, **BASOCHIENS**.—"The Basoche was an association of the 'clercs du Parlement' [Parliament of Paris]. The etymology of the name is uncertain. . . . The Basoche is supposed to have been instituted in 1302, by Philippe-le-Bel, who gave it the title of 'Royaume de la Basoche,' and ordered that it should form a tribunal for

judging, without appeal, all civil and criminal matters that might arise among the clerks and all actions brought against them. He likewise ordered that the president should be called 'Roi de la Basoche,' and that the king and his subjects should have an annual 'montre' or review. . . . Under the reign of Henry III. the number of subjects of the roi de la Basoche amounted to nearly 10,000. . . . The members of the Basoche took upon themselves to exhibit plays in the 'Palais,' in which they censured the public manners; indeed they may be said to have been the first comic authors and actors that appeared in Paris. . . . At the commencement of the Revolution, the Basochiens formed a troop, the uniform of which was red, with epaulettes and silver buttons; but they were afterwards disbanded by a decree of the National Assembly."—G. B. Whittaker, *History of Paris* (London, 1827), v. 2, p. 106.

BASQUE MUSIC. See **MUSIC**: Folk music and nationalism; **Basque music**.

BASQUE PROVINCES, a division of north-eastern Spain comprising the provinces of Alava, Biscay or Vizcaya, and Guipúzcoa. The total area is 2,730 square miles. Of the three provinces, only Guipúzcoa is wholly Basque, its capital Vitoria having been founded by the Gothic king Leovigild (58). "A number of beliefs exist with regard to the history of these provinces, one of which is that they have never been conquered. . . . It is believed that the Moslem invasion of the eighth century did not extend to these provinces, but at a later time they did suffer from Moslem incursions. With the organization of the kingdom of Asturias, both Alava and Vizcaya seem to have been either dependent on that realm or at least in close relationship with it. At times, from the 8th to the 10th centuries, the counts of Alava were also counts of Castile. Passing into the hands of Sancho the Great of Navarre, Alava was incorporated in that kingdom until the reign of Alfonso VIII of Castile. Alfonso VIII won the battle of Vitoria and conquered the land in 1200. Thenceforth it remained under the sovereignty of the Castilian monarch, although with an assembly, the confederation of Arriaga, of its own. In 1332, in the reign of Alfonso XI, the incorporation with Castile was made complete, although with a retention of the charters and liberties of the province. Vizcaya also vacillated between Navarre and Castile as a more or less independent, protected country, until in 1570 it passed over to the Castilian crown by inheritance of the wife of Henry III. The course of events in Guipúzcoa was very similar. In 1200 the province submitted to the conqueror of Vitoria and from that time forth the external political history of Guipúzcoa was that of Castile."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 135.—The period from 1833 to 1876 was marked by the Carlist wars, fought by the provinces to maintain their independence and autonomy. The Carlist forces were utterly defeated and left at the mercy of the government, which assimilated them with the rest of the nation.

BASQUES, a race inhabiting the three Basque provinces and Navarre in Spain, and the arrondissement of Bayonne and Mauléon in France. The word is derived from Vascones; the Basques call themselves *Eskuadunak*, i.e. "those who possess the *Eskuara*," and their country *Eskual-Herria*. There are conflicting theories as to their origin. Some authors assign the same ancestors to both the modern Basques of northern Spain and the Berbers of northern Africa, and through the ancient Libyans, from a people depicted on the Egyptian monuments; a second theory makes them the

descendants of the tribes whom the Greeks and Latins called the Iberi; the Atlantic theory, put forth by many represent them as belonging to a lost Atlantic continent, whose inhabitants were represented by the Gauches of the Canary Islands, and by a race on the west coast of Africa; a fourth theory is that they are an indigenous race, who have never had any greater extension than their present quarters. Of their early religion, very little is known beyond that they may have been worshippers of the elements. Their folk-lore too sheds no light on their origin, since it is too modern, the first manuscript dating from the eighteenth century. They are a simple, proud, conservative people, very jealous of any infringement on their independence, rather willing to suffer any amount of hardship than surrender their freedom. No invader ever succeeded in effectually subduing or expelling them. "The western extremity of the Pyrenees, where France and Spain join, gives us a locality . . . where, although the towns, like Bayonne, Pampeluna, and Bilbao, are French or Spanish, the country people are Basques or Biscayans—Basques or Biscayans not only in the provinces of Biscay, but in Alava, Upper Navarre, and the French districts of Labourd and Soule. Their name is Spanish (the word having originated in that of the ancient Vascones), and it is not the one by which they designate themselves; though possibly it is indirectly connected with it. The native name is derived from the root Eusk-; which becomes Euskara when the language, Euskkerria when the country, and Euskaldunac when the people are spoken of."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 2.—See also FRANCE: The people; and SPAIN: Aboriginal peoples.

ALSO IN: I. Taylor, *Origin of the Aryans*, ch. 4, sect. 4.

16th century.—Early fishing enterprise in Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

BASRA (Bassorah or Bussorah) AND KUFA, a city of Asiatic Turkey and capital of the vilayet of the same name. Situated on the Shat-el-Arab fifty-five miles from the Persian gulf, Basra serves as the seaport of Bagdad (Baghdad) with which it is commercially connected by steamships plying between the two cities on the Tigris. Basra dates are regarded finest in the world. It also exports wool, horses, and licorice. In the first years of their conquest of Mesopotamia and the delta of the Euphrates and Tigris—as early as 638—the Moslems founded two cities which acquired importance in Mohammedan history. In both cases, these cities appear to have arisen out of the need felt by the Arabs for more salubrious sites of residence than their predecessors in the ancient country had been contented with. Of Bussorah, or Bassorah, the city founded in the Delta, the site is said to have been changed three times. Kufa was built on a plain very near to the neglected city of Hira, on the Euphrates. "Kufa and Bussorah . . . had a singular influence on the destinies of the Caliphate and of Islam itself. The vast majority of the population came from the Peninsula and were of pure Arabian blood. The tribes which, with their families, scented from afar the prey of Persia, kept streaming into Chaldea from every corner of Arabia, settled chiefly in these two cities. At Kufa, the races from Yemen and the south predominated; at Bussorah, from the north. Rapidly they grew into two great and luxurious capitals, with an Arab population each of from 150,000 to 200,000 souls. On the literature, theology, and politics of Islam, these cities had a greater influence than the whole Moslem world besides. . . . The people became petulant and factious, and both cities grew

into hotbeds of turbulence and sedition. The Bedouin element, conscious of its strength, was jealous of the Coreish, and impatient of whatever checked its capricious humour. Thus factions sprang up which, controlled by the strong and wise arm of Omar, broke loose under the weaker Caliphs, eventually rent the unity of Islam, and brought on disastrous days."—Sir W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 18.—See also CALIPHATE: 680.—After the downfall of the Abbassid caliphate, Kufa fell into ruins.

In 800 Basra and Kufa were pillaged by the Carmathians. (See CARMATHIANS.) In the year 1668 it was captured by the Turks, following which the city experienced many revolutions. The Persians captured the city in 1777 but it was retaken by the Turks soon after. During the World War Basra assumed military importance by virtue of its strategic position with regard to the Persian gulf and the direct line of communication with Bagdad. It was this fact which led the English to gain control of Basra, and the nearby towns of Kurna and Amara which served as a northern defense of Basra.—See also SEVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part XI. Ports, waterways and railways; WORLD WAR: 1914: IV. Turkey: i; 1915: VI. Turkey: c.

BAS-RELIEF SCULPTURE. See SCULPTURE: Greek sculpture; 5th century.

BASS, George (d. 1812), English explorer. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800.

BASSANO, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

BASSE TERRE. See GUADELOUPE.

BASSEIN, Treaty of (1802). See INDIA: 1798-1805.

BASSORAH. See BASRA.

BASTA, George (1550-1607), German general in Transylvania. See HUNGARY: 1567-1604.

BASTAMIYAH, Mohammedan religious order. See DERVISHES.

BASTARNÆ, Germanic tribe. See PEUCINI.

BASTIAN, Adolf (1826-1905), German traveler and anthropologist. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Historic method.

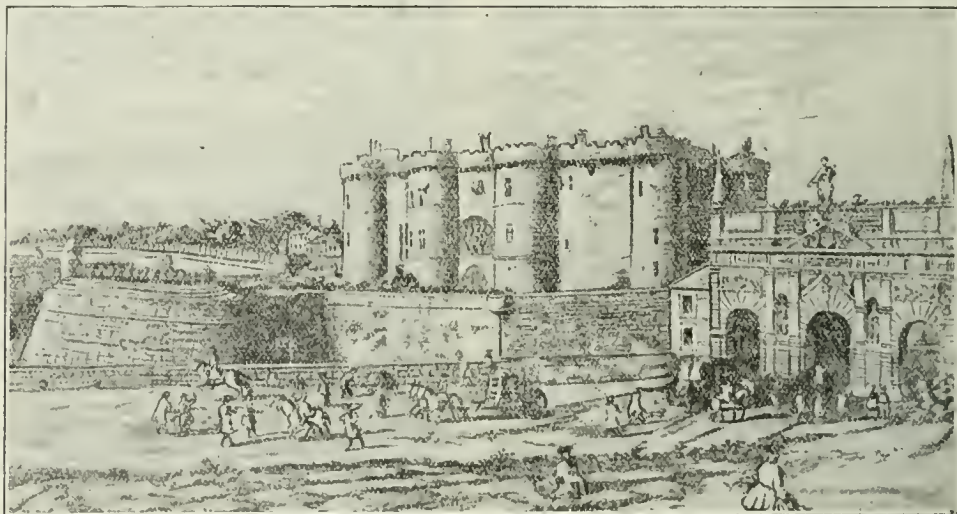
BASTIAT, Frédéric (1801-1850), French political economist and advocate of free trade. See TARIFF: 1830-1848.

BASTIEN-LEPAGE (1848-1884), French plein-painter. See PAINTING: Painting in Europe: 19th century.

BASTILLE.—"The name of Bastille or Bastel was, in ancient times, given to any kind of erection calculated to withstand a military force; and thus, formerly in England and on the borders of Scotland, the term Bastel-house was usually applied to places of strength and fancied security. Of the many Bastilles in France that of Paris, . . . which at first was called the Bastille St-Antoine, from being erected near the suburb of St-Antoine, retained the name longest. This fortress, of melancholy celebrity, was erected under the following circumstances: In the year 1356, when the English, then at war with France, were in the neighbourhood of Paris, it was considered necessary by the inhabitants of the French capital to repair the bulwarks of their city. Stephen Marcel, provost of the merchants, undertook this task, and, amongst other defences, added to the fortifications at the eastern entrance of the town a gate flanked with a tower on each side." This was the beginning of the constructions of the Bastille. They were enlarged in 1369 by Hugh Aubriot, provost of Paris under Charles V. He "added two towers, which, being placed opposite to those already existing on each side of the gate, made of the Bas-

tille a square fort, with a tower at each of the four angles." After the death of Charles V, Aubroix, who had many enemies, was prosecuted for alleged crimes, "was condemned to perpetual confinement, and placed in the Bastille, of which, according to some historians, he was the first prisoner. After some time, he was removed thence to Fort l'Évêque, another prison," from which he was liberated in 1381, by the insurrection of the Maillotins (see PARIS: 1381). "After the insurrection of the Maillotins, in 1382, the young king, Charles VI., still further enlarged the Bastille by adding four towers to it, thus giving it, instead of the square form it formerly possessed, the shape of an oblong or parallelogram. The fortress now consisted of eight towers, each 100 feet high, and like the wall which united them, nine feet thick. Four of these towers looked on the city, and four on the suburb of St-Antoine. To increase its strength, the Bastille was surrounded by a ditch 25 feet deep and 120 feet wide. The road which

withdrawal of the last hereditary stadholder, William V. "On the 22nd of January, 1796, the French army entered the Hague, where, as in the other cities, the people fraternised with their invaders, hailing them as friends. . . . The ancient privileges and monopolies, which so long had rested heavily upon the Dutch people, were, with the guilds and the titles of nobility, abolished, and the Constitution of 1708 and that of 1801 promised stability and freedom. . . . Instead of their deliveries reforming the constitution in the manner thought best by the revolutionary committees and patriots, the Dutch people found they could do nothing except at the bidding of their French masters, who compelled them to lay an embargo on British vessels then in their ports. This . . . brought on a war with Great Britain. . . . So it happened that soon Dutch commerce and fisheries were nearly paralyzed and the colonies lost. The towns and magazines of the Batavian Republic were held by foreigners. The demands of the French



THE BASTILLE, PARIS
(From an old French print)

formerly passed through it was turned on one side. . . . The Bastille was now completed (1383), and though additions were subsequently made to it, the body of the fortress underwent no important change. . . . Both as a place of military defence, and as a state prison of great strength, the Bastille was, even at an early period, very formidable."—*History of the Bastille (Chambers's Miscellany, no. 132, v. 17)*.—For an account of the taking and destruction of the Bastille by the people, in 1789, see FRANCE: 1789 (July).

ALSO IN: D. Bingham, *The Bastille*.—R. A. Davnport, *History of the Bastille*.

BASTITANI, Spanish tribe. See TURDETANI.

BASUTOLAND, British colony of southeast Africa. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent, PHILOLOGY: 24; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Aboriginal inhabitants; 1811-1868.

BATAKS, Malayan tribe. See SUMATRA.

BATAVIA (Java), Origin of. See JAVA: Its geography; and NETHERLANDS: 1504-1620.

BATAVIAN REPUBLIC, the name adopted by the seven united provinces of the Netherlands on May 16, 1795. (See FRANCE: 1794-1795: October-May), on the occasion of the invasion by the French troops under Pichegru, and the forced

army for forage and fuel were insatiable, while in payment the people were compelled to receive that worthless paper money called 'assignats'. . . . The Batavian Republic became virtually a province of France. Various changes in government followed—the Dutch, meanwhile, losing the flower of their young men in fighting the battles of Napoleon, who . . . changed the constitution to suit his whim. He invested [1805] Rutger Jan. Schimmelpenninck, the Dutch ambassador at his court, with the sole government of the Batavian Republic. Although a council of nineteen members, styled their 'High Mightinesses,' formed the law-making body, yet Schimmelpenninck possessed almost monarchical power under the title Pensionary. . . . In 1807 Napoleon declared the country a kingdom, and, calling it 'Holland' made his brother, Louis, king."—W. E. Griffis, (*Motley's Dutch nation*, 1008, ch. vii p. 800-900).—See also NETHERLANDS: 1806-1810.

BATAVIANS, or **Batavi**.—"The Germanic Batavi had been peacefully united with the [Roman] Empire, not by Cæsar, but not long afterwards, perhaps by Drusus. They were settled in the Rhine delta, that is on the left bank of the Rhine and on the islands formed by its arms, upwards as far at least as the Old Rhine, and so

nearly from Antwerp to Utrecht and Leyden in Zealand and southern Holland, on territory originally Celtic—at least the local names are predominantly Celtic; their name is still borne by the Betuwe, the lowland between the Waal and the Leck with the capital Noviomagus, now Nimeguen. They were, especially compared with the restless and refractory Celts, obedient and useful subjects, and hence occupied a distinctive position in the aggregate, and particularly in the military system of the Roman Empire. They remained quite free from taxation, but were on the other hand drawn upon more largely than any other canton in the recruiting; this one canton furnished to the army 1,000 horsemen and 9,000 foot soldiers; besides, the men of the imperial body-guard were taken especially from them. The command of these Batavian divisions was conferred exclusively on native Batavi. The Batavi were accounted indisputably not merely as the best riders and swimmers of the army, but also as the model of true soldiers.”—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 4.—“When the Cimbri and their associates, about a century before our era, made their memorable onslaught upon Rome, the early inhabitants of the Rhine island of Batavia, who were probably Celts, joined in the expedition. A recent and tremendous inundation had swept away their miserable homes. . . . The island was deserted of its population. At about the same period a civil dissension among the Chatti—a powerful German race within the Hercynian forest—resulted in the expatriation of a portion of the people. The exiles sought a new home in the empty Rhine island, called it ‘Bet-auw,’ or ‘good meadow,’ and were themselves called, thenceforward, Batavi, or Batavians.”—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, introduction, sect. 2.

69.—**Revolt of Civilis.**—“Galba [Roman emperor], succeeding to the purple upon the suicide of Nero, dismissed the Batavian life-guards to whom he owed his elevation. He is murdered, Otho and Vitellius contend for the succession, while all eyes are turned upon the eight Batavian regiments. In their hands the scales of Empire seem to rest. They declare for Vitellius and the civil war begins. Otho is defeated; Vitellius acknowledged by Senate and people. Fearing, like his predecessors, the imperious turbulence of the Batavian legions, he, too, sends them into Germany. It was the signal for a long and extensive revolt, which had well-nigh overturned the Roman power in Gaul and Lower Germany. Claudius Civilis was a Batavian of noble race, who had served twenty-five years in the Roman armies. His Teutonic name has perished. . . . After a quarter of a century’s service he was sent in chains to Rome and his brother executed, both falsely charged with conspiracy. . . . Desire to avenge his own wrongs was mingled with loftier motives in his breast. He knew that the sceptre was in the gift of the Batavian soldiery. . . . By his courage, eloquence and talent for political combinations, Civilis effected a general confederation of all the Netherland tribes, both Celtic and German. For a brief moment there was a united people, a Batavian commonwealth. . . . The details of the revolt [69] have been carefully preserved by Tacitus, and form one of his grandest and most elaborate pictures. . . . The battles, the sieges, the defeats, the indomitable spirit of Civilis, still flaming most brightly when the clouds were darkest around him, have been described by the great historian in his most powerful manner. . . . The struggle was an unsuccessful one. After many victories and many overthrows, Civilis was left alone. . . . He accepted the offer of negotiation from Cerialis [the Roman

commander]. . . . A colloquy was agreed upon. The bridge across the Nabalía was broken asunder in the middle and Cerialis and Civilis met upon the severed sides. . . . Here the story abruptly terminates. The remainder of the Roman’s narrative is lost, and upon that broken bridge the form of the Batavian hero disappears forever.”—J. L. Motley, *Rise of the Dutch republic*, introduction, sects. 3-4.

ALSO IN: Tacitus, *History*, bks. 4-5.—For other early inhabitants of Netherlands, see BELGÆ; NERVII; and FRISIANS.

BATE, William Brimage (1826-1905), Confederate general and governor of Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1870-1884.

BATETELA MUTINY. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1899.

BATH, city of Somersetshire, England, called *Aquæ Solis* by the Romans. See *AQUÆ SOLIS*.

BATH (measure). See *EPHAIH*.

BATH, Order of the.—“The present Military Order of the Bath, founded by King George I. in the year 1725, differs so essentially from the Knighthood of the Bath, or the custom of making Knights with various rites and ceremonies, of which one was Bathing, that it may almost be considered a distinct and new fraternity of chivalry. The last Knights of the Bath, made according to the ancient forms, were at the coronation of King Charles II.; and from that period until the reign of the first George, the old institution fell into total oblivion. At the latter epoch, however, it was determined to revive, as it was termed, The Order of the Bath, by erecting it ‘into a regular Military Order’; and on the 25th May, 1725, Letters Patent were issued for that purpose. By the Statutes then promulgated, the number of Knights, independent of the Sovereign, a Prince of the Blood Royal, and a Great Master, was restricted to 35.” It has since been greatly increased, and the order divided into three classes: First class, consisting of “Knights Grand Cross,” not to exceed fifty for military and twenty-five for civil service; second class, consisting of “Knights Commanders,” not to exceed 102 for military and fifty for civil service; third class, “Companions,” not to exceed 525 for military and 200 for civil service.—Sir B. Burke, *Book of orders of knighthood*, p. 104.

BATH TUB TRUST. See *TRUSTS*: 1912-1914.

BATHORI, Gabriel (1589-1613), elected ruler in Transylvania. See *HUNGARY*: 1606-1660.

BATHORI, Stephen (1533-1586), ruler of Transylvania and king of Poland. See *HUNGARY*: 1526-1567; 1567-1604.

BATHS.—“Public baths, *thermæ*, were as necessary a feature of Roman cities as the amphitheatre. Rich citizens, like Mæcenas and Agrippa, set the fashion of building them, and it was followed by emperors seeking to ingratiate themselves with the populace. For the charge for admission was only a quarter of an as—about one quarter of a cent or half a farthing; and even this was waived by certain emperors. The principal *thermæ* in Rome were those of Agrippa, Nero, Titus, Domitian, Commodus, Caracalla, Diocletian, and Constantine. Many of them assumed immense proportions. . . . Besides the actual bathing conveniences, which included hot water baths, vapor baths, cooling chambers and plunges, there were rooms for ball-playing, gymnasiums, colonnades, libraries, theatres, and open courts with shade trees. From two of the sides of the Baths of Caracalla projected long *exhedras*, or semi-circular recesses, furnished with benches, which are supposed to have been the meeting places for the discussion

of philosophy and poetry. In fact, the great *thermæ* were the clubs of the period; the resort of all classes, offering cleanliness to the poor, luxury to the rich, and healthful exercise and opportunity of cultured intercourse between those who desired it."—C. F. Caffin, *How to study architecture*, pp. 176-177.

BATHSHEBA, wife of Uriah, later a wife of David, and mother of Solomon. See **JEWES: Kingdoms of Israel and Judah**.

BATHURST, Henry, 3d Earl (1762-1834), British secretary of state for the colonies. See **NEW SOUTH WALES: 1821-1831**.

BATLLE Y ORDÓÑEZ, José, president of Uruguay, 1903-1907, 1911-1915. See **URUGUAY: 1911**.

BATONIAN WAR.—A formidable revolt of the Dalmatians and Pannonians, A. D. 6, involved the Roman empire, under Augustus, in a serious war of three years' duration, which was called the Batonian War, from the names of two leaders of the insurgents.—Bato the Dalmatian, and Bato the Pannonian.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 4.

BATORY, name of family. See **BATHORI**.

BATOOM. See **BATUM**.

BATS, Parliament of. See **PARLIAMENT: English: 1425**.

BATTALION, an organization of two, or more, generally four companies in the infantry, engineers, and signal corps, and of two or more batteries in the field artillery. Two or more coast artillery companies are usually organized into provisional battalions for other than coast artillery formations. The total strength of a complete infantry battalion in the United States service is 26 officers and 1,000 men; of a machine-gun battalion of 3 companies 20 officers and 550 men, and of 4 companies 26 officers and 728 men; of a battalion of light artillery 17 officers and 579 men; of heavy field artillery 12 officers and 456 men; of a field signal battalion 14 officers and 248 men; and of an engineer battalion 20 officers and 753 men. A trench mortar battalion has 17 officers and 747 men. In the World War the importance of the battalion was greatly increased.

BATTALION OF DEATH, a band of Russian women organized in 1917 to fight in the same manner as male soldiers. They were brave and efficient and achieved both physical and moral successes, inspiring their discouraged countrymen and arousing emulation on the part of women in other lands.

BATTENBURG, Louis Alexander, prince of (1854-), British admiral. Eldest son of Prince Alexander of Hesse; naturalized as a British subject and entered the navy at fourteen; rose to be second sea-lord of the admiralty in 1911, and in 1912 was made admiral of the fleet. In spite of his being related to the British royal family, Prince Louis at the outbreak of the World War considered it wise on account of his German blood to resign his high office.

BATTERY, the smallest administrative and tactical unit in the field artillery of the United States army. A 3-inch gun battery (light artillery) has 5 officers and 103 men; a heavy field artillery (6-inch) has 5 officers and 228 men. The term "battery" includes both the personnel and matériel. It is also used to designate a coast artillery emplacement, the guns mounted therein, and the matériel and supplies necessary for their service. Two batteries of heavy field artillery and three batteries of light usually make up a battalion, under command of a major.

BATTHYÁNYI, Karl Joseph, Prince (1697-1772), Hungarian field-marshal. Was a leader in the War of the Austrian Succession, and in 1745 defeated the French and Bavarians at Pfaffenhofen.

BATTHYÁNYI, Louis or Lajos, Count (1806-1840), Hungarian statesman. Was premier in 1848; became involved in the rebellion and died by his own hand when under sentence of death.—See also **AUSTRIA: 1848-1840**; and **HUNGARY: 1847-1849**.

BATTIADÆ, dynasty of ancient Cyrene. See **CYRENAICA**.

BATTICE, town of Belgium, the scene of German atrocities in 1914. See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 2**.

BATTLE, Trial by. See **COMMON LAW: 1077**; and **CRIMINAL LAW: 1818**.

BATTLE, Wager of. See **WAGER OF BATTLE**.

BATTLE ABBEY, Sussex, England; founded by William the Conqueror in commemoration of his victory over the Saxon king, Harold, on the site of the battle of Senlac or Hastings (1066). (See **ENGLAND: 1066: Norman invasion**.) Although the building was begun in 1067 it was not completed until the reign of Rugus when it was dedicated to the Holy Trinity, St. Mary and St. Martin. The abbey received many favors from the king among which were the right of sanctuary, of inquest and of free warren; also the inmates were exempt from secular and episcopal jurisdiction. There was the roll of Battle Abbey which was supposed to have been a list of William the Conqueror's companions. During the Reformation, May, 1538, the abbey was suppressed and the buildings were presented to Sir Antony Browne, a royal favorite, who pulled them down and erected a mansion on its site.

BATTLE ABOVE THE CLOUDS. See **U. S. A.: 1863 (October-November: Tennessee)**.

BATTLE OF THE BRIDGE (633). See **CALIPHATE: 623-651**.

BATTLE OF THE CAMEL. See **CALIPHATE: 661**.

BATTLE OF THE KEGS. See **PHILADELPHIA: 1777-1778**.

BATTLE OF THE NATIONS (Leipzig). See **GERMANY: 1813 (September-October)**, and (October).

BATTLE OF THE SAINTS (1782). See **ENGLAND: 1780-1782**.

BATTLE OF THE THREE EMPERORS.—The battle of Austerlitz—see **FRANCE: 1805 (March-December)**—was so called by Napoleon.

BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS (1864). See **U. S. A.: 1864 (May: Virginia)**: Grant's movement on Richmond.

BATTLES.—The battles of which account is given in this work are severally indexed under the names by which they are historically known.

BATTLES, Decisive.—The fifteen decisive battles of the world, according to Sir Edward Creasy are the following:

Marathon (490 B. C.). See **GREECE: B. C. 490**.
Syracuse (413 B. C.): See **SYRACUSE: B. C. 415-413**.

Arbela (331 B. C.). See **MACEDONIA: B. C. 334-330**.

Metaurus (207 B. C.). See **ROME: Republic: B. C. 218-202**; **PUNIC WARS: Second**.

Arminius (A. D. 9). See **GERMANY: B. C. 8-A. D. 11**.

Châlons (451). See **HUNS: 451**.

Tours (732). See **FRANKS: 511-752**; **GERMANY: 687-800**.

Hastings (1066). See ENGLAND: 1066: Norman invasion.

Orléans (1429). See FRANCE: 1429-1431.

Armada (1588). See ENGLAND: 1588: Spanish Armada.

Blenheim (1704). See GERMANY: 1704.

Poltava (1709). See SWEDEN: 1707-1718.

Saratoga (1777). See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

Valmy (1792). See FRANCE: 1792 (September-December).

Waterloo (1815). See FRANCE: 1815 (June).

After Waterloo and preceding the World War come:

Ayacucho (1824). See PERU: 1820-1826.

Sevastopol (1855). See RUSSIA: 1854-1855.

Gettysburg (1863). See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July; Pennsylvania).

Sadowa, or Königgrätz (1866). See GERMANY: 1866.

Sedan (1870). See FRANCE: 1870 (August-September).

Plevna (1877). See TURKEY: 1877-1878.

Port Arthur (1895). See CHINA: 1894-1895.

Santiago (1898). See U. S. A.: 1898 (July 3); 1898 (July 4-17).

Manila Bay (1898). See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-September).

Mukden (1905). See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

The decisive battles of the World War are:

Marne, 1st Battle of (1914). See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: o; p; p, 2; p, 4; p, 5; q.

Tannenberg (1914). See WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: c, 3.

Verdun (1916). See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: b; b, 5; b, 6; b, 19; c; d, 3.

Jutland (1916). See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a.

Vittorio Veneto (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c.

Picardy (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: b.

Argonne (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: b, 1; o, 1; r; u; v; v, 1.

Marne, 2d Battle of (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 8.

BATTLESHIPS. See WARSHIPS.

BATU KHAN (d. 1256), leader in the Mongolian invasion of Europe. See MONGOLIA: 1153-1227; 1229-1294; 1238-1301; and RUSSIA: 1237-1294.

BATUM, a province in the republic of Georgia, until 1917 an integral part of the Russian empire; area 2,693 square miles; received from Turks in 1878 after the Congress of Berlin. (See TURKEY: 1878.) Within its boundaries lies the city of Batum, one of the principal ports on the Black sea, the terminus for the Transcaucasian railway and of the petroleum pipe line from Baku. Was the scene of encounters with the Bolsheviks in May, 1920, before they gained complete control of southern Russia.—See also GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1920: Foreign relations; SEVRES, TREATY OF: 1920; Part XI. Ports, waterways and railways.

BATUM, Treaty of (1918). See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1918.

BAU. See FIJI ISLANDS.

BAUDELAIRE, Charles Pierre (1821-1867), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1840-1866.

BAUDIN, Nicolas (fl. 1800), explorer in South Seas. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1764-1850.

BAUDOIN (Baldwin) (d. 879), first Count of Flanders. See FLANDERS: 863.

BAUER, Gustav Adolf, German chancellor in 1919, succeeding Scheidemann; a Majority Social-

ist. See GERMANY: 1919 (June-July); 1920 (March-April); PARIS CONFERENCE: Reception, etc.

BAUERNLEGEN, practice of expropriation of the peasant proprietors, common in Germany after the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1648: Thirty years' war.

BAULNY, village of France north-west of Verdun, taken by the Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 7.

BAUM, Friedrich, German colonel in England's service during the American revolution. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

BAURE, South American Indian tribe. See ANDESIANS.

BAUTZEN, Battle of. See AUSTRIA: 1809-1814; and GERMANY: 1813 (May-August).

BAUX, Lords of, Gothic origin of the.—The illustrious Visigothic race of the "Balthi" or "Baltha" ("the bold"), from which sprang Alaric, "continued to flourish in France in the Gothic province of Septimania, or Languedoc, under the corrupted appellation of Baux, and a branch of that family afterwards settled in the kingdom of Naples."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 30, note.

BAVAI, village of France northwest of Mons, occupied by the British in 1914 and again in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; 1918: II. Western front: w, 2; x, 3.

BAVARIA (Bayern), a state in the south of Germany; capital, *Munich*. Formerly a kingdom; since Aug. 14, 1919, the Free State of Bavaria. The country is supposed to have derived its name from the Boii, or Boians, a Gallic tribe which settled in that region after their expulsion from Gallia Cisalpina by the Romans.—See also BOIANS, or BOII; GERMANY: Map.

Physical conditions.—Area.—Population.—Education.—Natural resources.—Industry and commerce.—Constituting the southeastern corner of Germany, Bavaria occupies the basin of the Danube, which crosses the entire breadth of the country, receiving in its course numerous tributaries, and the basin of the Main which winds through its northern part. It is separated from other territories by the Alps on the south, the Böhmerwald on the northeast, and the Fichtelgebirge and the Frankenwald on the north, and is bounded by Württemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt on the west. Its western part, cut off by the grand duchy of Hesse, is known as the Palatinate. Bavaria was the second largest state of the empire, covering an area of 30,562 square miles with an additional 277 square miles of water. It comprises the districts of Upper Bavaria, Lower Bavaria, the Upper Palatinate, Upper Franconia, Middle Franconia, Lower Franconia, Swabia, the Palatinate, and Coburg which joined Bavaria on February 16, 1920. The principal towns are Munich (q. v.), (München), Nuremberg (Nürnberg), Augsburg, Würzburg, Ludwigshafen a. Rh., Fürth, Kaiserslautern, Ratisbon (Regensburg), and Bamberg. The estimated population of the two largest towns, Munich and Nuremberg, in 1914 was 639,214 and 373,865 respectively. The majority of the population (4,862,233) are Roman Catholics. Of the remainder 1,942,385 are Protestants, and 55,065 are Jews. Education is compulsory from six to sixteen. In 1913-1914 Bavaria had 7,534 elementary schools with 1,001,884 pupils, and two agricultural schools with 320 pupils. Its three universities are located in Munich, Würzburg, and Erlangen. "Bavaria is essentially an agricultural state possessing rich forests, long stretches of grazing lands, lakes and rivers capable of developing 200,000 horsepower, and grain lands that provide in normal times quite

a quantity of wheat and barley for export. . . . It is stated that of a total population of 7,000,000 at least 3,000,000 are engaged in agricultural pursuits."—(*Commerce Reports*, Apr. 24, 1920).—Besides wheat and barley, the chief agricultural products are rye, oats, potatoes, hops, and vines. Of livestock, horses, cattle, sheep, pigs, and goats are raised. Its mineral resources are iron and coal. "At the normal price of the mark and with cheap transportation in German ships it had been possible to build up an enviable position in the export trade. Factories sprang up in all parts of the country. Nuremberg (q. v.) became the center in Bavaria for a variety of industrial enterprises. It is stated that within a small radius there were 500 factories. Exports included toys, bronze powder, metal clip-

Ethnology of.—"Bavaria . . . falls into two divisions; the Bavaria of the Rhine, and the Bavaria of the Danube. In Rhenish Bavaria the descent is from the ancient Vangiones and Nemetes, either Germanized Gauls or Gallicized Germans, with Roman superadditions. Afterwards, an extension of the Alemannic and Suevic populations from the right bank of the Upper Rhine completes the evolution of their present Germanic character. Danubian Bavaria falls into two subdivisions. North of the Danube the valley of the Naab, at least, was originally Slavonic, containing an extension of the Slavonic population of Bohemia. But disturbance and displacement began early. . . . In the third and fourth centuries, the Suevi and Alemanni extended themselves from the



THE CASTLE OF NEUSCHWANSTEIN

Built by Louis I of Bavaria

pings, etc."—(*Commerce Reports*, Apr. 24, 1920).—Its chief industries were art, breweries, locomotive factories, and porcelain works. Plans are now under way to establish plants for the manufacturing of agricultural machinery. The building trade also occupied a great number of the population before the war. At present it is at a standstill due to the lack of raw materials. Catering to tourists was the main source of revenue before the war, about 300,000 tourists passing there annually. In addition to these there will be two new industries. After the lapse of centuries gold mining will be resumed in Upper Franconia, where a scientific analysis shortly before the war showed the gold content in that district to be 52 gr. to 1 ton of ore. Oil shale will be extracted in the Jura mountains of the Bayreuth district, the oil resources of which are estimated at 228 million tons. An area of about 7400 hectares has been acquired for this purpose, and an expensive plant is being erected.

Upper Rhine. . . . The northwestern parts of Bavaria were probably German from the beginning. South of the Danube the ethnology changes. In the first place the Roman elements increase; since Vindelicia was a Roman province. . . . Its present character has arisen from an extension of the Germans of the Upper Rhine."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 8.—See also ALEMANNI: 213.

547.—**Subjection of the Bavarians to the Franks.**—"It is about this period [547] that the Bavarians first become known in history as tributaries of the Franks; but at what time they became so is matter of dispute. From the previous silence of the annalists respecting this people, we may perhaps infer that both they and the Suabians remained independent until the fall of the Ostrogothic Empire in Italy. The Gothic dominions were bounded on the north by Rætia and Noricum; and between these countries and the Thuringians, who lived still further to the north, was

the country of the Bavarians and Suabians. Thuringia had long been possessed by the Franks, Rhetia was ceded by Vitisges, king of Italy, and Venetia was conquered by Theudebert [the Austrasian Frank King]. The Bavarians were therefore, at this period, almost surrounded by the Frankish territories. . . . Whenever they may have first submitted to the yoke, it is certain that at the time of Theudebert's death [547], or shortly after that event, both Bavarians and Suabians (or Alemanni), had become subjects of the Merovingian kings."—W. C. Perry, *The Franks*, ch. 3.

the Magyars of Hungary. (See HUNGARY: 934-955). In 1070 it passed into the possession of the family of the Guelphs, but in their fight with the Ghibellines, it was taken away from Henry the Proud by Conrad of Germany, in 1138, and restored again to his son Henry the Lion. (See GUELPHS AND GIBELLINES). With the increase of his territories the latter became a powerful king, but a conflict with the emperor brought the imperial ban upon him. See SAXONY: 1178-1183.

1101.—Disastrous crusade by Duke Welf. See CRUSADES: 1101-1102.



DUKE HENRY (HENRY II) OF THE HOUSE OF WITTELSBACH, DEDICATING (1337) THE BAYERBURG IN LITHUANIA
(From a painting by A. Baumann)

843-1183.—Ancient duchy.—Part of the Austrian march till 1156.—Possession of the house of Guelph; lost in the fight with the Ghibellines; restored to Henry the Lion.—Under imperial ban.—Forming part of Charlemagne's empire in the eighth century, it became one of the duchies of the kingdom of the East-Franks after the division of the empire by the treaty of Verdun in 843. (See GERMANY: 843-962). At that time it probably occupied a territory bounded mainly by the Enns, the Danube, the Lech, and the Alps. In 876 it became united to the Austrian march, but was again separated from it in 1156. In 900 and again in 954 it was invaded and ravaged by

1168-1417.—Claims to Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

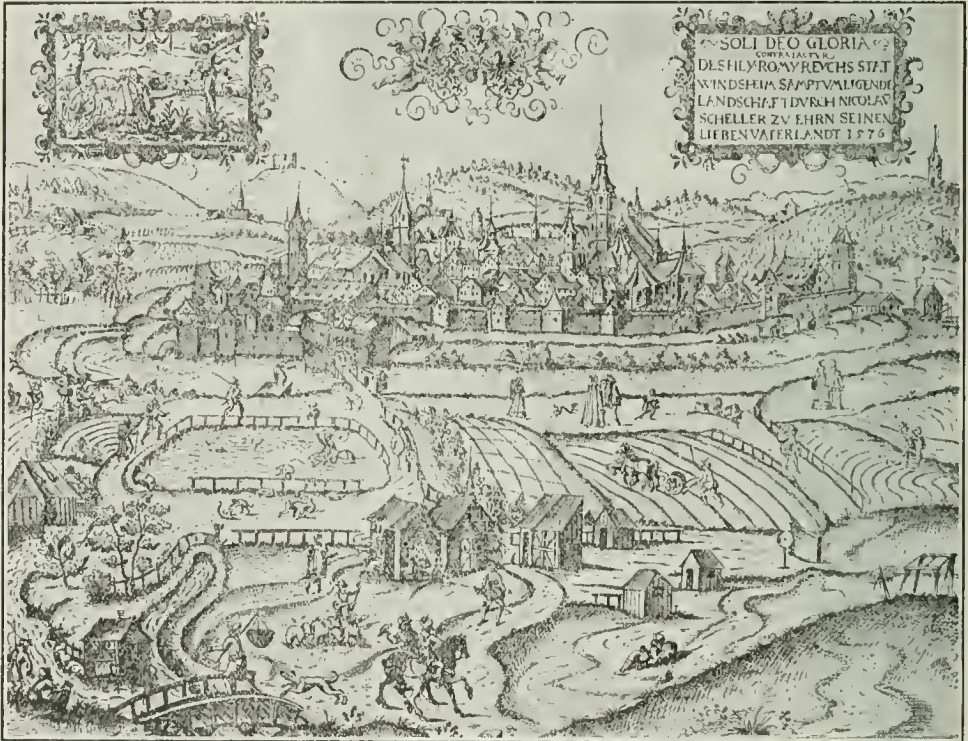
1180-1356.—House of Wittelsbach.—Its acquisition of Bavaria and the Palatinate of the Rhine.—Loss of the electoral vote by Bavaria.—When, in 1180, the dominions of Henry the Lion, under the ban of the empire, were stripped from him (see SAXONY: 1178-1183), by the imperial sentence of forfeiture, and were divided and conferred upon others by Frederick Barbarossa, the duchy of Bavaria was given to Otto, count palatine of Wittelsbach. "As he claimed a descent from an ancient royal family of Bavaria, it was alleged that, in obtaining the sovereignty of that state, he

had only in some measure regained those rights which in former times belonged to his ancestors."—Sir A. Halliday, *Annals of the House of Hanover*, v. 1, p. 276.—"Otto . . . was a descendant of that Duke Luitpold who fell in combat with the Hungarians, and whose sons and grandsons had already worn the ducal cap of Bavaria. No princely race in Europe is of such ancient extraction. . . . Bavaria was as yet destitute of towns: Landshutt and Munich first rose into consideration in the course of the 13th century; Ratisbon, already a flourishing town, was regarded as the capital and residence of the Dukes of Bavaria. . . . A further accession of dignity and power awaited the family in 1214 in the acquisition of the Palatinate of the Rhine (q.v.). Duke Ludwig was

him, and for this Bavaria was punished by the loss of the vote, and of the territory above the Enns." [Afterwards, for a time, the duke of Bavaria and the count palatine exercised the right of the electoral vote alternately; but in 1356 by the Golden Bull of Charles IV [see GERMANY: 1347-1493], the vote was given wholly to the count palatine, and lost to Bavaria for nearly 300 years.]—J. I. von Döllinger, *House of Wittelsbach* (*Studies in European history*, ch. 2).

1291-1349.—Conquests of Louis IV.—Quarrels with papacy. See AUSTRIA: 1291-1340.

1314.—Election of Louis to the imperial throne.—Louis, or Ludowic, duke of Bavaria, was elected German king simultaneously with Frederick of Austria. This led to a battle between Mühl-



A BAVARIAN TOWN IN 1576
(From an old drawing)

now the most powerful prince of Southern Germany. . . . His son Otto the Illustrious, remaining . . . true to the imperial house, died excommunicate, and his dominions were placed for several years under an interdict. . . . Upon the death of Otto a partition of the inheritance took place. This partition became to the family an hereditary evil, a fatal source of quarrel and of secret or open enmity. . . . In [the] dark and dreadful period of interregnum [see GERMANY: 1250-1272], when all men waited for the final dissolution of the empire, nothing appears concerning the Wittelsbach family. . . . Finally in 1273 Rudolf, the first of the Habsburgs, ascended the long-unoccupied throne. . . . He won over the Bavarian princes by bestowing his daughters upon them in marriage. Louis remained faithful and rendered him good service; but the turbulent Henry, who had already made war upon his brother for the possession of the electoral vote [See GERMANY: 1125-1272], deserted

berg and Etingen in Bavaria, in which Louis triumphed. However, his open warfare against the head of the church led to the Pope's interference and Louis's excommunication followed, while Germany was placed under an interdict.—See also GERMANY: 1314-1347.

1327-1330.—Interests in Italy. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

1345.—United with Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 880-1345. See also BELGIUM: 1297-1477.

1419-1434.—Battles with Hussites. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

1497-1616.—Relief measures for poor. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1497-1616.

1500.—Formation of the circle. See GERMANY: 1493-1519.

1610-1648.—Participation in the Thirty Years' War: Occupation by Gustavus Adolphus: Acquisition of the Upper Palatinate and the electoral dignity.—As head of the Catholic League,

Duke Maximilian I of Bavaria participated in the Thirty Years' War on the side of the Hapsburgs. [See GERMANY: 1608-1618 to 1618-1620.] During the war Bavaria was occupied by Gustavus Adolphus, and Munich had already submitted to him, when the elector of Bavaria joined General Wallenstein and the Swedes were repelled from Bavaria. Ravaged by the Swedes and French during the war, Bavaria was compensated by the acquisition of the Upper Palatinate in the peace of Westphalia, following the transfer of the Electoral dignity to the duke of Bavaria in 1623.—See also GERMANY: 1621-1623 to 1648; Peace, Map: At peace of Westphalia.

1686-1696.—In the league of Augsburg and in the War of the Grand Alliance.—Bavaria participated in the league of Augsburg, formed to resist the advances of Louis XIV in 1686, and until 1696 fought in the War of the Grand Alliance, into which the league had developed.—See also GERMANY: 1686; FRANCE: 1689-1691; 1695-1696.

1700-1714.—Dissolution of the electorate in the War of the Spanish Succession.—Imperial ban till the treaty of Utrecht.—Following the claims of the electoral duke on the Spanish crown, Bavaria became engaged in the War of the Spanish Succession on the side of the French. After alternate success and defeat, the fight ended with the dissolution of Bavaria. Elector Maximilian was placed under the imperial ban, and only by the treaty of Utrecht was he restored to his dominions with the exception of the Upper Palatinate.—See also GERMANY: 1702; 1703; 1704; 1705; SPAIN: 1698-1700; and UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1740-1748.—Elector's claim to the crown of Austria.—Elector crowned emperor.—His defeat in the War of the Austrian Succession.—When Charles VI, the last representative of the direct line of the Habsburgs, died in 1740, the duke of Bavaria claimed to be the rightful heir and succeeded in having himself crowned emperor, as Charles VII, in 1742. In the War of the Austrian Succession, which followed, Bavaria joined France, and after a temporary loss and recovery of its possessions, Munich was taken again in 1743 and the emperor-elector Charles VII was obliged to flee. By the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748), (q. v.), which brought the war to an end, the electoral house of Bavaria not only made no territorial gains, but almost lost its own patrimonial possessions.—See also AUSTRIA: 1740 (October); 1741 (May-June) and (August-November); 1742 (June-December); and 1744-1745.

1768.—Expulsion of the Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1761-1769.

1777-1779.—Succession question.—“With the death of Maximilian Joseph, of Bavaria (30 December, 1777), the younger branch of the house of Wittelsbach became extinct, and the electorate of Bavaria . . . came to an end. By virtue of the original partition in 1310, the duchy of Bavaria ought to pass to the elder branch of the family, represented by Charles Theodore, the Elector Palatine. But Joseph [the Second, the Emperor], saw the possibility of securing valuable additions to Austria which would round off the frontier on the west. The Austrian claims were legally worthless. They were based chiefly upon a gift of the Straubingen territory which Sigismund was said to have made in 1426 to his son-in-law, Albert of Austria, but which had never taken effect and had since been utterly forgotten. It would be impossible to induce the diet to recognise such claims, but it might be possible to come to an understanding with the aged Charles Theodore, who had no legitimate children and was not likely to feel any very keen

interest in his new inheritance. Without much difficulty the elector was half frightened, half induced to sign a treaty (3 January, 1778), by which he recognised the claims put forward by Austria, while the rest of Bavaria was guaranteed to him and his successors. Austrian troops were at once despatched to occupy the ceded districts. The condition of Europe seemed to assure the success of Joseph's bold venture. . . . There was only one quarter from which opposition was to be expected, Prussia. Frederick promptly appealed to the fundamental laws of the Empire, and declared his intention of upholding them with arms. But he could find no supporters except those who were immediately interested, the elector of Saxony, whose mother, as a sister of the late elector of Bavaria, had a legal claim to his allodial property, and Charles of Zweibrücken, the heir apparent of the childless Charles Theodore. . . . Frederick, left to himself, despatched an army into Bohemia, where the Austrian troops had been joined by the emperor in person. But nothing came of the threatened hostilities. Frederick was unable to force on a battle, and the so-called war was little more than an armed negotiation. . . . France and Russia undertook to mediate, and negotiations were opened in 1779 at Teschen, where peace was signed on the 13th of May. Austria withdrew the claims which had been recognised in the treaty with the Elector Palatine, and received the ‘quarter of the Inn,’ i. e., the district from Passau to Wildshut. Frederick's eventual claims to the succession in the Franconian principalities of Anspach and Baireuth, which Austria had every interest in opposing, were recognised by the treaty. The claims of Saxony were bought off by a payment of 4,000,000 thalers. The most unsatisfactory part of the treaty was that it was guaranteed by France and Russia. . . . On the whole, it was a great triumph for Frederick and an equal humiliation for Joseph II. His schemes of aggrandisement had been foiled.”—R. Lodge, *History of modern Europe*, ch. 20, sect. 3.

ALSO IN: T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, bk, 6, ch. 8.

1789.—One of the German Circles. See GERMANY: 1789.

1798-1806.—Enlarged by Napoleon by his Act of Federation. See AUSTRIA: 1798-1806.

1801-1814.—Aggrandizement.—Created a kingdom.—Joined to the Confederation of the Rhine.—Tyrol.—By the treaty of Lunéville (1801), Bavaria attained Würzburg, Bamberg, Freisingen, Augsburg, and Passau. (See GERMANY: 1801-1803.) By the treaty of Pressburg, its territories were still further enlarged at the expense of Austria. Besides Tyrol, with Brixen and Trent, Bavaria obtained Vorarlberg, the county of Hohenemes, and the town of Lindau. In 1805 it was created a kingdom by Napoleon, and the next year joined the Confederation of the Rhine (see Austria: 1798-1806; GERMANY: 1805-1806). Despite the revolt of Tyrol, Bavaria retained it by the help of the French until the Congress of Vienna, when it was restored to the Austrians in 1814.—See also EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812; FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); GERMANY: 1809-1810 (April-February); 1813 (October-December); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

1818.—Constitution granted. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.

1848.—Revolution.—Abdication of the king.—In Bavaria the revolution of 1848 took the form of an uprising against the king's provisions for his mistress, Lola Montez, whom he had created Countess of Landsfeldt. He was compelled to

withdraw his grants of property made in her favor and to expel her. This was followed by his abdication.—See also GERMANY: 1848 (March).

1850.—Four Kings' Draft.—Upholds Prussia against Austria. See GERMANY: 1850-1851.

1856.—Relations to European Commission of Navigation of the Danube. See DANUBE: 1850-1916.

1862-1866.—Allied with Austria in war against Prussia. See AUSTRIA: 1862-1866; GERMANY: 1861-1866.

1866.—Surrender of Würzburg to Prussia in the Seven Weeks' War.—Secret treaty with North German confederation. See GERMANY: 1861-1865; 1866-1870.

1870-1871.—Member of the Germanic confederation.—State of the German empire.—In 1870, Bavaria became a member of the Germanic confederation, and with the assumption of the title of emperor by King William in 1871, it became a state [kingdom] of the German empire.—See also GERMANY: 1870 (September-December), and 1871 (January).

1905.—Introduction of direct voting. See SUFFRAGE: Germany: 1906.

1918.—Union of House with Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1914-1918.

1918.—Economic conditions after the World War.—“The Bavarian State Commissioner for Demobilization, Segitz, publishes an account of the economic situation in Bavaria. One-third of the men on military service have returned home. Employers show a general reluctance to take big risks and place confidence in the traffic authorities with regard to state contracts. The Oberbürgermeister of Nürnberg characterises the industrial situation in that region as absolutely desperate. The scarcity of coal must soon lead to a general economic catastrophe, if matters do not improve. The Bavarian anilin and soda factories in Ludwigshafen are already idle for want of coal. The textile industry also complains of the scarcity and there is already much unemployment. The agricultural situation is reported satisfactory almost everywhere. The food supply is improving somewhat. The most important question is the coal supply.”—*Review of the Foreign Press (Economic Supplement, Jan. 1, 1919, p. 112)*.—To cope with the situation of unemployment, a government regulation has enforced the running of factories on part time or employing laborers in half-day shifts.

1918-1919.—Republic declared.—Constitution.—In November, 1918, the dynasty of the Wittelsbachs was overthrown and Bavaria declared a republic with Kurt Eisner, an Independent Socialist, at the head of the government. In February, 1919, Kurt Eisner was assassinated, and a struggle between the extremists of the Left and the moderate Socialists followed. It ended with the triumph of the moderate party in May, 1919. Conditions were still unsettled, however, and a counter-revolutionary movement of royalists was then reported to be imminent. In 1921 the situation was unchanged. Its present constitution, adopted on August 14, 1919, calls for a diet, consisting of one Chamber to be elected by universal, equal, direct, and secret suffrage for four years, on the basis of one representative for every 40,000 inhabitants. The supreme executive power is exercised by the ministry, which includes the ministers of education, commerce and industry, social welfare, agriculture, interior, finance, and justice.

1918-1920.—Government activities in economic reconstruction.—Socialization of the mines.—Development of hydroelectric power in lakes and rivers.—Formation of a Bavarian peat syn-

dicate.—“In accordance with the resolution of the Socialisation Committee of the Diet, the Minister has ordered the Central Economic Office to hasten the preparation of the preliminaries for the socialisation of the mines. The Government is determined to show themselves in earnest regarding socialisation, and not only to take in hand the systematic organisation and production of dwellings, food, and clothing, but also with this end in view to control directly certain economic spheres in agreement with the workers.”—*Review of the Foreign Press (Economic Supplement, Apr. 30, 1919, p. 475)*.—While Bavaria has sufficient electric power to run its street cars and lighting plants, and a small surplus for industrial uses besides, the state government has begun to develop further the hydroelectric power in the lakes and rivers of southern Bavaria. “It is claimed by German engineers that a proper development of the hydroelectric power in the lakes and rivers of southern Bavaria will produce 200,000 horsepower. This will be sufficient to electrify the entire Bavarian railroad and street car systems and provide enough industrial power for a large number of new enterprises that it is planned to establish in Munich.”—*Commerce Reports, Apr. 24, 1920*.—A Bavarian peat syndicate (Bayerisches Torfsyndikat G. m. b. h.) has been formed for the purpose of a joint regulation of the sale of fuel peat, and the improvement of the process of its production. This syndicate is supported by the government, which has promised to accept for conveyance by rail only peat placed on the market by the syndicate. “The Syndicate may not be dissolved before March 31, 1923, after which date a year's notice may be given by any member.”—*Economic Review, July 6, 1920, p. 101*.

1921-1922.—Herr Gareis, a Socialist leader, was murdered in Munich in June, 1921. The last king of Bavaria, Ludwig III, died in October, which gave rise to monarchial tendencies in favor of the crown prince, Rupprecht. It was reported that Bavaria had lost 5.62 per cent. of its male population in the World War. During 1922 there was considerable friction with the Allies over the disbanding of the Bavarian “Orgesch,” a military force, which was carried out under threat of Allied invasion.

ALSO IN: *Statistisches Jahrbuch für Bayern, Munich*.—J. Luebeck, *Die wirtschaftliche Entwicklung Bayerns und die Verwaltung von Handel, Industrie und Gewerbe, Munich, 1920*.—C. Pohl, *Handbuch des Staats, und Verwaltungsrechts für das Königreich Bayern, Munich, 1900*.

BAXAR, Baksar, or Buxar, Battle of (1764). See INDIA: 1757-1772.

BAYARD, James Asheton (1767-1815), American statesman. Member House of Representatives 1796; prominent in securing choice of Jefferson as against Burr in the indecisive presidential contest of 1800; member senate, 1805-1813; member of American commission which negotiated the treaty of Ghent, 1814.—See also U. S. A.: 1914 (December): Treaty of Peace concluded at Ghent.

BAYARD, Nicholas (1644-1707), Dutch colonial official. See NEW YORK: 1689-1691.

BAYARD, Pierre Terrail, Seigneur de (1473-1524), the “knight without fear and without reproach,” French national hero and idealized figure of the age of chivalry. He fought valiantly in the Italian campaigns of Charles VIII, Louis XII and Francis I. In 1521 he held Mezières with 1,000 men against Charles V's army of 35,000 and saved France from invasion. See ITALY: 1501-1504, and FRANCE: 1523-1525.

BAYARD, Thomas Francis (1828-1898), American statesman and diplomatist. Succeeded

his father in the senate, 1860-1885; member of electoral commission, 1877; president *pro tempore* of the senate, 1881; secretary of state, 1885-1889; ambassador to Great Britain, 1893-1897.

BAYERN. See **BAVARIA.**

BAYEUX, Saxons of. See **SAXONS OF BAYEUX.**

BAYEUX TAPESTRY.—A remarkable roll

on the Norman side. That it is a contemporary work I entertain no doubt whatever, and I entertain just as little doubt as to its being a work fully entitled to our general confidence. I believe the tapestry to have been made for Bishop Odo, and to have been most probably designed by him as an ornament for his newly rebuilt cathedral

BAYEUX TAPESTRY



King Edward the Confessor



Death of Harold

of mediæval tapestry, 214 feet long and twenty inches wide, preserved for centuries in the cathedral at Bayeux, Normandy, on which a pictorial history of the Norman invasion and conquest of England is represented, with more or less of names and explanatory inscriptions. Mr. E. A. Freeman, *Norman conquest*, v. 3, note A says: "It will be seen that, throughout this volume, I accept the witness of the Bayeux Tapestry as one of my highest authorities. I do not hesitate to say that I look on it as holding the first place among the authorities

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with Poland, Venice, Egypt and Persia. His later years were filled with disputes among his sons. He was forced to abdicate in his youngest son's favour (1513), and died soon after. See **TURKEY**: 1481-1520.

BAYLEN. See **BAILÉN**.

BAYONET, Gradual use of. See **MILITARY ORGANIZATION**: 16, 17.

BAYONNE, a city of south-west France about three miles from the bay of Biscay. In the third century was known as Lapurdum and was a Roman military post. In the Middle Ages was owned by the English. In 1451 it was taken by the French and has ever since been a first-class fortress. In 1565 it was the meeting place of Catherine de Medici, her son, Charles IX, and the Duke of Alva, representing Phillip II of Spain, thought to be for the purpose of conspiring against the Huguenots. (See **France**: 1563-1570). In 1808 Napoleon near here induced Charles IV and his son Ferdinand to renounce their rights to the Spanish throne, which was later occupied by Joseph Bonaparte. In 1814, after a siege, Bayonne was taken by the English. The bayonet took its name from this town, where it was first made.

BAYONVILLE, village of France north-west of Verdun, taken by the Americans in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: v, 10.

BAYREUTH, the capital of the province of Upper Franconia, Bavaria. It is the burial place of Richard Wagner, Franz Liszt and Jean Paul Friedrich Richter. It contains the National theater, opened by Wagner in 1876 for the production of his own works, where the famous musical festivals are held. Music lovers from all over the world flock to Bayreuth so that it has been called the "Mecca of the Wagnerites." Connected with the theatre is a school to train young musicians to take part in the festival performances.

Creation of the principality of. See **GERMANY**: 13th century.

Separation from the electorate of Brandenburg. See **BRANDENBURG**: 1417-1640.

1801-1803.—Ceded to Bavaria by treaty of Lunéville. See **GERMANY**: 1801-1803.

BAZAINE, François Achille (1811-1888), marshal of France. Commander of a brigade in the Crimean War, during which he was made governor of Sevastopol. Commander in the Italian War of 1859, he distinguished himself at Solferino. He was the leader of the Mexican expedition with Maximilian, 1862-1867. As commander of the defeated French armies of the Franco-Prussian War, 1870, he engaged in a series of negotiations which may not have been traitorous. However, he has never been cleared of the accusation of intrigue with the enemy just before his surrender of the fortress of Metz. He was tried for treason and condemned to death, but his sentence was later commuted to a term of twenty years' imprisonment, from which he escaped. See **FRANCE**: 1870 (July-August; August-September; and September-October).

BAZAN, Emilia Pardo (b. 1841), Spanish novelist. See **SPANISH LITERATURE**: 19th-20th century.

BAZANCOURT, village of France south-east of Neufchatel, scene of fighting in 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: j, 6.

BAZENTIN-LE-GRAND, village of France south of Bapaume, captured by the British in 1916. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: d, 7.

BAZENTIN-LE-PETIT, village and wood in France south of Bapaume, captured by the British in 1916. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: d, 4, 6, 7.

BAZOUKS, mounted troops employed by Turks. See **BASHI BOZOUKS**.

BEACHY HEAD, Battle of. See **ENGLAND**: 1680-1696.

BEACONSFIELD, Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of (1804-1881), English statesman and novelist. One of the leaders of the Young England party; from 1845 leader of the Protectionist Tories against Peel. Chancellor of the exchequer and leader of the house 1852, 1858-1859; Chancellor of the exchequer 1866; put through Reform bill of 1867. Premier, 1868, resigned 1868; premier 1874-1880. Plenipotentiary at the Congress of Berlin, 1878.—See also **CANALS**: Asiatic: Suez canal; **ENGLAND**: 1846; 1851-1852; 1858-1859; 1865-1868; 1868-1870; 1873-1880; **SUFFRAGE, WOMAN**: England: 1819-1860; **TURKEY**: 1878.

BEAR FLAG WAR, an insurrection against the Mexican government in California in June, 1846. A small group of settlers from the United States were alarmed by reports, apparently false, that the Mexican prefect was planning to drive out the Americans. They gathered about Captain John C. Frémont, seized some government horses, and captured Sonoma. Under the lead of William B. Ide they founded a new republic. Their flag was a piece of white cotton to the bottom of which was sewed a strip of red flannel. A red star was painted in the upper left-hand corner of the white and to the right of it a bear, and under the star and bear the words "California Republic." The Bear Flag forces under Frémont were about to attack the Mexican forces under Castro when a courier arrived with word that war existed between the United States and Mexico. The American flag was raised and the Bear Flag War was merged in the American operations for the conquest of California.—See also **CALIFORNIA**: 1846-1847.

BEARD, Daniel Carter (1850-), American author and artist, founder of first Boy Scout society, in the United States. See **BOY SCOUTS**.

BEARN, formerly a small frontier province of southern France corresponding nearly to the present department of Basse-Pyrénées. Viscounty in the Middle Ages. Became part of France through Henry of Navarre. Formally incorporated, 1620. See **FRANCE**: 1620-1622.

1032.—Rise of the counts. See **BURGUNDY**: 1032.

1563.—Spread of Protestantism. See **NAVARRE**: 1528-1563.

1685.—Dragonnade.—Revocation of the edict of Nantes. See **FRANCE**: 1681-1698.

BEARS, Stock Market. See **STOCK EXCHANGE**.

BEATON, or Bethune, David (c. 1494-1546), Scottish cardinal and archbishop. See **SCOTLAND**: 1546.

BEATTY, David, 1st earl (1871-), British admiral. Served under Jellicoe at the battle of Jutland, 1916; was later in command of the grand fleet; in 1919 was made admiral of the fleet and raised to the peerage. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: IX. Naval operations: c; 1915: IX. Naval operations: a; 1916: IX. Naval operations: a; a, 7, 9; 1918: IX. Naval operations: h.

BEAUCHAMP, name of a well-known English family, whose most famous branch was the house of Warwick. Henry Beauchamp was created duke of Warwick, 1445. On his death his inheritance passed to his sister Anne, wife of Richard Neville, "the kingmaker" who became Earl of Warwick.

BEAUFORT, a distinguished English family, descendants of John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster and Catherine, wife of Sir Hugh Swynford. The four children of this union took the name of Beaufort from a castle in Anjou which belonged to their father. They were: John who became Earl of

Somerset and Marquess of Dorset; Henry, bishop of Winchester and cardinal; Thomas, duke of Exeter and chancellor; Joan, wife of Ralph Neville, first Earl of West Moreland. At first illegitimate, their legitimacy was confirmed by Richard II in 1397, and by their half brother Henry IV in 1407. Although they were excluded from succession to the throne, nevertheless, they practically ruled England during the first half of the fifteenth century and by intermarriages were connected with the monarchs of England and Scotland. Margaret Beaufort, daughter of John Beaufort, third Earl of Somerset (1403-1444), married Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond, and became the mother of Henry VII.

BEAUFORT, François de Vendôme, Duc de (1616-1669). French commander against Barbary pirates. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1664-1684.

BEAUFORT, seaport of North Carolina, founded in 1670 as Port Royal. In the Civil War it was captured by Union forces. See **NORTH CAROLINA**: 1663-1670; U. S. A.: 1862 (January-April: North Carolina).

BEAUGE, Battle of.—The English commanded by the Duke of Clarence, defeated in Anjou by an army of French and Scots, under the dauphin of France; the Duke of Clarence slain.

BEAUGENCY, town on the Loire, in central France, sixteen miles from Orleans, where Joan of Arc defeated the English in 1429. (See **FRANCE**: 1420-1431). It was destroyed by the Huguenots in 1567, and two centuries later was the scene of the French defeat (Dec., 1870) in the Franco-Prussian War.

BEAUHARNAIS FAMILY, a French family of Orleans nobility, brought into prominence in the nineteenth century.

François, Marquis de Beauharnais, was a member of the estates-general of 1789. A royalist, he served Napoleon as ambassador to Spain and to Etruria.

Alexandre de Beauharnais (1760-1794), brother of François, married Josephine (q. v.) who later became Napoleon's wife and empress. He was a revolutionist member of the estates-general in 1780 and secretary to the commander of the Army of the North in 1793. He was guillotined by the revolutionary tribunal, accused of being responsible for the loss of Mayence. He had two children, Eugène (q. v.) and Hortense who married Napoleon's brother Louis, king of Holland, and became the mother of Napoleon III.

Eugène de Beauharnais (1781-1824), son of the Empress Josephine. Distinguished himself in the military campaigns in Italy and Egypt under Napoleon, who made him viceroy to Italy (see **FRANCE**: 1804-1805) and also heir apparent to the crown of Italy, 1806. Commander of a corps in the Russian campaign, 1812. He had married a Bavarian princess and after Napoleon's downfall retired to Bavaria where he was made a peer.

BEAUHARNOIS CANAL, its extent and location. See **CANALS**: American canals: Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system.

BEAULIEU, Jean Pierre, Baron de (1725-1820), Austrian general. See **FRANCE**: 1796 (April-October).

BEAUMARCHAIS, Pierre Augustin Caron de (1732-1799), leading French dramatist of the eighteenth century, educated to his father's trade of a watchmaker; showed marked ability as a musician and became music-master for the daughters of Louis XV; rose in court favor, assumed the name of Beaumarchais, and acquired a fortune in speculations which ultimately involved him in a number of law-suits; a series of mémoires written during

these court battles were vigorous and witty attacks on the judicial system; gained him wide fame as a pre-revolutionary leader; engaged in secret service of Louis XV and Louis XVI; wrote "Le barbier de Séville," 1775; aided American colonists during the War of Independence; produced "Le mariage de Figaro," 1784; fled to Holland to escape the Terror, but returned to France in 1796 where he died a wealthy man. See also **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1700-1709; U. S. A.: 1776-1778.

BEAUMETZ, village of France north-west of Amiens, attacked by the Germans in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 8.

BEAUMONT, Christophe de (1703-1781), archbishop of Paris, noted for his opposition to the Jansenists. This caused him to clash with the parliament, which was exiled, in 1753. It was later recalled and the archbishop sent into honorable exile (1754). He also condemned Rousseau's writings. See **EDUCATION**: Modern: 18th century: Educational theories of Rousseau; **FRANCE**: 1756-1759.

BEAUMONT, Francis (1584-1616), English dramatist. See **DRAMA**: 1592-1604.

BEAUMONT, a village north of Verdun, the scene of fighting in the Franco-Prussian War and also in the World War. See **FRANCE**: 1870 (August-September); **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: b, 7, 13; 1917: II. Western front: f, 2; 1918: II. Western front: d, 2; x, 5.

BEAUMONT-HAMEL, a village in north-east France, figuring in the World War as a German stronghold in the Somme fighting of 1916 and 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: II. Western front: c, 4; d, 5, 17; e, 2; 1918: II. Western front: g, 7, i.

BEAUNE, a town in eastern France, about twenty-five miles south-west of Dijon. Was the seat of the A. E. F. University, which offered instruction to American soldiers awaiting repatriation after the armistice in the World War.

BEAUREGARD, Pierre Gustav Toutant (1818-1893), Confederate general, graduate of West Point. Engaged in engineering. Served in Mexican War. Superintendent of West Point, November, 1860 to February, 1861. Began the Civil War by bombardment of Fort Sumpter. Assisted in first battle of Bull Run and at Shiloh. See U. S. A.: 1861 (March-April). Defended Charleston 1863. Took command of the department of North Carolina in 1864. Retarded Grant's advance at Petersburg. With Johnston surrendered to Sherman 1865. Adjutant General of Louisiana in 1878.—See also U. S. A.: 1861 (July: Virginia); 1861-1862 (December-April: Virginia); 1862 (February-April: Tennessee); and (April-May: Tennessee-Mississippi); 1863 (August-December: South Carolina); 1864 (May: Virginia): Coöperative movement of Army of the James; 1865 (February-March: The Carolinas).

BEAUREVOIR, a town in northeast France captured by the British in the final allied offensive. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: o, 3.

BEAUSEJOUR, village of France, southwest of Grandpré, scene of fighting in 1915. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: i, 8, v.

BEAUVAIS, Origin of. See **BELGÆ**.

BEAUVOIS, village of France northwest of Arras, attacked by the Germans in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 9.

BEBEL, Ferdinand August (1840-1913), leader of Social-Democratic party in Germany. See **SOCIALISM**: 1869-1912.

BEBRYKIANS, Thracian race. See **BITHYNIANS**.

BEC, Abbey of.—One of the most famous abbeys and ecclesiastical schools of the Middle

Ages. Its name was derived from the little beck or rivulet of a valley in Normandy, on the banks of which a pious knight, Herlouin, retiring from the world, had fixed his hermitage. The renown of the piety of Herlouin drew others around him and resulted in the formation of a religious community with himself at its head. Among those attracted to Herlouin's retreat were a noble Lombard scholar, Lanfranc of Pavia, who afterwards became the great Norman archbishop of Canterbury, and Anselm of Aosta, another Italian, who succeeded Lanfranc at Canterbury with still more fame. The teaching of Lanfranc at Bec raised it, says Mr. Green in his *Short history of the English people*, into the most famous school of Christendom; it was, in fact, the first wave of the intellectual movement which was spreading from Italy to the ruder countries of the west. The fabric of the canon law and of medieval scholasticism, with the philosophical skepticism which first awoke under its influence, all trace their origin to Bec. "The glory of Bec would have been as transitory as that of other monastic houses, but for the appearance of one illustrious man [Lanfranc] who came to be enrolled as a private member of the brotherhood, and who gave Bec for a while a special and honorable character with which hardly any other monastery in Christendom could compare."—E. A. Freeman, *Norman conquest*.

BECCARIA-BONESANA, Cesare, Marchese di (1735-1794), Italian economist, philanthropist, jurist, professor at Milan. One of the first to oppose the death penalty. Wrote "on Crimes and Punishments" 1764. Chief founder of the classical school of criminology, insisting that no punishment should be greater than the crime warranted and that all men should be equal in the eyes of the law.—See also CRIME AND CRIMINOLOGY: Outline of criminological theories; PRISON REFORM: Howard and Beccaria.

BECHUANALAND, a region of South Africa, west of the Transvaal; British possession since 1885. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation; 1884-1899; Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1909.

BECHUANAS, Tribe. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: Aboriginal inhabitants.

BECKET, Thomas à, (1118-1170), also known as Thomas of London, archbishop of Canterbury. He was chancellor of Henry II in 1155, and while still a deacon was unexpectedly appointed to the highest ecclesiastical office—the archbishopric of Canterbury. He stoutly upheld the rights of the church against the king, was charged with treason and fled to Rome. He was reinstated by the pope and returned to England. Within a month after his return he was murdered before the altar in Canterbury Cathedral by four knights in whose presence the king had petulantly exclaimed, "Is there none who will rid me of this turbulent priest?"—See also CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1066-1534; ENGLAND: 1162-1170.

BECKMAN, J. C. W., governor of Kentucky, involved in election dispute. See KENTUCKY: 1895-1900.

BECQUEREL, Antoine César (1788-1878), French physicist. Noted for his discoveries in electricity and in electro-chemistry; the result of his investigations of the laws governing the production of electricity by chemical action led to the overthrow of Volta's theory of contact; in the field of physiological chemistry he investigated methods of determining the internal temperature of human and animal bodies, demonstrating a simultaneous development of heat with the contraction of the muscles. He was elected to the Paris Academy of

Sciences and in 1837 to the Royal Society of London at the same time receiving the Copley medal for his work in electro-chemistry.

BECQUEREL, Antoine Henri (1852-1908), French physicist. Distinguished for the discovery of radioactivity, observing in 1896, that uranium at ordinary temperature emits rays which could affect a photographic plate even after passing through thin plates of metal. They have been named Becquerel rays in his honor. For his work, he was awarded the Rumford medal of the Royal Society of England and in 1903, the Nobel prize for physics was divided between him and Monsieur and Madame Curie who also made important discoveries in this field (see NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1903). He also did much important work on optical subjects, such as the rotation of polarized light by a magnetic field, phosphorescence, and spectroscopic studies.—See also CHEMISTRY: Radioactivity: Baquerel rays.

BED OF JUSTICE.—"The ceremony by which the French kings compelled the registration of their edicts by the Parliament was called a 'lit de justice' [bed of justice]. The monarch proceeded in state to the Grand Chambre, and the chancellor, having taken his pleasure, announced that the king required such and such a decree to be entered on their records in his presence. It was held that this personal interference of the sovereign suspended for the time being the functions of all inferior magistrates, and the edict was accordingly registered without a word of objection. The form of registration was as follows: 'Le roi séant en son lit de justice a ordonné et ordonne que les présents édits seront enregistrés;' and at the end of the decree, 'Fait en Parlement, le roi y séant en son lit de justice.'"—*Students' history of France, note to ch. 10*.—See also PARLIAMENT OF PARIS.—"The origin of this term ['bed of justice'] has been much discussed. The wits complained it was so styled because there justice was put to sleep. The term was probably derived from the arrangement of the throne on which the king sat. The back and sides were made of bolsters and it was called a bed."—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin, v. 1, p. 388, foot-note*.—An elaborate and entertaining account of a notable bed of justice held under the regency, in the early part of the reign of Louis XV, will be found in the *Memoirs of the Duke de Saint Simon*, abridged translation of James Augustus St. John, v. 4, ch. 5-7.

BEDAWI, Arabian nomads. See ARABIA.

BED-CHAMBER QUESTION. See ENGLAND: 1837-1839.

BEDE, or Beda or Baeda, often called "The Venerable" (c. 673-735), English ecclesiastic and scholar. "He gathered to himself and summed up much that was best in the various streams of culture that met in the England of that day. . . . The treatise *De Natura Rerum*, long used as a text-book in the mediæval schools, shows him to have mastered the entire range of the science of that day. His commentaries on the Bible furnished the material for later work; his *Lives of the Saints* associate him with the beginning of biographical literature in Europe, his great work on the Ecclesiastical History of the English People, still the chief authority for the period of which it treats, has gained for him the title of the 'Father of English History.' . . . His last labor was an English translation of the Gospel of St. John. . . . We trace his influence in the foundation of the Great School at York."—H. S. Pancoast, *Introduction to English literature, p. 40*.—See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries; CHRISTIANITY: 597-

800; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-11th centuries; HISTORY: 19.

BEDFORD, John Plantagenet, Duke of (1389-1435), third son of Henry IV, king of England. He assumed the regency of France on the death of Henry V and also guardianship of his kingdom; prosecuted the war in France; secured the coronation of Henry VI at Paris. See also ENGLAND: 1422-1455; FRANCE: 1429-1431.

BEDOUNS, or **Bedawi**, Arabian nomads. See ARABIA.

BEDR, Battle of. See MOHAMMEDANISM: 609-632.

BEDRIACUM, Battles of. See ROME: Empire: 60.

BEECHER, Catherine Esther (1800-1878), American philanthropist, devoted to the advancement of woman's education. See WOMEN'S RIGHTS: 1644-1852.

BEECHER, Henry Ward (1813-1887), a great pulpit orator of Puritan ancestry; graduate of Amherst; pastor of Plymouth Church, Brooklyn, nearly forty years. Preached to very large audiences. Prominent antislavery leader and lecturer on other public questions. Urged the sending of Sharpe's rifles to antislavery men in Kansas as more effective than bibles, hence the phrase "Beecher's bibles." Was sympathetic with the doctrines of evolution and the higher criticism. Influential during the Civil War in addressing audiences in England where he won over to the side of the Union many who had sympathized with the South. Supported Grover Cleveland for president, 1884.

BEEF EATERS. Certain palace attendants on the English sovereign whose duty is to carry up the royal dinner. See WOMEN OF THE GUARD.

BEEF STEAK CLUB. See CLUBS: BEEF STEAK.

"BEEF TRUST," Investigations and prosecutions by the United States government. See TRUSTS: 1903-1906; 1910-1912.

BEER-LATH, Battle of (B.C. 161). See JEWS: B.C. 166-40.

BEERNAERT, Auguste (1820-1912), Belgian statesman. See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1900.

BEERSHEBA, a village in the southern part of Palestine often mentioned in the Bible as a holy place. On October 31, 1917, the British general Allenby captured the village, which had formed the key of the Turkish position. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 2; c, 2, ii; 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 9.

BEER-ZATH, Battle of.—The field on which the great Jewish soldier and patriot, Judas Maccabæus, having but 800 men with him, was beset by an army of the Syrians and slain, 161 B.C.—Josephus, *Antiquity of the Jews*, bk. 12, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: H. Ewald, *History of Israel*, bk. 5, sect. 2.

BEEF SUGAR.—"In 1747 the chemist Margraf, after analysis of numerous plants, predicted that beet roots of the same species as the common garden variety would ultimately become the great source of sugar. Based on Margraf's investigations, Achard succeeded in recovering the carbohydrate . . . of the beet in a palatable form. This took place in 1797. A few years later, factories were established in Germany, also in France where the industry received the special attention and encouragement of the great Napoleon. Within a hundred years sugar developed from a luxury of the rich to a common necessity for all. It appears that the per capita consumption of sugar is accordingly large or small, dependent on a

country's degree of advancement. For instance, Italy and Turkey average 7 pounds per capita; Russia, 14 pounds; Germany, 34 pounds; France, 37 pounds; England, 67 pounds; America, 88 pounds. Only in the United States has the production of sugar been backward. We produce less than 20% of what we consume. The money value of sugar amounts to more than one billion dollars yearly."—L. S. Weatherby, *Introduction (Sugar by A. R. Kahn)*.—In 1884 the American consul at Brussels (J. Wilson) commented on the magnitude of the beet sugar manufacture on the continent and the lack of progress in this industry in the United States. "There are now no less than 875,000 hectares, or about 2,000,000 acres of land devoted to the culture of this beet in France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia-Poland, Belgium and Holland, distributed amongst these countries in the following proportions, viz.: In France 220,000 hectares; in Germany 210,000; Austria-Hungary, 200,000; in Russia-Poland, 180,000; in Belgium and Holland, 65,000 hectares."—*Beet sugar industry (Special Consular Reports, 1891)*.—"As recently as 1866 was the first beet root sugar plant erected in our country—this in Wisconsin. In 1870 California people induced its owners to remove it to Alvarado, California, near San Francisco, where it is still [1920] in operation. Up to 1875 it remained a failure when an American by name of Dyer took hold and successfully operated it. The second successfully operated plant was erected by Claus Spreckels in 1888 at Watsonville [Salinas.—Ed.], California. The third successful mill was built by the Oxnards in 1890. In 1898 the Clarks erected a mill at Los Alamitos, California, near Los Angeles, in a locality where the soil was filled with alkali and upon which no crops could apparently be profitably grown. This plant paid for itself in five years despite all drawbacks. The rise of the beet sugar industry in other sections of the country has been equally marked. The chief centers of beet sugar manufacture in the United States are: California, Idaho, Utah, Colorado, Wyoming, Wisconsin, Iowa, Michigan."—L. S. Weatherby, *Introduction (Sugar by A. R. Kahn)*.—See also SUGAR BOUNTIES.

BEETHOVEN, Ludwig van (1770-1827), German composer and supreme master of instrumental music. Studied with Van den Eeden, Neefe, and Haydn; his works marked the culmination of the classical school and opened the doors to the romantic; first period comprises works bearing opus numbers one to fifty; reached climax, of his second and most prolific period, in the opera "Fidelio," and the "Symphony in A"; to the third period belong the greatest works of his career: the "9th Symphony," the "Mass in D," and the last "Pianoforte Sonata" (Op. III). These works are characterized by colossal archtonic outline, minutest elaboration of detail, and rhythm giving thematic life to an inner part without distracting attention from the melodic flow of the surface.—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1650-1827; Later 18th century.

BEG.—A Turkish title, signifying prince or lord; whence, also, Bey. See BEY.

BEGGARS (Gueux) of the Netherlands revolt. See NETHERLANDS: 1562-1566.

BEGGARS OF THE SEA. See NETHERLANDS: 1572.

BEGGING FRIARS. See FRANCISCAN FRIARS; MONASTICISM: 11th-13th centuries.

BEGUINES, Beghines or Beghards.—Weaving brothers.—Lollards.—Brethren of the Free Spirit.—Fratricelli.—Bizochi.—Turlupins.—"In the year 1180 there lived in Liege a certain kindly,

stammering priest, known from his infirmity as Lambert le Bègue. This man took pity on the destitute widows of the town. Despite the impediment in his speech, he was, as often happens, a man of a certain power and eloquence in preaching. . . . This Lambert so moved the hearts of his hearers that gold and silver poured in on him, given to relieve such of the destitute women of Liege as were still of good and pious life. With the moneys thus collected, Lambert built a little square of cottages, with a church in the middle and a hospital, and at the side a cemetery. Here he housed these homeless widows, one or two in each little house, and then he drew up a half monastic rule which was to guide their lives. The rule was very simple, quite informal: no vows, no great renunciation bound the 'Swestrones Brod durch Got.' A certain time of the day was set apart for prayer and pious meditation; the other hours they spent in spinning or sewing, in keeping their houses clean, or they went as nurses in time of sickness into the homes of the townspeople. . . . Thus these women, though pious and sequestered, were still in the world and of the world. . . . Soon we find the name 'Swestrones Brod durch Got' set aside for the more usual title of Beguines or Beghines. Different authorities give different origins of this word. . . . Some have thought it was taken in memory of the founder, the charitable Lambert le Bègue. Others think that, even as the Mystics or Mutterers, the Lollards or Hummers, the Popelhardts or Babblers, so the Beguines or Stammerers were thus nicknamed from their continual murmuring in prayer. This is plausible; but not so plausible as the suggestion of Dr. Mosheim and M. Auguste Jundt, who derive the word Beguine from the Flemish word 'beggen,' to beg. For we know that these pious women had been veritable beggars; and beggars should they again become. With surprising swiftness the new order spread through the Netherlands and into France and Germany. . . . Lambert may have lived to see a beguinage in every great town within his ken; but we hear no more of him. The Beguines are no longer for Liege, but for all the world. Each city possessed its quiet congregation; and at any sick-bed you might meet a woman clad in a simple smock and a great veil-like mantle, who lived only to pray and do deeds of mercy. . . . The success of the Beguines had made them an example. . . . Before St. Francis and St. Dominic instituted the mendicant orders, there had silently grown up in every town of the Netherlands a spirit of fraternity, not imposed by any rule, but the natural impulse of a people. The weavers seated all day long at their rattling looms, the armourers beating out their thoughts in iron, the cross-legged tailors and busy cobblers thinking and stitching together—these men silent, pious, thoughtful, joined themselves in a fraternity modelled on that of the Beguines. They were called the Weaving Brothers. Bound by no vows and fettered by no rule, they still lived the worldly life and plied their trade for hire. Only in their leisure they met together and prayed and dreamed and thought. . . . Such were the founders of the great fraternity of 'Fratres Textores' or Beghards as in later years the people more generally called them."—A. M. F. Robinson, *End of the middle ages*, I.—"The Lollards differed from the Beghards less in reality than in name. We are informed respecting them that, at their origin in Antwerp, shortly after 1300, they associated together for the purpose of waiting upon patients dangerously sick, and burying the dead. . . . Very early, however, an element of a different kind be-

gan to work in those fellowships. Even about the close of the 13th century irregularities and extravagances are laid to their charge. . . . The charges brought against the later Beghards and Lollards, in connection, on the one hand, with the fanatical Franciscans, who were violently contending with the Church, and on the other, with the Brethren and Sisters of the Free Spirit, relate to three particulars, viz., an aversion to all useful industry, conjoined with a propensity to mendicancy and idleness, an intemperate spirit of opposition to the Church, and a skeptical and more or less pantheistical mysticism. . . . They . . . declared that the time of Antichrist was come, and on all hands endeavoured to embroil the people with their spiritual guides. Their own professed object was to restore the pure primeval state, the divine life of freedom, innocence, and nature. The idea they formed of that state was, that man, being in and of himself one with God, requires only to act in the consciousness of this unity, and to follow unrestrained the divinely implanted impulses and inclinations of his nature, in order to be good and godly."—C. Ullmann, *Reformers before the Reformation*, v. 2, pp. 14-16.—"The names of beghards and beguines came not unnaturally to be used for devotees who, without being members of any regular monastic society, made a profession of religious strictness; and thus the applications of the names to some kinds of sectaries was easy—more especially as many of these found it convenient to assume the outward appearance of beghards, in the hope of disguising their differences from the church. But on the other hand, this drew on the orthodox beghards frequent persecutions, and many of them, for the sake of safety, were glad to connect themselves as tertiaries with the great mendicant orders. . . . In the 14th century, the popes dealt hardly with the beghards; yet orthodox societies under this name still remained in Germany; and in Belgium, the country of their origin, sisterhoods of beguines flourish to the present day. . . . Matthias of Janow, the Bohemian reformer, in the end of the 14th century, says that all who act differently from the profane vulgar are called beghardi or turlupini, or by other blasphemous names. . . . Among those who were confounded with the beghards—partly because, like them, they abounded along the Rhine—were the brethren and sisters of the Free Spirit. These appear in various places under various names. They wore a peculiarly simple dress, professed to give themselves to contemplation, and, holding that labour is a hindrance to contemplation and to the elevation of the soul to God, they lived by beggary. Their doctrines were mystical and almost pantheistic. . . . The brethren and sisters of the Free Spirit were much persecuted, and probably formed a large proportion of those who were burnt under the name of beghards."—J. C. Robertson, *History of Christian church*, v. 6, bk. 7, ch. 7.—"Near the close of this century [the 13th] originated in Italy the Fratricelli and Bizochi, parties that in Germany and France were denominated Beguards; and which, first Boniface VIII., and afterwards other pontiffs condemned, and wished to see persecuted by the Inquisition and exterminated in every possible way. The Fratricelli, who also called themselves in Latin 'Fratres parvi' (Little Brethren), or 'Fratriculi de paupere vita' (Little Brothers of the Poor Life), were Franciscan monks, but detached from the great family of Franciscans; who wished to observe the regulations prescribed by their founder St. Francis more perfectly than the others, and therefore possessed no property, either individually or collec-

tively, but obtained their necessary food from day to day by begging. . . . They predicted a reformation and purification of the church. . . . They extolled Celestine V. as the legal founder of their sect; but Boniface and the succeeding pontiffs, who opposed the Fratricelli, they denied to be true pontiffs. As the great Franciscan family had its associates and dependents, who observed the third rule prescribed by St. Francis [which required only certain pious observances, such as fasts, prayers, continence, a coarse, cheap dress, gravity of manners, &c., but did not prohibit private property, marriage, public offices, and worldly occupations], and who were usually called Tertiarii, so also the sect of the Fratricelli . . . had numerous Tertiarii of its own. These were called, in Italy, Bizochi and Bocasoti; in France Beguini; and in Germany Beghardi, by which name all the Tertiarii were commonly designated. These differed from the Fratricelli . . . only in their mode of life. The Fratricelli were real monks, living under the rule of St. Francis; but the Bizochi or Beguini lived in the manner of other people. . . . Totally different from these austere Beguini and Beguinae, were the German and Belgic Beguinae, who did not indeed originate in this century, but now first came into notice. . . . Concerning the Turlupins, many have written; but none accurately. . . . The origin of the name, I know not; but I am able to prove from substantial documents, that the Turlupins who were burned at Paris, and in other parts of France were no other than the Brethren of the Free Spirit whom the pontiffs and councils condemned."—J. L. Von Mosheim, *Institutes of ecclesiastical history*, bk. 3, century 13, pt. 2, ch. 2, sect. 39-41, and ch. 5, sect. 9, foot-note.—See also BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT; PICARDS.

ALSO IN: L. Mariotti (A. Gallenga), *Fra Dolcino and his times*.

BEGUMS OF OUDEH, a title applied to women of high rank in India; became well-known on account of their charges against Warren Hastings. See INDIA: 1773-1785.

BEHAGNIES, village of France south of Arras taken by the British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 18; k, 2.

BEHAIM, Martin (1436?-1507), navigator and cosmographer, born at Nuremberg, lived in Lisbon and at Fayal in the Azores. That he influenced Columbus is doubted by scholars. Constructed a globe in Nuremberg in 1492, which was based on the theory of a round earth, but which was very inaccurate as to West Africa.

BEHISTUN, Rock of.—"This remarkable spot, lying on the direct route between Babylon and Ecbatana, and presenting the unusual combination of a copious fountain, a rich plain and a rock suitable for sculpture, must have early attracted the attention of the great monarchs who marched their armies through the Zagros range, as a place where they might conveniently set up memorials of their exploits. . . . The tablet and inscriptions of Darius, which have made Behistun famous in modern times, are in a recess to the right of the scarped face of the rock, and at a considerable elevation."—G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Media*, ch. 1.—The mountain or rock of Behistun fixes the location of the district known to the Greeks as Bagistana. "It lies southwest of Elvend, between that mountain and the Zagrus in the valley of the Choaspes, and is the district now known as Kirmenshah."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 8, ch. 1.—See also PHILLOLOGY: 13.

BEHOBEHO, town of East Africa occupied by the Germans in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 23.

BEHRING, Emil Adolf von (1854-), German physician, discoverer of diphtheria antitoxin. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1901.

BEHRING SEA. See BERING SEA QUESTION.

BEILISS CASE, trial for ritual murder, of Mendel Beiliss, a Jewish resident in Kiev, Ukraine, Russia. The discovery of the body of Andrew Yushinski, a schoolboy of thirteen, near the brickyard where Beiliss worked, led to his accusation of the murder, supposed to have been committed for the purpose of obtaining blood to be used by the Jews in their religious passover ceremonies. This accusation was followed by propaganda against the Jews on the part of reactionaries in the antisemitic press and in the Duma. The controversy which arose between the Jews, supported by the liberal press and the enlightened element of the Duma and the Russian people on the one hand, and the various Russian reactionary organizations on the other, lasted over two years. Meanwhile Beiliss was imprisoned and kept in confinement. Due to lack of evidence he was finally acquitted on November 11, 1913, but the "blood accusation" against the Jews was maintained, despite thousands of protests made by Jewish rabbis and prominent citizens and scholars in Russia, as well as by many institutions of learning and by distinguished scholars and statesmen of Europe and the United States. The result was a number of antisemitic outbreaks.—See also JEWS: Russia: 1817-1913; and RUSSIA: 1913.

BEIRUT, or Beyrout (ancient name Berytus q.v.), the most important seaport town of a vilayet of the same name in Syria, on St. George bay (see ARARIA: May); one of the most ancient settlements on the Phœnician coast. Earliest history relates that the town was destroyed by Tryphon in 140 B.C. It soon passed into the hands of the Romans and stayed under their rule until 635 when the Arabs captured it. Baldwin reclaimed the city for Christendom in 1111 (see CRUSADES: 1104-1111). Beirut dwindled in importance, when, for a number of centuries, it became the bone of contention between Saracens, Crusaders, and Turks. (See also TURKEY: 1831-1840). The town has developed since a number of French companies have constructed railways leading to Damascus (1895) and Aleppo (1907) and improved its harbor facilities. Beirut was one of the last of the Turkish towns to fall, in General Allenby's advance during the latter part of the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 13; c, 23.

BEISSEL, Johann Conrad (1600-1768), German mystic, founder of the Dunkards. See DUNKARDS.

BEIT, Alfred (1853-1906), British South African financier associated with Cecil Rhodes. See CAPITALISM: 19th century: Capital empire building; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1895-1896; 1897 (February-July).

BEL, Temple of: Exploration of its ruins at Nippur. See BABYLONIA.

BELA I, king of Hungary, 1060-1063.

Bela II, king of Hungary, 1131-1141.

Bela III (d. 1196), Hungarian king of the dynasty of Arpád. Placed by force on the Hungarian throne by Emperor Manuel (1173); adopted Catholicism and sought the assistance of the pope. By crowning his infant son successor he made the hitherto elective throne hereditary. He was only partly successful in his wars to recover Dalmatia but succeeded in assisting the Serbs to throw off the Greek yoke and to establish a native dynasty. See BOSNIA: 12th century; and HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

Bela IV (1206-1270), king of Hungary, 1235-1270. Humiliated the nobles and restored the dignity of the royal power. The great Tatar invasion which reduced three-quarters of Hungary to ashes, occurred during this period. Bela was defeated, and fled and for twelve months Hungary was at the mercy of the Tatar. The last years of his reign were spent in the reconstruction of his kingdom. He repelled a second Mongol invasion. See HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

BELA KUN, or **Kuhn**, Bolshevik dictator of Hungary from March to August, 1919. See HUNGARY: 1918-1919 (December-March); 1919 (March); 1919-1920.

BELASCO, **David** (1859-), American dramatist and theater manager. See DRAMA: 1865-1913.

BELASHITZA MOUNTAINS, a range in south-western Bulgaria attacked by Greek and British forces in the final Balkan offensive of the Allies in 1918.

BELCHER, **Sir Edward** (1799-1877), British admiral and explorer. Commanded search expedition for Sir John Franklin. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1852-1854.

BELCHITE, **Battle of**. See SPAIN: 1809 (February-June).

BELERION, or **Bolerium**, the Roman name of Land's End, England. See BRITAIN: Celtic Tribes.

BELFAST, a city, county and parliamentary borough; county town of county Antrim, Ireland, capital of the province of Ulster. It is a railway center and a seaport of the first rank, and the most important commercial and manufacturing city in Ireland; stands on both sides of the Lagan river, twelve miles from the Irish sea on the north-eastern coast. The flat part of the city is reclaimed marshland. Compared with Dublin in point of age it is a modern town. As late as 1586 it was not mentioned in lists of villages and counties, and a map printed in 1660 gives only five streets and five rows with 150 houses. The prosperity of the city is due to the linen manufactures (dating from 1637), flour mills, ship-yards, iron foundries and distilleries. Belfast has an area of 16,594 acres and an estimated population in 1917 of 393,000.—See also IRELAND: Historical map.

The nucleus of the town was a castle, which was built about 1177, destroyed by Edward Bruce in 1316, rebuilt and finally destroyed in 1708. Early in the sixteenth century, the place with its castle, the fortress of Carrickfergus, and the country which they dominated were granted to the O'Neills of Clandeboye, but in 1571, as a consequence of the O'Neill rising, the town and castle were granted by Queen Elizabeth to Sir Thomas Smith, who later forfeited them to the deputy, Sir Arthur Chichester. In 1613, the town was incorporated as a borough with a parliamentary representation of two members, although it had but twelve burgesses. In 1688, James II gave a new charter, but in 1690 this was annulled by William III, and the old one restored. Long prior to the reign of James II, however, and especially under the rule of Strafford, in the reign of Charles I, Belfast had become a place of some importance, though still very small. In the early part of the parliamentary war, it sided with Parliament, but later became a strong royalist center. During this time it was fortified with a rampart, which afterwards disappeared. In the course of the eighteenth century, Belfast, aided by its manufactures, progressed rapidly, surpassing most of the other Irish towns. Although it was here that the Society of United Irishmen was founded in 1791 (see ULSTER: 1791-1797), it was little troubled by civil disturbances, and by 1800

ranked as the richest town in the North of Ireland. In 1830, its prosperity received a great impetus by the introduction of linen weaving machinery. In 1880 it became a municipality; in 1888 was incorporated as a city, and by the Local Government (of Ireland) Act of 1898 became the county of the city of Belfast. In 1892 a great convention was held to protest against the Home Rule Act about to be proposed by Gladstone. (See ULSTER: 1892.) In 1908 Queen's College, which was founded in 1849, became Queen's University. The shipping industry dates from 1791, when it was introduced by William Ritchie, a Scotchman. Before the introduction of linen weaving machinery, when the linen trade could not cope with machine-made cotton goods, the shipyards saved the threatened prosperity of the city, and since that time have made it a shipbuilding center of great importance. As the capital of Ulster, and the seat of the new government, Belfast suffered greatly during the disturbances of 1920 to 1922, and for some time constant internal warfare was carried on both by sympathisers with the Irish Free State and by the proponents of a republic in Ireland.

BELFAST, **Battle of** (1900). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (June-December).

BELFORT, a fortress of great strategic importance in eastern France, close to the borders of Alsace and Switzerland. Belfort guards that entrance to France through the valley between the Vosges and Jura mountains known as the "Burgundian Gates." The treaty of Westphalia, 1648, ceded the district to Louis XIV who bestowed it upon Cardinal Mazarin. Belfort was twice besieged during the Thirty Years' War and twice in the war of 1814-1815. It was heroically and successfully defended in the Franco-Prussian conflict when it was besieged from November 4, 1870, to February 15, 1871, only surrendering, with the honors of war, when the armistice went into effect. See FRANCE: 1870-1871; 1871 (January-May).

BELGÆ.—"This Belgian confederation included the people of all the country north of the Seine and Marne, bounded by the Atlantic on the west and the Rhine on the north and east, except the Mediomatrici and Treviri. . . . The old divisions of France before the great revolution of 1789 corresponded in some degree to the divisions of the country in the time of Cæsar, and the names of the people are still retained with little alteration in the names of the chief towns or the names of the ante-revolutionary divisions of France. In the country of the Remi between the Marne and the Aisne there is the town of Reims. In the territory of the Suessiones between the Marne and the Aisne there is Soissons on the Aisne. The Belovaci were west of the Oise (Isara), a branch of the Seine: their chief town, which at some time received the name of Cæsaromagus, is now Beauvais. The Nervii were between and on the Sambre and the Schelde. The Atrebatæ were north of the Belovaci between the Somme and the upper Schelde: their chief place was Nemetacum or Nemetocenna, now Arras in the old division of Artois. The Ambiani were on the Somme (Samara): their name is represented by Amiens (Samarobriua). The Morini, or sea-coast men, extended from Boulogne towards Dunkerque. The Menapii bordered on the northern Morini and were on both sides of the lower Rhine (B. G. iv., 4). The Caleti were north of the lower Seine along the coast in the Pays de Caux. The Velocasses were east of the Caleti on the north side of the Seine as far as the Oise; their chief town was Rotomagus (Rouen) and their country was afterwards Vexin Normand and Vexin Français. The

Veromandui were north of the Suessiones: their chief town under the Roman dominion, Augusta Veromanduorum, is now St. Quentin. The Aduatuci were on the lower Maas. The Condrusi and the others included under the name of Germani were on the Maas, or between the Maas and the Rhine. The Eburones had the country about Tongern and Spa, and were the immediate neighbours of the Menapii on the Rhine."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 3.—"Cæsar . . . informs us that, in their own estimation, they [the Belgæ] were principally descended from a German stock, the offspring of some early migration across the Rhine. . . . Strabo . . . by no means concurred in Cæsar's view of the origin of this . . . race, which he believed to be Gaulish and not German, though differing widely from the Galli, or Gauls of the central region."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 5.—See also GAUL: Cæsar's description.

ALSO IN: E. Guest, *Origines Celticæ*, v. 1, ch. 13. B. C. 57.—Cæsar's campaign against the confederacy.—In the second year of Cæsar's command in Gaul, 57 B. C., he led his legions against the Belgæ, whom he characterized in his commentaries as the bravest of all the people of Gaul. The many tribes of the Belgian country had joined themselves in a great league to oppose the advancing Roman power, and were able to bring into the field no less than 200,000 men. The tribe of the Remi alone refused to join the confederacy and placed themselves on the Roman side. Cæsar who had quartered his army during the winter in the country of the Sequani, marched boldly, with eight legions, into the midst of these swarming enemies. In his first encounter with them on the banks of the Aisne, the Belgic barbarians were terribly cut to pieces and were so disheartened that tribe after tribe made submission to the proconsul as he advanced. But the Nervii, who boasted a Germanic descent, together with the Aduatuci, the Atrebatas and the Veromandui, rallied their forces for a struggle to the death. The Nervii succeeded in surprising the Romans, while the latter were preparing their camp on the banks of the Sambre, and very nearly swept Cæsar and his veterans off the field, by their furious and tremendous charge. But the energy and personal influence of the one, with the steady discipline of the other, prevailed in the end over the untrained valour of the Nervii, and the proud nation was not only defeated but annihilated. "Their eulogy is preserved in the written testimony of their conqueror; and the Romans long remembered, and never failed to signalize their formidable valour. But this recollection of their ancient prowess became from that day the principal monument of their name and history, for the defeat they now sustained well nigh annihilated the nation. Their combatants were cut off almost to a man. The elders and the women, who had been left in secure retreats, came forth of their own accord to solicit the conqueror's clemency. . . . 'Of 600 senators,' they said, 'we have lost all but three; of 60,000 fighting men 500 only remain,' Cæsar treated the survivors with compassion."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 7.—See also GAUL: B. C. 58-51.

ALSO IN: Julius Cæsar, *Galic wars*, bk. 2.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 3.—Napoleon III., *History of Cæsar*, bk. 3, ch. 5.

BELGÆ OF BRITAIN.—Supposed to be a colony from the Belgæ of the continent. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

BELGIAN COMMISSION TO THE UNITED STATES, a body sent to lay before the American government the facts regarding the

violation of Belgian neutrality by Germany in 1914. See BELGIUM: 1914.

BELGIAN CONFEDERATION. See BELGÆ. **BELGIAN CONGO.**—1876-1890.—Origin.—"Since Leopold II.'s accession to the throne his great object has been to secure colonial possessions to Belgium for her excess of population and production. To this end he founded, in October, 1876, with the aid of eminent African explorers, the International African Association. Its object was to form committees in several countries, with a view to the collection of funds, and to the establishment of a chain of stations across Africa, passing by Lake Tanganyika, to assist future explorers. Accordingly committees were formed, whose presidents were as follows: in England, the Prince of Wales [Edward VII]; in Germany the Crown Prince [Emperor Frederick III]; in Italy the King's brother; in France, M. de Lesseps; and in Belgium, King Leopold. Sums of money were subscribed, and stations were opened from Bagamoyo (just south of Zanzibar) to Lake Tanganyika; but when toward the close of 1877, Stanley reappeared on the Atlantic coast and revealed the immense length of the marvelous Congo River, King Leopold at once turned his attention in that direction. That he might not put himself forward prematurely, he acted under cover of an association and a committee of exploration, which were in reality formed and entirely supported by the King's energy and by the large sums of money that he lavished upon them. Through this association King Leopold maintained Stanley for five years on the Congo. During this time a road was made from the coast to Stanley Pool, where the navigable portion of the Upper Congo commences; and thus was formed the basis of the future empire. During this period Stanley signed no less than four thousand treaties or concessions of territory, on which upward of two thousand chiefs had placed their marks in sign of adhesion. At a cost of many months of transportation, necessitating the employment of thousands of porters, light steamers were placed on the upper river which was explored as far as Stanley Falls. Its numerous tributaries also were followed up as far as the rapids that interrupt their courses. Many young Belgian officers and other adventurous explorers established themselves on the banks of the Congo and the adjoining river, the Kouliou, and founded a series of stations, each occupied by one or two Europeans and by a few soldiers from Zanzibar. In this way the country was insensibly taken possession of in the most pacific manner, without a struggle and with no bloodshed whatever; for the natives, who are of a very gentle disposition, offered no resistance. The Senate of the United States, which was called upon, in 1884, to give an opinion on the rights of the African Association, made a careful examination of the matter, and recognized the legality of the claims and title deeds submitted to them. A little later, in order to mark the formation of a state, the Congo Association adopted as its flag a gold star on a blue ground. A French lawyer, M. Deloume, in a very well-written pamphlet entitled 'Le Droit des Gens dans l'Afrique Equatoriale,' has proved that this proceeding was not only legitimate, but necessary. The embryo state, however, lacked one essential thing, namely, recognition by the civilized powers. It existed only as a private association, or, as a hostile publicist expressed it, as 'a state in shares, indulging in pretensions of sovereignty.' Great difficulties stood in the way of realizing this essential condition. Disputes, on the one hand with France and on the other with Portugal, appeared inevitable. . . . King

Leopold did not lose heart. In 1882 he obtained from the French government an assurance that, while maintaining its rights to the north of Stanley Pool, it would give support to the International Association of the Congo. With Portugal it seemed very difficult to come to an understanding. . . . Prince Bismarck took part in the matter, and in the German Parliament praised highly the work of the African Association. In April, 1884, he proposed to France to come to an understanding, and to settle all difficulties by general agreement. From this proposition sprang the famous Berlin conference (see BERLIN ACT) the remarkable decisions of which we shall mention later. At the same time, before the conference opened, Germany signed an agreement with the International Association of the Congo, in which she agreed to recognize its flag as that of a state, in exchange for an assurance that her trade should be free, and that German subjects should enjoy all the privileges of the most favored nations. Similar agreements were entered upon with nearly all the other countries of the globe. The delegates of the Association were accepted at the conference on the same footing as those of the different states that were represented there, and on February 26, the day on which the act was signed, Bismarck expressed himself as follows: 'The new State of the Congo is destined to be one of the chief safe-guards of the work we have in view, and I sincerely trust that its development will fulfill the noble aspirations of its august founder.' Thus the Congo International Association, hitherto only a private enterprise, seemed now to be recognized as a sovereign state, without having, however, as yet assumed the title. But where were the limits of its territory? . . . Thanks to the interference of France, after prolonged negotiations an understanding was arrived at on February 15, 1885, by which both parties were satisfied. They agreed that Portugal should take possession of the southern bank of the Congo, up to its junction with the little stream Uango, above Nokki, and also of the district of Kabinda forming a wedge that extends into the French territory on the Atlantic Ocean. The International Congo Association—for such was still its title—was to have access to the sea by a strip of land extending from Manyanga (west of Leopoldville) to the ocean, north of Banana, and comprising in addition to this port, Boma and the important station of Vivi. These treaties granted the association 931,285 square miles of territory, that is to say, a domain eighty times the size of Belgium, with more than 7,500 miles of navigable rivers. The limits fixed were, on the west, the Kuango, an important tributary of the Congo; on the south, the sources of the Zambesi; on the east, the Lakes Bangweolo, Moero, and Tanganyika, and a line passing through Lake Albert Edward to the river Ouelle [Welle]; on the north, a line following the fourth degree of latitude to the Mobangi River on the French frontier. The whole forms one-eleventh part of the African continent. The association became transformed into a state in August, 1885, when King Leopold, with the authorization of the Belgian Chambers, notified the powers that he should assume the title of Sovereign of the Independent State of the Congo, the union of which with Belgium was to be exclusively personal. The Congo is, therefore, not a Belgian colony, but nevertheless the Belgian Chambers have recently given valuable assistance to the King's work; first, in taking, on July 26, 1889, 10,000,000 francs' worth of shares in the railway which is to connect the seaport of Matadi with the riverport

of Leopoldville, on Stanley Pool, and secondly by granting a loan of 25,000,000 francs to the Independent State on August 4, 1890. The King, in a will laid before Parliament, bequeaths all his African possessions to the Belgian nation, authorizing the country to take possession of them after a lapse of ten years."—E. de Laveleye, *Division of Africa* (*The Forum*, Jan., 1891). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century; and Map.

ALSO IN: H. M. Stanley, *The Congo*.
 1885-1902.—How the natives have been enslaved and oppressed.—The "Domaine Privé."
 —"The Berlin Conference laid it down that no import dues should be established in the mouth of the Congo for twenty years. But in 1890 King Leopold, alleging the heavy expenses to which he had been put by the campaign against the Arabs in the Upper Congo, applied for permission to levy import duties. It was the first disillusionment; and the British Chambers of Commerce began to wonder whether their opposition to the Anglo-Portuguese Convention had not been mistaken. The King's request was granted (the Powers merely reserving to themselves the right to revert to the original arrangement in fifteen years), but not without the bitter opposition of the Dutch, who had very important commercial interests in the Congo, backed by the British Chambers of Commerce and all the traders in the Congo, irrespective of nationality. A representative gathering was held in London on November 4th, 1900, presided over by Sir Albert Rollit, to protest against the imposition of import duties and to denounce the hypocrisy which attributed to philanthropic motives the desire on the part of the Congo State so to impose upon them. . . .
 "They were able to show that . . . King Leopold, notwithstanding his formal assurances to the commercial world that the Congo State would never directly or indirectly itself trade within its dominions, was buying, or rather stealing, ivory from the natives in the Upper Congo and retaining the proceeds of the sale on the European market. They proved that, profiting by the silence of the Berlin Treaty on the subject of export duties, the Congo State had already imposed taxes amounting to 17½ per cent. on ivory, 13 per cent. on rubber and 5 per cent. on palm kernels, palm-oil and ground-nuts, the total taxation amounting to no less than 33 per cent. of the value of the whole of the trade. Finally they had no difficulty in demonstrating that, with all his professed wish to stamp out the slave-raiding carried on by the half-caste Arabs in the Upper Congo, His Majesty was himself tacitly encouraging the slave trade by receiving tribute from conquered Chiefs in the shape of slaves, who were promptly enrolled as soldiers in the State army. . . .
 "Five months after the termination of the Berlin Conference King Leopold issued a decree (July, 1885) whereby the State asserted rights of proprietorship over all *vacant lands* throughout the Congo territory. It was intended that the term *vacant lands* should apply in the broadest sense to lands not *actually occupied* by the natives at the time the decree was issued. By successive decrees, promulgated in 1886, 1887 and 1888, the King reduced the rights of the natives in their land to the narrowest limits, with the result that the whole of the odd 1,000,000 square miles assigned to the Congo State, except such infinitesimal proportions thereof as were covered by native villages or native farms, became *terres domaniales*.' On October 17th, 1889, the King also issued a decree ordering merchants to limit their commercial operations

in rubber to bartering with the natives. This decree was interesting merely as a forewarning of what came later, because at that time the rubber trade was very small. In July, 1890, the same year as the Brussels Conference, the Congo State went a step further. A decree issued in that month confirmed all that was advanced in November of the same year by the speakers at the London Conference held to protest against the imposition of import duties by the State. By its terms King Leopold asserted that the State was entitled to trade on its own account in ivory—the first open violation of his pledges. Moreover the decree imposed sundry extra taxes upon all ivory bought by merchants from the natives, which, since the State had become itself a trading concern, constituted an equally direct violation of the Berlin Act, by establishing differential treatment in matters of trade. Such were the plans King Leopold made, preparatory to obtaining from the Powers the power to impose import duties. Everything was ready for the great *coup*, which should also inaugurate the Fifth Stage of His Majesty's African policy.

"The Brussels Conference met. The Powers with inconceivable fatuity allowed themselves to be completely hoodwinked, and within a year the greatest injury perpetrated upon the unfortunate natives of Africa since the Portuguese in the XVth century conceived the idea of expatriating them for labour purposes had been committed, and committed too by a Monarch who had not ceased for fifteen years to pose as their self-appointed regenerator. On September 21st, 1891, King Leopold drafted, in secret, a decree which he caused to be forwarded to the Commissioners of the State in the Uban-ghi-Welle and Aruwimi-Welle districts, and to the Chiefs of the military expeditions operating in the Upper Ubanghi district. The decree never having been published in the official Bulletin of the State, its exact terms can only be a matter of conjecture, but we know that it instructed the officials to whom it was addressed 'to take urgent and necessary measures to preserve the fruits of the domain to the State, especially ivory and rubber.' By 'fruits of the domain' King Leopold meant the products of the soil throughout the 'vacant lands' which he had attributed to himself, as already explained, by the decree of 1885. The King's instructions were immediately followed, and three circulars, dated respectively Bangala, 15th December, 1891, Basankusu, 8th May, 1892, and Yokoma, 14th February, 1892, were issued by the officials in question. Circular No. 1 forbade the natives to hunt elephants unless they brought the tusks to the State officers. Circular No. 2 forbade the natives to collect rubber unless they brought it to the State's officers. Circular No. 3 forbade the natives to collect either ivory or rubber unless they brought the articles to the State's officers, and added that 'merchants purchasing such articles from the natives, whose right to collect them the State only recognised provided that they were brought to it, would be looked upon as receivers of stolen goods and denounced to the judicial authorities.' Thus did the Sovereign of the Congo State avail himself of the additional prestige conferred upon him by the Brussels Conference. . . .

"In theory, then, the decrees of September, 1891, and October, 1892, made of the native throughout the *Domaine Privé* a serf. In theory a serf he remained, for a little while. But as the grip of Africa's regenerator tightened upon the *Domaine Privé*, as the drilled and officered cannibal army, armed with repeating rifles, gradually grew and

grew until it was larger than the native forces kept up by any of the great Powers of Europe on African soil, as the radius of the rubber taxes was extended, as portions of the country began to be farmed out to so-called 'Companies' whose agents were also officials of the King, the native of the *Domaine Privé* became a serf not in theory only but in fact, ground down, exploited, forced to collect rubber at the bayonet's point, compelled to pay onerous tribute to men whose salaries depend upon the produce returns from their respective stations—the punishment for disobedience, slothfulness or inability to comply with demands ever growing in extortion, being anything from mutilation to death, accompanied by the destruction of villages and crops."—E. D. Morel, *Belgian curse in Africa* (*Contemporary Review*, March, 1902).

1894.—Treaty with England. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology.

1897.—Mutiny of troops of Baron Dhanis's expedition. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology.

1899.—Results of the king of Belgium's attempt to found an African empire.—Contradictory representations.—"The opening in the first few days of July [1898] of the railway through the District of the Cataracts, from Matadi to Stanley Pool, has turned public attention to Central Africa, where the genius and courage of the King of the Belgians have created a Black Empire within the short space of twelve years. It is the special pride of its founder that the vast state of the Congo has been formed without bloodshed, except at the cost of the cruel Arab slave-hunters, and of the not less cruel cannibals like Msiri or the Batetelas, that a thousand treaties have been signed without a gunshot, and that from the commencement the highest ideals of modern civilisation have been aimed at, and, considering the stupendous difficulties of the task, practically attained in the administration. The standard of humanity and progress has been firmly planted in the midst of a population of thirty millions, the decadence of those millions has been arrested, peace exists where there was only slaughter and savagery, and prosperity is coming in the train of improved communications, and of the development of the natural resources of a most promising region. In the history of Empires that of the Congo State is unique. . . . The Berlin Conference did nothing for the Congo State beyond giving it a being and a name. On the other hand it imposed upon it some onerous conditions. There was to be freedom of trade—an excellent principle, but not contributory to the State exchequer—it was to employ all its strength in the suppression of the slave trade—a gigantic task, undertaken with the resources of pygmies, as some one has said—and the navigation of the Congo was to be free to all the world without a single toll. The sufficiently ample dimensions marked out for the State in the Conventional limits attached to the Berlin General Act had to be defined and regulated by subsequent negotiation with the neighbouring Powers. France attenuated the northern possessions of the State at every possible opportunity, but at length, in February, 1895, she was induced to waive in favour of Belgium the right of pre-emption which the Congo Association had given her in April, 1884, over its possessions, at the moment when the Anglo-Portuguese Convention threatened that enterprise with extinction. . . . Four years after the meeting at Berlin it was found necessary to convene another conference of the Powers, held on this occasion at Brussels, under

the presidency of Baron Lambert, whose share in the success of the earlier conference had been very marked and brilliant. The chief object set before the new Conference was to devise means for the abolition of the Slave Trade in Central Africa. . . . The Conference lasted more than seven months, and it was not until July, 1890, that the General Act bearing the signatures of the Powers was agreed upon. It increased the obligations resting on the State; its decisions, to which the Independent State was itself a party, made the task more onerous, but at the same time it sanctioned the necessary measures to give the State the revenue needed for the execution of its new programme. . . .

"Fresh from the Brussels Conference the Congo State threw itself into the struggle with the Arabs. . . . Thanks to the skill and energy with which the campaign was conducted the triumph of the State was complete, and the downfall of the Arabs sounded the knell of the slave trade, of which they were the principal, and indeed the sole, promoters. The Arab campaign did not conclude the military perils that beset the nascent State. The Batetela contingent of the Public Force or native army of the Congo mutinied in January, 1897, while on the march to occupy the Lado district of the Upper Nile, and the episode, ushered in in characters of blood by the assassination of many Belgian officers, seemed to shake the recently-constructed edifice to its base. But if the ordeal was severe, the manner in which the authorities have triumphed over their adversaries and surmounted their difficulties, furnishes clear evidence of the stability of their power. The Batetela mutineers have been overthrown in several signal encounters, a mere handful of fugitives still survive, and each mail brings news of their further dispersal. Even at the moment of its occurrence the blow from the Batetela mutiny was tempered by the success of the column under Commandant Chaltin in overthrowing the Dervishes at Redjaf and in establishing the State's authority on the part of the Nile assigned to it by the Anglo-Congolese Convention of 1894. The triumphs of the Congo State have, however, been those of peace and not of war. With the exception of the operations named and the overthrow of the despotism of the savage Msiri, the State's record is one of unbroken tranquillity. These wars, little in magnitude but great in their consequences, were necessary for the suppression of the slave trade as well as for the legitimate assertion of the authority of the Congo Government. But their immediate consequence was the effective carrying out of the clauses in the Penal Code making all participation in the capture of slaves or in cannibalism a capital offence. That was the primary task, the initial step, in the establishment of civilisation in Central Africa, and of the credit for this the Congo State cannot be deprived. When this was done there remained the still more difficult task of saving the black races from the evils which civilisation brings in its train among an ignorant population incapable of self-control. The import of firearms had to be checked in order to prevent an untamed race indulging in internecine strife, or turning their weapons upon the mere handful of Europeans engaged in the task of regenerating the negroes. The necessary measures inspired by the double motives of self-preservation and the welfare of the blacks have been taken, and the State controls in the most complete and effectual manner the importation of all weapons and munitions of war. Nor has the success of the administration been less clear or decisive in its control of the liquor traffic."—D. C.

Boulger, *Twelve years' work on the Congo* (*Fortnightly Review*, Oct., 1898).

To a considerable extent this favorable view of the work of the Belgians in the Congo State is sustained by the report which a British Consul, Mr. Pickersgill, made to his government in 1898. He wrote admiringly of the energy with which the Belgians had overcome enormous difficulties in their undertaking, and then asked: "Has this splendid invasion justified itself by benefiting the aborigines? Equatorial Africa is not a white man's country. He can never prove his claim to sole possession of it by surviving as the fittest; and without the black man's co-operation it can serve no useful purpose to anybody. Has the welfare of the African, then, whose prosperous existence is thus indispensable, been duly cared for in the Congo State?" By way of answer to these questions, his report sets forth, with apparently strict fairness, the conditions produced in the country as he carefully observed them. He found that much good had been done to the natives by restrictions on the liquor trade, by an extensive suppression of inter-tribal wars, and by a diminution of cannibalism. Then comes a rehearsal of facts which have a different look.

"The yoke of the notorious Arab slave-traders has been broken, and traffic in human beings amongst the natives themselves has been diminished to a considerable degree. Eulogy here begins with a spurt and runs out thin at the end. But there is no better way of recording the facts concisely. To hear, amidst the story's wild surroundings, how Dhanis and Hinde, and their intrepid comrades, threw themselves, time after time, upon the strongholds of the banded men stealers, until the Zone Arabe was won in the name of freedom, is to thrill with admiration of a gallant crusade. . . . But it is disappointing to see the outcome of this lofty enterprise sink to a mere modification of the evil that was so righteously attacked. Like the Portuguese in Angola, the Belgians on the Congo have adopted the system of requiring the slave to pay for his freedom by serving a new master during a fixed term of years for wages merely nominal. On this principle is based the 'servical' system of the first-named possession, and the 'libéré' system of the latter; the only difference between the two being that the Portuguese Government permits limited re-enslavement for the benefit of private individuals, but does not purchase on its own account; while the Government of the Independent State retains for itself an advantage which it taboos to everybody else. The State supports this system because labour is more easily obtainable thereby than by enforcing *corvée* amongst the free people, and less expensively than by paying wages. The slave so acquired, however, is supposed to have undergone a change of status, and is baptized officially as a free man. After seven years' service under the new name he is entitled to his liberty complete. In Angola the limit is five years. The natives are being drilled into the habit of regular work. . . . The first Europeans who travelled inland of Matadi had to rely entirely on porters from the coast, and it was not until the missionaries had gained the confidence of the people, and discovered individuals amongst them who could be trusted as gangers, that the employment of local carriers became feasible. The work was paid for, of course, and it is to the credit of the State that the remuneration continued, undiminished, after compulsion was applied. But how, it cannot fail to be asked, did the necessity for compulsion arise? In the same way that it has since arisen in

connection with other forms of labour: the State wished to get on faster than circumstances would permit. Accordingly the Government authorities prohibited the missionaries from recruiting where porters were most easily obtained, and under the direction of their military chief, the late Governor-General Wahis, initiated a rigorous system of *corvée*. In spite of the remuneration this was resisted, at first by the men liable to serve absenting themselves from home, and afterwards, when the State Officers began to seize their women and children as hostages, by preparations for war. Deserting their villages, the people of the caravan route took to the bush, and efforts were made by the chiefs to bring about a general uprising of the entire Cataract district. Things were in so critical a condition that Colonel Wahis had to leave unpunished the destruction of a Government station and the murder of the officer in charge. Mainly through the influence of the missionaries the general conflagration was prevented, but the original outbreak continued to smoulder for months, and transport work of all kinds had to be discontinued until means were devised of equalising the burden of the *corvée*, and of enlisting the co-operation of the chiefs in its management. That was in 1894. Three years later the system appeared to be working with remarkable smoothness. . . . Whatever views may be held respecting the influence of the State at the present stage of its schoolmaster task, there can be no doubt that the condition, a year or two hence, of those sections of the population about to be relieved from the transport service, will afford conclusive evidence, one way or the other, of the Government's civilising ability. . . . It needs no great knowledge of coloured humanity to foresee that such pupils will quickly relapse into good-for-nothingness more than aboriginal, unless their education be continued. . . .

"One of the most obvious duties of an European Government standing in '*loco parentis*' to savage tribes, and exercising '*dominatio parentis*' with an unspared rod, is to educate the juvenile pagan. Since 1892 the Congo State has disbursed, according to the published returns, taking one year with another, about £6,000 per annum, on this department of its enterprise. It cannot be said, therefore, to have neglected the duty entirely. A school for boys has been established at Boma, and another at Nouvelle Anvers; while large numbers of children of both sexes have been placed with the Roman Catholic missionaries, in the same and other districts. Except in one direction, however, the movement has not been very successful. The young Africans thus blessed with a chance of becoming loyal with intelligence are all waifs and strays, who have been picked up by exploring parties and military expeditions. Their homes are at the points of the compass, and their speech is utter hewilderment. . . . A word must be said as to the employment of what are known as '*sentries*.' A '*sentry*' on the Congo is a dare-devil aboriginal, chosen, from troops impressed outside the district in which he serves, for his loyalty and force of character. Armed with a rifle and a pouch of cartridges, he is located in a native village to see that the labour for which its inhabitants are responsible is duly attended to. If they are india-rubber collectors, his duty is to send the men into the forest and take note of those who do not return with the proper quantity. Where food is the tax demanded, his business is to make sure that the women prepare and deliver it; and in every other matter connected with the Government he is the *factotum*, as far as that village is concerned, of the officer of the district, his power being limited

only by the amount of zeal the latter may show in checking oppression. When Governor-General Wahis returned from his tour of inspection he seemed disposed to recommend the abolition of this system, which is open to much abuse. But steps have not yet been taken in that direction."—*Great Britain, Parliamentary Publications (Papers by Command: No. 459, Miscellaneous Series, 1898, pp. 7-12)*.

From this account of things it would seem that Mr. Boulger, in the view quoted above from his article on the work of King Leopold in the Congo country, had chosen to look only at what is best in the results. On the other hand, the writer of the following criticism in the *Spectator* of London may have looked at nothing but the blacker side: "King Leopold II., who, though he inherits some of the Coburg kingcraft, is not a really able man, deceived by confidence in his own great wealth and by the incurable Continental idea that anybody can make money in the tropics if he is only hard enough, undertook an enterprise wholly beyond his resources, and by making revenue instead of good government his end, spoiled the whole effect of his first successes. The Congo Free State, covering a million square miles, that is, as large as India, and containing a population supposed to exceed forty-two millions, was committed by Europe to his charge in absolute sovereignty, and at first there appeared to be no resistance. Steamers and telegraphs and stations are trifles to a millionaire, and there were any number of Belgian engineers and young officers and clerks eager for employment. The weak point of the undertaking, inadequate resources, soon, however, became patent to the world. The King had the disposal of a few white troops, but they were only Belgians, who suffer greatly in tropical warfare, and his agents had to form an acclimatised army 'on the cheap.' They engaged, therefore, the fiercest blacks they could find, most of them cannibals, paid them by tolerating license, and then endeavoured to maintain their own authority by savage discipline. The result was that the men, as events have proved, and as the King seems in his apologia to admit, were always on the verge of mutiny, and that the native tribes, with their advantages of position, numbers, and knowledge of the forest and swamps, proved at least as good fighters as most of the forces of the Congo State. So great, however, is the intellectual superiority of white men, so immeasurable the advantage involved in any tincture of science, that the Belgians might still have prevailed but for the absolute necessity of obtaining money. They could not wait for the growth of resources under scientific taxation such as will follow Mr. Mitchell Innes's financial reforms in Siam, but attempted to obtain them from direct taxation and monopolies, especially that of rubber. Resistance was punished with a savage cruelty, which we are quite ready to believe was not the original intention of the Belgians, but which could not be avoided when the only mode of punishing a village was to let loose black cannibals on it to work their will, and which gradually hardened even the Europeans, and the consequence was universal disloyalty. The braver tribes fought with desperation, the black troops were at once cowed and attracted by their opponents, the black porters and agriculturists became secret enemies, all were kept in order by terror alone, and we all see the result. The Belgians are beaten; their chiefs, Baron Dhanis and Major Lothaire, are believed to be prisoners; and the vast territories of the far interior, whence alone rubber can now be obtained, are already lost. . . . The administration on the

spot is tainted by the history of its cruelties and its failures, and there are not the means in Brussels of replacing it by competent officials, or of supplying them with the considerable means required for what must now be a deliberate reconquest."—*Spectator (London), Feb. 4, 1800.*

1900-1901.—Expiration of Belgian Convention of 1890.—King Leopold's will.—Three days after the close of the year 1900, the Convention of 1890, which regulated for a period of ten years the relations between Belgium and the Congo State, expired by lapse of time, but was renewed Aug. 10, 1901. The chief provisions of the Convention were (1) that Belgium should advance to the Congo State a loan of 25,000,000 f. (£1,000,000), free of interest, of which one-fifth was payable at sight and the balance in ten yearly instalments of 2,000,000 f. each; (2) Belgium acquired within six months of the final payment the option of annexing the Congo State with all the rights and appurtenances of sovereignty attaching thereto; or (3) if Belgium did not avail herself of this right the loan was only redeemable after a further period of ten years, but became subject to interest at the rate of 3½ per cent per annum. The will of King Leopold, executed in 1889, runs as follows: "We bequeath and transmit to Belgium, after our death, all our Sovereign rights to the Congo Free State, such as they have been recognized by the declarations, conventions, and treaties, drawn up since 1884, on the one hand between the International Association of the Congo, and on the other hand the Free State, as well as all the property, rights, and advantages, accruing from such sovereignty. Until such time as the Legislature of Belgium shall have stated its intentions as to the acceptance of these dispositions, the sovereignty shall be exercised collectively by the Council of three administrators of the Free State and by the Governor-General."

1903-1905.—The alleged oppression, barbarity, and rapacity of its administration under King Leopold.—Observations of Lord Cromer on the Nile border.—Reports of a British Consular Officer, and of King Leopold's Belgian commission.—Action of the British government.—Serious accusations of oppression and barbarity in the exploiting of the natural wealth of the so-called Independent Congo State, under the administration of its royal proprietor, King Leopold, of Belgium, were beginning to be made years ago. The King and the companies which operated in the region under his grants were reputed to be taking enormous profits from it. Of one of those concessionaire companies, sometimes referred to as the A. B. I. R. Co. and sometimes as "the Abir," it was stated in 1901 that its £40,000 of shares could have been sold for £2,160,000, and that half of its profits went to Leopold. But, as was said later by a member of the British Parliament, who wrote on the subject in one of the reviews, "meanwhile Europe was becoming aware of the price that was being paid in Africa for these profits in Belgium. Travellers, missionaries of various nationalities, administrators in the neighbouring territories belonging to England and France, sent home graphic reports of the cruel oppression that was being practised on the helpless population. In England especially, through the efforts of Sir Charles Dilke, of Mr. Fox-Bourne, the secretary of the Aborigines Protection Society, of Mr. E. D. Morel and of other disinterested men, public opinion was informed of the truth. In May, 1903, a resolution, which I had the honor of moving in the House of Commons, calling upon the Government to take action with a view to the abatement of the evils

prevalent in the Congo Free State, was accepted by Mr. Balfour and unanimously passed. A diplomatic correspondence ensued between the two governments. The British Consul in the Lower Congo, Mr. Roger Casement, was sent on a tour of inquiry into the interior, and his lengthy and detailed report fully confirmed—in some respects extending—the indictment that had been drawn. A Congo Reform Association was founded, and immediately secured influential support. . . . At last King Leopold, pressed by the despatches of the British Government and bowing to the storm of public opinion, yielded so far as to authorise further inquiry into the charges that had been made. The investigation by an International Commission, which had been proposed, he rejected. He nominated three Commissioners of his selection, one a legal officer in the service of the Belgian Government, one a judge in the service of the Congo State, and the third a Swiss jurist of repute. In October, 1904, the Commission reached the Congo. It stayed for five months and made an extended journey into the interior. After an unexplained delay of eight months its report was published on the 6th of November of this year [1905]. . . .

"Had the report embodied an acquittal of the Congo State it would not, under the circumstances, have been surprising. The Commissioners, however, have to a great degree risen superior to their natural prepossessions. . . . It is most regrettable . . . that they present no minutes of the evidence taken before them—a circumstance which deprives the report of actuality and force, and prevents outside observers from drawing their own conclusions from the facts which had been ascertained. But the inquiry was painstaking. The case was fairly tried. The judgment is an honest judgment.

"Being honest, it is necessarily a condemnation. The Belgian defenders of the Congo Government, who were led by a conception of patriotic duty as profoundly false as that of the anti-Dreyfusards in France to deny everything and to meet the critics merely with unceasing torrents of abuse, now have their answer. A tribunal, not of our choosing, selected by the defendant in their cause, has shown that those who denounced Congo misrule were in the right, that the atrocities were not imaginary, that a cruel oppression of the natives had been proceeding unchecked for years."—H. Samuel, *Congo State (Contemporary Review, Dec., 1905).*

Before this report appeared many witnesses had testified for and against the impeached Government and its commercial monopoly of the Congo State. Atrocities of slaughter, mutilation and flogging, committed by the soldiery, the sentries and other extortioners of a labor tax from the helpless natives, were asserted and denied. It is best, perhaps, to drop these blackest counts from the Congo indictment, because of the controversy over them; and enough remains in the Report of the King's own Commission of Inquiry, and in general conditions which are flagrantly in evidence, to convict King Leopold and his agents of soulless rapacity, in their treatment of the vast African country that was entrusted to him by the Conference of Powers assembled at Berlin in 1884-5.

There is great weight of meaning, for example, in a few words that were written, in January, 1903, by Lord Cromer, while returning from a long trip up the Nile, in which his steamer passed along about eighty miles of Congolese shore. Before reaching that border of Leopold's domain he had traversed 1100 miles of the country lately wrested by the British from dervishes and slave dealers, where, he remarks, "it might well have

been expected that much time would be required to inspire confidence in the intentions of the new Government." But, "except in the uninhabitable 'Sudd' region," he wrote, "numerous villages are dotted along the banks of the river. The people, far from flying at the approach of white men, as was formerly the case, run along the banks, making signs for the steamer to stop. It is clear that the Baris, Shilluks, and Dinkas place the utmost trust and confidence in the British officers with whom they are brought in contact. . . . The contrast when once Congolese territory is entered is remarkable. From the frontier to Gondokoro is about 80 miles. The proper left, or western, bank of the river is Belgian. The opposite bank is either under the Sudanese or the Uganda Government. There are numerous islands, and as all these are under British rule—for the thalweg which, under Treaty, is the Belgian frontier, skirts the western bank of the river—I cannot say that I had an opportunity of seeing a full 80 miles of Belgian territory. At the same time, I saw a good deal, and I noticed that, whereas there were numerous villages and huts on the eastern bank and on the islands, on the Belgian side not a sign of a village existed. Indeed, I do not think that any one of our party saw a single human being in Belgian territory, except the Belgian officers and men and the wives and children of the latter. Moreover not a single native was to be seen either at Kiro or Lado. I asked the Swedish officer at Kiro whether he saw much of the natives. He replied in the negative, adding that the nearest Bari village was situated at some distance in the interior. The Italian officer at Lado, in reply to the same question, stated that the nearest native village was seven hours distant. The reason of all this is obvious enough. The Belgians are disliked. The people fly from them, and it is no wonder they should do so, for I am informed that the soldiers are allowed full liberty to plunder, and that payments are rarely made for supplies. The British officers wander, practically alone, over most parts of the country, either on tours of inspection or on shooting expeditions. I understand that no Belgian officer can move outside the settlements without a strong guard."

This is in line with some parts of the experience of Mr. Casement, the British Consular Officer referred to above, who travelled for about ten weeks on the Upper Congo in 1903, and whose report of what he saw includes such accounts as the following, of conditions around Lake Matumba: "Each village I visited around the lake, save that of Q. and one other, had been abandoned by its inhabitants. To some of these villages the people have only just returned; to others they are only now returning. In one I found the bare and burnt poles of what had been dwellings left standing, and at another—that of R.—the people had fled at the approach of my steamer, and despite the loud cries of my native guides on board, nothing could induce them to return, and it was impossible to hold any intercourse with them. At the three succeeding villages I visited beyond R., in traversing the lake towards the south, the inhabitants all fled at the approach of the steamer, and it was only when they found whose the vessel was that they could be induced to return."

An incident related by Mr. Casement is this: "Steaming up a small tributary of the Lulongo, I arrived, unprecedented by any rumour of my coming, at the village of A. In an open shed I found two sentries of the La Lulanga Company guarding fifteen native women, five of whom had infants at the breast, and three of whom were about to be-

come mothers. The chief of these sentries, a man called S—who was bearing a double-barrelled shot-gun, for which he had a belt of cartridges—at once volunteered an explanation of the reason for these women's detention. Four of them, he said, were hostages who were being held to insure the peaceful settlement of a dispute between two neighbouring towns, which had already cost the life of a man. . . . The remaining eleven women, whom he indicated, he said he had caught and was detaining as prisoners to compel their husbands to bring in the right amount of india-rubber required of them on next market day. When I asked if it was a woman's work to collect india-rubber, he said, 'No; that, of course, it was man's work.' 'Then why do you catch the women and not the men?' I asked. 'Don't you see,' was the answer, 'if I caught and kept the men, who would work the rubber? But if I catch their wives, the husbands are anxious to have them home again, and so the rubber is brought in quickly and quite up to the mark.' When I asked what would become of these women if their husbands failed to bring in the right quantity of rubber on the next market day, he said at once that then they would be kept there until their husbands had redeemed them."—*Parliamentary Papers, Africa, No. 1 (1904), Cd. 1933.*

But the facts which condemn the Congo administration most conclusively are found in the report of the Commission of Inquiry appointed by King Leopold himself,—especially in what it represents of the heartless oppression of the labor tax, or labor imposed on the natives, in their compulsory carrying of goods or collection of rubber, food and wood, for the State and for the companies that operate under the King's grants. As to the labor tax exacted in food, for example, the Commission expresses itself as follows: "The decree fixes at forty hours per month the work which each native owes to the State. This time, considered as a maximum, is certainly not excessive, especially if one takes account of the fact that the work ought to be remunerated; but as in the immense majority of cases . . . it is not precisely the work which is demanded of the native, but rather a quantity of products equivalent to forty hours of work, the criterion of time disappears in reality and is replaced by an equivalent established by the Commissioner of the district after diverse methods. . . . *Chikwangue* (kwanga) is nothing but manioc bread. The preparation of this food requires many operations: the clearing of the forest, the planting of manioc, the digging up of the root and its transformation into *chikwangue*, which comprises the operations of separating the fibers and stripping the bark, pulverizing, washing, making it into bundles, and cooking it. All these operations, except clearing the land, fall to the women. The *chikwangues* so prepared are carried by the natives to the neighboring post and served for the food supply of the personnel of the State—soldiers and laborers. . . . As the *chikwangue* keeps only a few days, the native, even by redoubling his activity, cannot succeed in freeing himself from his obligations for any length of time. The requirement, even if it does not take all his time, oppresses him continually by the weight of its recurrent demands, which deprive the tax of its true character and transform it into an incessant *corvée*. . . . Doubtless the adage, 'time is money,' cannot be applied to the natives of the Congo; . . . it is none the less inadmissible that a taxpayer should be obliged to travel over ninety-three miles to carry to the place of collection a tax which represents about the value of twenty-nine cents. . . . Natives in-

habiting the environs of Lulonga were forced to journey in canoes to Nouvelle-Anvers, which represents a distance of forty to fifty miles, every two weeks, to carry their fish; and taxpayers have been seen to submit to imprisonment for delays which were perhaps not chargeable to them, if we take into account the considerable distances to be covered periodically to satisfy the requirements of the tax."

As applied to the collection of rubber, the so-called labor tax was found by the commission to consume so much of the time of the natives subjected to it that it practically made slaves of them, and nothing less. When the abused native is pretentively paid for his labor or its product, it is by some trifle in metal or flimsy woven stuff, which costs the State and its tributary companies next to nothing and is next to worthless to the recipient. And not only does the State exercise over the unfortunate subjects that were delivered to it an authority of Government which appears to be little else than a power of extortion, but it has taken all their lands from them, substantially, and left them next to nothing on which to perform any labor for themselves. It has decreed to itself the ownership of all land not included in the native villages or not under cultivation. Concerning which decree the Commission remarks:—"As the greater part of the land in the Congo has never been under cultivation, this interpretation gives to the State a proprietary right, absolute and exclusive, to almost all the land, and as a consequence it can grant to itself all the product of the soil and prosecute as robbers those who gather the smallest fruit and as accomplices those who buy the same. . . . It thus happens sometimes that not only have the natives been prohibited from moving their villages, but they have been refused permission to go, even for a time, to a neighboring village without a special permit."

In the summer of 1903 the British Government was moved to address a formal communication to all the Powers which had been parties to the Act of the Berlin Conference of 1884-5, whereby the Congo State was created and entrusted to King Leopold, asking them to consider whether the system of government and of trade monopoly established in that State was in conformity with the provisions of the Act. The British Foreign Secretary, Lord Lansdowne, in his despatch (August 8, 1903), rehearsed at length the charges that were brought against the Congo administration, concerning its extortion of labor from the natives by a method "but little different from that formerly employed to obtain slaves," saying: "His Majesty's Government do not know precisely to what extent these accusations may be true; but they have been so repeatedly made, and have received such wide credence, that it is no longer possible to ignore them, and the question has now arisen, whether the Congo State can be considered to have fulfilled the special pledges, given under the Berlin Act, to watch over the preservation of the native tribes, and to care for their moral and material advancement."—At the same time, the dispatch called the attention of the Powers to the question of rights of trade in the Congo, saying: "Article I of the Berlin Act provides that the trade of all nations shall enjoy complete freedom in the basin of the Congo; and Article V provides that no Power which exercises sovereign rights in the basin shall be allowed to grant therein a monopoly or favour of any kind in matters of trade. In the opinion of His Majesty's Government, the system of trade now existing in the Independent State of the Congo is not in harmony with these provisions. . . . In

these circumstances, His Majesty's Government consider that the time has come when the Powers parties to the Berlin Act should consider whether the system of trade now prevailing in the Independent State is in harmony with the provisions of the Act; and, in particular, whether the system of making grants of vast areas of territory is permissible under the Act if the effect of such grants is in practice to create a monopoly of trade."—*Parliamentary Papers, Africa, No. 14* (1903), Cd. 1800.

1906-1908.—Reform decrees and their small effect.—Continued reports on exploitation.—Concession secured by American capitalists.—Annexation by Belgium.—Apparently the endeavor of the British government to set in motion some action of the Powers which had been parties to the creation of the Congo State, for the purpose of ascertaining whether the provisions of the Berlin Act were being complied with in the administration of that great trust, had no practical result. During the next two years the Congo government was persistent in denying and attempting to refute some parts of the reports sent home by British consular officers in the Congo; but after the publication of the report of its own investigating commission, in 1905, there seems to have been more reticence observed. In June, 1906, a series of new decrees, supposed to embody the recommendations of the Reforms commission, was sanctioned by the King. But the consuls who reported to London from the Congo country do not seem to have found the wretched natives much relieved by these decrees. Vice-Consul Armstrong, writing from Boma December, 1907, after a prolonged journey through rubber-collecting regions, declared his conviction that "the people worked from twenty to twenty-five days a month" to satisfy their labor tax. He added: "The improvement that has been made by the application of the Reform Decrees of June 1906 is solely in the withdrawal of armed sentries, a reform which the serious decimation of the population by the sentries demanded. . . . I saw nothing which led me to view the occupation of this country in the light of an Administration. The undertakings of the Government are solely commercial, with a sufficient administrative power to insure the safety of its personnel and the success of its enterprise." . . . Reports to the same effect were coming to the government of the United States from its consuls in the Congo. Consul-general C. R. Slocum wrote on the 1st of December, 1906, to the Department of State at Washington: "I have the honour to report that I find the Congo Free State, under the present régime, to be nothing but a vast commercial enterprise for the exploitation of the products of the country, particularly that of ivory and rubber. Admitted by Belgian officials and other foreigners here, the State, as I find it, is not open to trade in the intended sense of article 5 of the Berlin Act under which the State was formed." A year later, the succeeding Consul-General of the United States in the Congo State, Mr. James A. Smith, made a similar report: "In excluding the native," he wrote, "from any proprietary right in the only commodities he possessed which would serve as a trade medium—that is, the products of the soil—and in claiming for itself and granting to a few concessionary companies in which it holds an interest exclusive ownership of these products, the Administration, in its commercial capacity, has effectively shut the door to free trade and created a vast monopoly in all articles the freedom of buying and selling of which alone could form a proper basis for legitimate trade transactions between the native and independent

purchasers. Competition, by which alone can a healthy condition of trade be maintained, has been entirely eliminated. The Government is but one tremendous commercial organization; its administrative machinery is worked to bar out all outside trade and to absolutely control for its own benefit and the concessionary companies the natural resources of the country." Before this time, American interest in the Congo State had become more than humanitarian, and more than a commercial interest in the general opportunities of trade; for heavy American capitalists had secured concessions from King Leopold in a large territory for the development of railways, rubber production and mines. The fact was announced in the fall of 1906, and the names of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., Thomas F. Ryan, Harry Payne Whitney, Edward B. Aldrich and the Messrs. Guggenheim were mentioned as prominent in the group to which the grant was made.

Under the Convention of 1890 between King Leopold and the Congo State, as one party, and the Kingdom of Belgium as the other, it became the right of the latter, on the expiration of ten years, in 1900, to annex the Congo State to itself. The right was not then exercised; but the question of taking over the sovereignty of that great African domain came under warm discussion in Belgium before many years, and, finally, in 1908, it reached the point of a keen negotiation of terms with the King, attended by lively conflicts in the Belgian Chambers. While the question was thus pending in Belgium, the British government took occasion to express its views to the Belgian government, as to the obligations which such an annexation would involve. This was done on the 27th of March, 1908, in a despatch from the Foreign Minister, Sir Edward Grey, communicating an extended "Memorandum respecting Taxation and Currency in the Congo Free State." The language of the despatch, in part, was as follows: "His Majesty's Government fully recognize that the choice of the means by which the administration of the Congo may be brought into line by the Berlin Act rests exclusively with Belgium. Nevertheless, while disclaiming all idea of interference, His Majesty's Government feel that in fairness they should leave the Belgian Government in no doubt that in their opinion the existing administration of the Congo State has not fulfilled the objects for which the State was originally recognized, or the conditions of Treaties, and that changes are therefore required, which should effect the following objects: (1) Relief of the natives from excessive taxation. (2) The grant to the natives of sufficient land to ensure their ability to obtain not only the food they require, but also sufficient produce of the soil to enable them to buy and sell as in other European Colonies. (3) The possibility for traders whatever their nationality may be to acquire plots of land of reasonable dimensions in any part of the Congo for the erection of factories so as to enable them to establish direct trade relations with the natives. . . . Taking the three points enumerated above in order, it appears to His Majesty's Government that—(1) As regards the question of taxation in labour, the abuses to which the system has given rise have only been rendered possible by the absence of a proper standard of value. They believe, therefore, that the only sure and efficacious means of precluding the existence of such abuses in the future is the introduction of currency throughout the State at the earliest possible date. Both the Reports of the Commission of Inquiry and the experience of His Majesty's Consular officers agree

in the conclusion that the native has learnt the use of money, and that currency would be welcomed by all classes, native and European alike. (2) The natives in the concessionary areas should not be compelled, by either direct or indirect means, to render their labour to the Companies without remuneration. The introduction of currency should contribute greatly to the protection of the native against the illicit and excessive exactions on the part of private individuals. Such protection, however, cannot be adequately secured unless the latter be compelled to pay the native in specie at a fair rate to be fixed by law. (3) They would urge that a large increase should be made in the land allotted to the natives."

The exceptional failure of the Congo State, among African colonies, to introduce the use of currency in transactions with the natives, and the connection of this failure with the state of things existing there, is discussed at length in the Memorandum, with a practical summing up in these sentences: "The Secretaries-General said the native in the Congo had no specie. True, but why has he no specie? Because, as already explained, during the twenty-three years that the Congo State has been in existence no serious attempt, in spite of all assertions to the contrary, has ever been made by the State to introduce currency on a sufficiently large scale. In every other European Colony in Africa has the native come to learn the practical value of a medium of exchange. What are the reasons that the Congo State should stand in an exceptional position in this respect? They are unfortunately obvious enough. The truth is that it is precisely owing to the absence of a proper standard of value that the Congo Government and the Concessionary Companies have been able to abuse the system of taxation in labour, and realize enormous profits out of the incessant labour wrung from the population in the guise of taxation." This communication from Great Britain to the Belgian government was followed soon (in April) by memoranda from the government of the United States, setting forth the hopes and expectations of administrative reform with which it contemplated the proposed annexation of the Congo State.

A few months later the treaty of annexation was agreed upon, and the annexation consummated by an Act of the Belgian Parliament, promulgated on the 20th of October, 1908.

1909.—United States and Great Britain withhold recognition of annexation.—Recognition by Germany.—Death of Leopold.—To an announcement by the Belgian Minister at Washington that the treaty of annexation had been concluded, Secretary Root replied at considerable length, in a communication which bears the date of June 11, 1909. "The Government of the United States," said the Secretary, "has observed with much interest the progress of the negotiations looking to such a transfer, in the expectation that under the control of Belgium the condition of the natives might be beneficially improved and the engagements of the treaties to which the United States is a party, as well as the high aims set forth in the American memoranda of April 7 and 16, 1908, and declared in the Belgian replies thereto, might be fully realized. The United States would also be gratified by the assurance that the Belgian Government will consider itself specifically bound to discharge the obligations assumed by the Independent State of the Congo in the Brussels Convention of July 2, 1890, an assurance which the expressions already made by the Government of Belgium in regard to its own course as a party to

that convention leave no doubt is in entire accordance with the sentiments of that Government. Among the particular clauses of the Brussels Convention which seem to the United States to be specially relevant to existing conditions in the Congo region are the clauses of Article II, which include among the objects of the convention:—"To diminish intestine wars between tribes by means of arbitration; to initiate them in agricultural labour and in the industrial arts so as to increase their welfare; to raise them to civilization and bring about the extinction of barbarous customs. . . . To give aid and protection to commercial enterprises; to watch over their legality by especially controlling contracts for service with natives; and to prepare the way for the foundation of permanent centres of cultivation and of commercial settlements"—The United States has been forced to the conclusion that in several respects the system inaugurated by the Independent State of the Congo has, in its practical operation, worked out results inconsistent with these conventional obligations and calling for very substantial and even radical changes in order to attain conformity therewith." Moreover, it renders nugatory the provisions of the successive declarations and conventions, cited by the Secretary, which have given such rights in the Congo State to citizens of the United States and others as must be maintained. "It should always be remembered," wrote Mr. Root, "that the basis of the sovereignty of the Independent State of the Congo over all its territory was in the treaties made by the native Sovereigns who ceded the territory for the use and benefit of free States established and being established there under the care and supervision of the International Association, so that the very nature of the title forbids the destruction of the tribal rights upon which it rests without securing to the natives an enjoyment of their land which shall be a full and adequate equivalent for the tribal rights destroyed." Referring to a statement made in the Belgian reply given to his memorandum of April 16, which he quotes as in these words:—"When it annexes the possessions of the Independent State Belgium will inherit its obligations as well as its rights; it will be able to fulfil all the engagements made with the United States by the declarations of April 22, 1884."—Mr. Root closes his letter with these remarks: "It would be gratifying to the United States to know that the last clause of the statement just quoted is not intended to confine the rights of the United States in the Independent State to the declarations of the Commercial Association which preceded the creation of the Congo State as a sovereign power, but includes the conventional rights conferred upon the United States by the treaty concluded with the Independent State immediately after its recognition. In the absence of a fuller understanding on all these points, I confine myself for the present to acknowledging your note of November 4 last and taking note of the announcement therein made."

Thus no recognition was given to the Belgian annexation. Recognition was held in abeyance, awaiting further information and evidence of reform in the administration of the Congo State. And this was also the attitude assumed by the British government, which waited long and with growing impatience for assurances from Belgium, with proceedings that would give sign of making them good. On the 24th of February, 1909, the subject came up in Parliament, with assertions that "oppression of the natives was still going on just as before the annexation," and that "Great Britain had waited for months while the cruelties against which she had protested still continued."

In the debate, Sir Charles Dilke referred to the harmony of action in the matter by the United States and Great Britain, and expressed his conviction that "the coöperation of two such powerful Governments in the cause of humanity would be irresistible." Sir Edward Grey, speaking for the Ministry, said: "I am glad that in the course of the debate it has been emphasized that this attitude is not ours alone, but that the United States has spoken with equal emphasis and taken up the same position. I am sorry that no other Power has taken up the same position so strongly; but as there is only one Power which has declared itself so definitely on the question as ourselves, I should like to say that I am glad it is the United States." Alluding to a remark made by one of the speakers in the debate, that the Government might have prevented the annexation of the State by Belgium, Sir Edward said: "I do not think we should have prevented the annexation, but in any case I should not have tried to prevent the annexation. And for this reason among others—that if Belgium was not going to take the Congo State in hand and put it right, who was? I have never been able to answer that question. Certainly not ourselves, because we have always denied the intention of assuming any responsibility over an enormous tract of land where we have sufficient responsibility already." The Foreign Secretary concluded his speech by saying: "If Belgium makes the administration of the Congo humane and brings it into accord, in practice and spirit, with the administration which exists in our own and neighbouring African colonies, no country will more cordially welcome that state of things than this or more warmly congratulate Belgium. But we cannot commit ourselves to countersign, so to say, by recognition a second time, the system of administration which has existed under the old régime."

"In sharp contrast . . . Germany recognized immediately the transfer. Foreign Secretary von Schoen told the Reichstag on January 23, 1909, that Germany had been the first of all the Powers to recognize the transfer of the Congo to Belgium, and that though her acquiescence to the annexation did not imply approval of existing conditions, Germany assumed, and was convinced, that under Belgian rule a cleansing process would ensue. Herr von Schoen stated explicitly that Germany had not considered herself entitled by treaty to interfere, as Great Britain had asked her to join in doing, to secure the introduction of Congo reforms. He gave an outline of the two treaties (that with the international Congo Association and the Congo Articles in the Berlin Conference Act), and showed that the signatory Powers had no right to a voice in the matter. In Belgium Germany's attitude was deeply appreciated. During 1909 the United States and Great Britain continued to correspond with the Belgian Government, maintaining in common that the annexation could not be recognized until definite guarantees were given on the subject of the exploitation of natives. But Belgium took her cue from Austria-Hungary's recent action in Bosnia and Herzegovina. . . . The transfer was celebrated at Antwerp by a colonial festival. King Leopold made a speech in which he was silent on the native question, but held up glowingly the commercial advantages to Belgium, urged the development of the merchant marine, and invited capitalists to take up concessions in the Congo. At that very moment, the Socialists in the Chamber exposed the fact that one of the first decrees of the new Colonial Minister was to impress twenty-six hundred natives for railway construction. The

Colonial Minister justified forced labor on the ground of urgency and said that the natives had no reason to complain, as the railway would be useful to them as well as to Belgium. His position was endorsed by the Chamber. Belgian promises were still not believed in England. Sir Edward Grey declared that Great Britain would never have recognized the Congo Free State at all, if she had known what it was going to become, and that she would not now recognize it until she was sure that conditions would be radically reformed. But when it was suggested several months later that the British navy blockade the mouth of the Congo as a protest against the annexation, Sir Edward was frank in stating that allowing Belgium to rule the country was the ultimate solution. All the British wanted was a practical expression of willingness on the part of the Belgians to act decently in the Congo. When I say 'the British,' I mean not merely the Government but enlightened public sentiment, which in this matter dictated the Government's policy irrespective of international political consideration. On November 10, 1909, the demonstration at Albert Hall must have been a warning to Belgium that a solution of the Congo question was necessary, if good relations were to be maintained. The Albert Hall demonstration was presided over by the Primate, assisted by nine bishops, leading nonconformists, many peers, and about fifty members of Parliament. The Primate and the Bishop of Oxford expressed faith in the good intentions of the Belgian people, but denounced in most unqualified terms the administration, the ill will, the bad faith, and the atrocities in the Congo, declaring that King Leopold was personally and beyond any doubt responsible for them. The Bishop of London formulated the British demands: ill treatment of natives must cease, land be restored to them, proper soldiers and police substituted for the rubber-collecting bullies and assassins, 'hostage houses' done away with, the methods proposed for abolishing taxes explained, decimation of natives stopped, and the promises made at the time of annexation immediately fulfilled.

"It is well to remind those who [claim] . . . that in continuing the Congo agitation after the Belgian annexation, the British public was imposed upon and misled by prejudiced reports of missionaries and by the report of a now discredited traitor, of the testimony of Casement's successor at Boma. Colonel Thesiger reported officially to the Foreign Office at the beginning of 1909 that the whole system of Belgian taxation was fraudulent, and that the violation of laws and the heart-rending atrocities of the rubber collecting *were due to the wilful blindness, if not to the actual connivance, of the Belgian officials.* During the same year, in October, the native chiefs sent a memorandum to the Belgian Colonial Minister, praying for relief from taxation. They could obtain no rubber, and received no return for the taxes exacted of them. British prospectors and traders were prevented from operating in the Katanga Province. The Belgian Socialist leader, Vandervelde, made a journey to the Congo to defend two American missionaries, who had been arrested on the charge of libeling one of the big rubber companies. M. Vandervelde secured their acquittal, and when he returned to Brussels, he gave testimony on the floor of the Chamber of the arbitrary exploitation, torturing and killing of natives, and the use of armed sentries over rubber-collecting slaves. All the Colonial Minister could answer was that he hoped the charges were exaggerated. The death of Leopold II. on December 7, 1909, brought some ray of hope that the people of Belgium would

have an awakening of conscience, and attempt to do away with the wholesale butchery and slavery in Africa that brought them as a civilized and Christian nation to shame before the whole world. Leopold's successor, the present King Albert, had visited the Colony during the year before his accession. Starting at Katanga, which he reached by way of Cape Town and Rhodesia, Prince Albert had walked fifteen hundred miles through the Congo forests. He was not allowed to see what was going on in the Congo, but he heard enough during his journey to make him dissatisfied with existing conditions. The passing of the Congo's evil genius Leopold gave Belgium a chance."—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa*, pp. 157-161.

1910-1913.—*Reform measures.*—*Recognition by Great Britain.*—*Results of reform movement.*—"The Belgian Government entered earnestly upon the work of reform in its own colony. M. Renkin, the new Colonial Minister, prepared a set of reform measures by which the administration of the country would be materially improved, the principle of free trade established (including the right of the native to traffic in the products of his own land), and the character and methods of taxation completely revised. These improvements were embodied in the law of March 22, 1910, which provided for their gradual introduction. On July 1, 1910, the districts of the Lower Congo, Stanley Pool, Ubangi, Bangala, Kwango, the Kassai, the Katanga, Aruwimi, the southern portion of the Eastern Province and the banks of the Congo River as far as Stanleyville, were thrown open to trade. On July 1, 1911, the former *Domaine de la Couronne*, lying in the center of the colony, was made a free-trade district; and one year later, the remaining region, the *Welle*, was placed on a similar basis. In the same way the new method of taxation has been gradually introduced; and the practice of forced labor abolished. Many material improvements are already noticeable, particularly in the field of public utilities and transportation. The entire course of the Congo River has been opened by rail or by steamer to international trade; numerous distant places have been brought into communication with the world by roads, boats, and the telegraph; and Elizabethville, the capital of the Upper Congo, will ere long be brought a thousand miles nearer Europe by the completion of the Benguela Railway from Portuguese Angola to the Katanga branch of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway (see AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914-1920: Obstacles: Lack of railways). The trade of the country has been carefully protected and cultivated, so that the combined imports and exports, which in 1895 were only about \$9,100,000, and at the time of annexation approximately \$31,770,000, reached \$47,508,000 in 1911. Yet the colony is still far from being a financial success. The expenditures for 1912 exceeded the revenue by \$5,215,000; and the total public debt in the same year had already reached \$55,749,440. It is evident, also, from the reports of the Reverend J. H. Harris, Consuls Thursten, Armstrong, Campbell, and others, that the Belgian Government is making a conscientious and progressive effort to ameliorate the condition of the natives and to introduce all the promised reforms affecting their welfare. Conditions have very materially improved in many districts."—N. D. Harris *Intervention and colonization in Africa*, p. 61.—"For the first three years of King Albert's reign, Great Britain still refused to recognize the annexation. In 1910, the Congo Reform Association and the Aborigines Protection Society whose agents were touring extensively, convinced the Foreign

Office that forced labor had not been abolished. In 1911 consular investigation showed that conditions were improved in many districts, but that the Belgian administration was still far from satisfactory. There was the controversy, also, over the question of freedom of trade. Sir Edward Grey doubted the desire of the Congo authorities to observe treaty obligations in this matter. The revocation, however, of the charters of three of the largest concession companies at the beginning of 1912 showed that Belgium was at last awakening to the necessity of abolishing monopolies and throwing the Congo open to free trade. The last outstanding question between Belgium and the public opinion of the world was that of native right to land ownership. In this matter, Germany stood with Great Britain. Concessions to companies gave private individuals rights over large tracts of land which superseded preexisting native rights. This was a violation not only of elementary principles of justice but also of a clearly formulated stipulation of the Berlin Act. . . . In June, 1913, after ten years of constant agitation, the victory appeared to have been won. For Sir Edward Grey announced in June that consular reports from the Congo made it no longer justifiable or expedient to withhold recognition of the annexation. Arrangements were being made to grant free land to natives for cultivation, and Belgium had accomplished much in improving her administration. The personal knowledge and influence of King Albert, the pressure of the Belgian Socialist Party, and the increasing revelation of the richness of the Congo basin were the decisive factors in the work of reform."—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa*, p. 163.—"The whole territory was not freed from the Congo System at once, although the system itself had been officially repudiated. Down to the last the Belgian Government showed itself incapable of a magnanimous gesture of reparation, and between 1910 and 1913 the inhabitants of sections of the Congo continued to be enslaved in the interests of the Belgian taxpayer, notwithstanding the utmost efforts of the reformers. But the area thus subjected to the old régime steadily dwindled, and every year found the Belgian State putting larger and larger sums into the Congo instead of merely plundering the country. During the whole of this period the reformers were continuously active and vigilant. Pressure upon the Belgian Government and upon the Foreign Office was never relaxed. Co-operation with the Belgian reformers was continuous and sustained. By the late spring of 1913 the position attained after twelve years of incessant agitation was this. The Leopoldian policy had been rooted out of the entire Congo territory. The Concessionaire companies had either disappeared with the disappearance of the system, or had been rendered impotent for mischief through the disbandment of the swarms of irregular armed levies in their employ. The rubber 'tax' itself had been abolished. The arming of one tribe to pillage another in the interests of 'revenue' had ceased. That revenue was no longer supplied by slave labour. Instead of Belgium costing the Congo a couple of millions a year expressed in terms of war, massacre and arson, accompanied by a huge loss of life, the Congo was costing Belgium two millions a year. The native of the Congo was again a free man by law. His elementary human rights had been restored to him. He was free once more to gather the natural products of his soil and to dispose of them in legitimate commerce; free once more to cultivate his land, both for his own sustenance and for planting products of commercial value for his own en-

richment. Thousands of natives who had fled to the utmost recesses of the great forests to escape their tormentors, were flocking back to the old settlements on the river banks. The Congo had ceased to be drained of its life-blood in the interests of Belgian capitalists. Both Consular and unofficial reports showed that these changes were real."—E. D. Morel, *Red rubber*, pp. 223-224.—The Congo reform association, a British Society which had been prominent in its efforts to reform abuses, was finally dissolved on June 16, 1913, as having accomplished the objects for which it was started. E. D. Morel, the last authority quoted above, was secretary of the association.

1913.—Discussed in treaty negotiations between England and Germany.—See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 71, xiii.

1914-1916.—Growth of railroads from 1900.—Government supervision of resources.—Colonial problems, domestic and foreign.—Political relations during the World War.—"Fortunately, unchecked exploitation by concession companies and maladministration of officials is not the whole story of the Congo since 1900. As was indicated in the report of the Commission of Inquiry, there is another and brighter side of Belgian activity. In May, 1902, an agreement was signed in Brussels for the extension of the Cape to Cairo railway from the northern border of Rhodesia to Lake Kasala. It was the idea to have the Rhodesian line, which was to pass through Katanga, join in this region a line from Benguela, an Atlantic port in Portuguese West Africa. Rhodesia would then have a much shorter connection with the sea coast, and a northern route would be opened up through the Congo valley across to Lake Albert and up the Nile. At this time the Reichstag had refused to vote the credits for the extension of the line from Dar-es-Salaam to Lake Tanganyika, and it was believed that the German line would not be built. The line from the south into Katanga Province of the Belgian Congo reached, in 1912, Elizabethville, only a few miles from the Rhodesian frontier, but over one hundred and sixty miles from the point in which it enters Belgian territory. It had been surveyed north to Bukama, and construction work was being rapidly pushed in 1914. Progress has been made also in opening up the Congo valley south from Stanleyville, where the river makes its sharp bend, through the heart of Central Africa, into Katanga. In September, 1906, the railway from Stanleyville to Ponthierville, a stretch where the Congo is not navigable, was completed. The Congo from Ponthierville to Kindu is navigable. From Kindu to Kongolo two hundred and twenty miles of railway have been built. A glance at the map will show that these are important sections in the Cape to Cairo railway. From Stanleyville to Lake Albert Edward the survey was completed in 1911, and an agreement reached to connect the Katanga railway with the Portuguese frontier, and the Congo with Lake Tanganyika. The latter line, because of its importance in the campaign against the Germans, was completed in March, 1915. There are also railway lines from Matadi (near Boma) to Leopoldville, and from Boma to Tshela. As the Congo from Leopoldville to Stanleyville is navigable, communication by rail and steamer is now practically complete all the way across the continent, and from the heart of Central Africa south for nearly two thousand three hundred miles to Cape Town. Unstinted credit is due to Belgian engineers and Belgian officials for vision, for energy, and for ability to surmount seemingly unsurmountable difficulties in making these railways possible. There has always been,

on the part of the Belgian authorities, whole-hearted cooperation with British and Germans in opening up Central Africa, and the three states have worked together, without too much thought of selfish advantage, in furthering transportation schemes. In March, 1914, the Colonial Minister, in a remarkable speech presenting the Congo budget, admitted that the completion of the German line from Dar-es-Salaam to Lake Tanganyika was going to modify transport conditions by attracting traffic that would otherwise go west through Belgian territory all the way to the Atlantic. But he believed that there was room for all, and that the influence of German activity on Belgian railway plans was much exaggerated. He thought, on the other hand, that Belgium would ultimately draw advantages from the increased means of transportation in all directions. He submitted new railway projects for over two thousand miles of interior lines. [See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation; 1914: Summary of European occupation.] Aside from slight difficulties with Great Britain over the Bahr-el-Ghazal and Uganda frontiers, and the evacuation of the Lado Enclave, Belgium has worked in harmony and in a friendly spirit with France, Great Britain, Germany, and Portugal in the establishment of frontiers. [See AFRICA: Modern European occupation; 1914: Distribution of European sovereignty.] Too much praise cannot be given to the members of the frontier commissions everywhere in Africa for the completion, without friction, of tasks that are little appreciated and talked about, though arduous and perilous. How often have frontier commissions had to make their own maps, decide on questions that may in the future be of tremendous importance, and at the same time be ever on the alert to defend themselves against hostile savages and keep in check jungle and swamp fevers! Belgium has a rich possession in the Congo, especially since the solving of means of transport has done away with dependence upon native porters and has made possible the development of mining. In the Katanga region, copper and tin and diamonds have been discovered. In many valleys of the Congo tributaries there is gold. The palm oil and palm nut industries are developing encouragingly. In view of the rapid decrease of forest produce, this means economic salvation for the Congo. For concession companies, knowing that they had to make hay while the sun was shining and as indifferent to the future as if they had been American lumber companies, deliberately killed the goose that laid the golden egg. In 1912, forest produce fell off nearly ten per cent., and in 1913, the export of rubber decreased fifty per cent. . . . Belgium in the Congo, like other European nations in their colonial possessions, is waking up to the fact that the State alone feels its responsibility towards unborn generations, and that only by governmental restrictions, enforced by capable governmental supervision, can individuals and corporations be prevented from sacrificing the future for immediate gain. The rubber industry in the Congo illustrates this principle perfectly. Big dividends to-day, for to-morrow our leases may be revoked. The devil take the future. Belgian experiences in administration and finance in the Congo have not been very different from those of Germany and Italy in their early days as colonizing states. An official class, accustomed to deal with colonial problems, cannot be created in a generation. Pioneers make many mistakes. Socialist parties—every Opposition in fact—use colonial blunders and mismanagement, real or fancied, for attacks upon Government, especially in con-

nection with budget estimates. In Belgium as in Germany the Socialists have been the voice of conscience. We have already mentioned Vander-velde's courage in speaking the unwelcome truth after his visit to the Congo. Time and again he and other Socialists criticized in the Chamber what they considered unjust decrees of the Colonial Minister, and exposed abuses. But the Socialists, while performing this useful service, are obstructionists in money matters, and oppose consistently "throwing good money after bad" in colonial enterprises. They oppose also military service abroad. There was a howl when Belgium sent nearly four thousand soldiers for Congo duty in 1909, and the deficit revealed in the 1910 budget added to the complication of the British attitude. As far as revenue goes, things have not been improved. Just before the war the revelation of a deficit of nearly five million dollars in the 1914 estimates made difficult getting the ear of the Chamber for railway grants. The customs yield to the Belgian Congo is not much larger than that of Sierra Leone, with one-thirtieth of the area and one-fiftieth of the Congo population. Although reforms have been sincerely effected, Belgium has still the same great problem of colonial administration that France and Portugal face in Africa. These states possess enormous territories, which are not well administered and developed as they might be *because they have not the surplus population able and willing to undertake the task.* Before the war, the Belgian Congo was run by a staff of Europeans of many nationalities, some of them adventurers of the worst type. Even among the high officials, many were not Belgian. They were in the Congo only because they saw there an opportunity to have influence and to make money that was denied to them in their countries of origin. Belgium has given valuable assistance in the long two years campaign against German East Africa. I have understood, on good authority, that she has been able to train, equip, officer, and put into the field twenty thousand native troops. . . . The Germans have not hesitated [during the war] to insinuate that the great sums loaned to Belgium by the Allies, especially by Great Britain, would be secured by Anglo-French economic, if not political, control of the Congo. In order to make clear the intentions of the Allies, and to set at rest the minds of the Belgians and allay suspicions of neutrals, the French Minister handed to the Belgian Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Havre on April 29, 1916, the following declaration: 'Referring on one hand to the agreements with Belgium of April 23-24, 1884, February 5, 1895, and December 23, 1908, and on the other hand to the note handed on September 10, 1914, to the Belgian Government by the Minister of Great Britain on the subject of the Congo as well as to the declaration of the Powers guarantors of the independence and neutrality of Belgium on February 14, 1916, the Government of the French Republic declares that it will lend its aid to the Belgian Government at the time of the peace negotiations with the view of maintaining the Belgian Congo in its present territorial status and of having attributed to this colony a special indemnity for the losses incurred in the course of the war.' On the same day, the British and Russian representatives at Sainte Adresse stated that their Governments adhered to this declaration, and the Italian and Japanese representatives that Italy and Japan approved the French note."—H. A. Gibbons, *New map of Africa*, pp. 165-171.

1920.—Post-bellum addition of territory.—
"By a decision of the Supreme Council, made public

early in March, German East Africa has been divided between Great Britain and Belgium; of the total area of 384,000 square miles Great Britain received 366,000; the two northwestern provinces of Ruanda and Urundi were assigned to Belgium. Theoretically these assignments were made under the mandatory system."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carmen (*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920, p. 16).

1921.—Plans for Belgian Congo at the colonial conference at Brussels.—Maurice Nippens appointed governor.—"A colonial conference was held in Brussels on Dec. 18, at which King Albert made an important speech, urging the improvement of health measures in the Belgian Congo. He referred to 'the extraordinary results which the Americans and Brazilians have achieved by good methods in districts even more unhealthy than Africa.' Belgium must modernize the Congo, he

declared, and develop for the good of the black population and for the benefit of civilized nations all the wealth of its soil and subsoil. King Albert has appointed Maurice Nippens, Governor of East Flanders, to be Governor General of the Congo."—*Times Current History*, February, 1921, p. 316.

BELGIAN DEPORTATIONS TO GERMANY. See BELGIUM: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule, etc.: b.

BELGIAN MILITARY CROSSES. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VIII. War Medals: a.

BELGIAN RELIEF. See BELGIUM: 1914-1918; INTERNATIONAL RELIEF; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief: a; XIV. Cost of war; b:8.

BELGICA ANTARCTIC EXPEDITION. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1897, and Map.

BELGIUM

Geographic description.—A kingdom of north-west Europe, "Belgium (La Belgique) is situated between $49\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ and $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ N., that is to say, between the parallels of the island of Guernsey and of London. It is bordered on the west by the North sea which separates it from England, on all other sides there are land frontiers; towards the Netherlands on the north, Germany and the grand duchy of Luxemburg on the east, and France on the south. The short sea-coast, extending for only 42 miles, is washed by a sea so shallow that the depth does not exceed five fathoms until at least five miles from the shore. The shore itself is entirely composed of sand, very low and uniform, but suitable for the establishment of sea-side watering places; it is separated by a line of dunes from the low plain of the interior. From the dunes the land rises gradually towards the south-east, but to the north the surface is absolutely flat throughout the greater part of the provinces of Flanders, Antwerp, and Limburg. In the centre nearly parallel undulations of the ground separate the tributaries of the Scheldt; and the surface exceeds 600 feet in elevation at a few points along the left bank of the Sambre and Meuse. South-east of the line formed by these two rivers the land becomes more broken and picturesque, rising to the high plateau of the Ardennes with a maximum elevation of 2,230 feet, and sinking again on the southern frontier to about 1,000 feet above the sea."—J. du Fief, *Belgium (International geography, pp. 223-224)*.—It has an area of 11,373 sq. miles and (in 1919) a population of 7,577,027.—See also CANALS: Principal European canals: Belgium; NETHERLANDS: Map.

Resources.—Coal is the chief source of wealth in Belgium and the deposits extend over nearly one-twentieth of the land. Other minerals are produced such as iron, lead, copper, zinc, etc., but the output is not large. Agricultural products are of minor importance, though rye and beets are extensively grown. Stock-raising is actively carried on and animals are one of the important exports of the country. Belgium's chief source of prosperity lies in her manufacturing which is large and varied. The textile industries rank first (linen, cotton and woolen); the metal industry follows close behind. Belgium is famous for its carpets, lace, lawn, damask and porcelainware.

Ancient and medieval period (B.C. 6th century—A.D. 13th century).—Early races.—Empire of

Charlemagne.—Treaty of Verdun.—Lack of unity.—Growth of feudalism.—French domination.—Development of the communes.—About five hundred years before Christ the Celts invaded what is today known as Belgium, and subjugated the Ligurians who inhabited the country. The Germanic tribes settled in the country some centuries later (about A.D. 200). Thus, the Belgians of today are descended from Celtic and Germanic tribes. With the departure of the Romans, who, until about the fifth century A.D. held dominion over the country, the Franks spread over Belgium, particularly along the Scheldt and the Lys. In close proximity with the Celts the Germans were soon merged into the population. With no geographical and hardly any other sort of barrier separating them, the difference between the two races is barely perceptible; the two peoples remain face to face, the Walloons of today, designated Walas many centuries ago (about A.D. 600) by the Germans, and the Flemings, the descendants of the Franks. With the beginning of the sixth century (about A.D. 506) the Franks under King Clodovech [Clovis] conquered Northern France and took possession of the country inhabited by the Burgundians and the West Goths, whom they had defeated. The earlier kings of the Merovingian dynasty, such as Clodovech and Clodion, were powerful leaders, but the successors of the same line were unable to combat their intriguing diplomats and ministers with the result that one, Pepin, placed himself upon the throne (751) and founded the new dynasty, the Carolingian line. [See also FRANKS: 481-511.] "The most famous of the Carolingians is Charles the Great, who re-established the old Roman Empire (800) and who, by successful campaigns, succeeded in extending his domination over the territory lying between the river Elbe, the Bohemian Mountains, and the Raab on the east, the sea on the west, and the North Sea, and the Garigliano River in Italy and the Ebro River in Spain on the south."—L. van der Essen, *Short history of Belgium*, p. 12.—With the death of Charles the Great (814) the mighty empire crumbled as a result of internal troubles and the weakness of his son, Emperor Louis. Then followed civil war between the three sons of Louis which led to the famous treaty of Verdun (843) (q.v.).—See also BELGAE; FLANDERS; FRANKS; LIÈGE; LORRAINE; NERVII; NETHERLANDS.

"The empire created by Charles the Great was divided into three parts: the central part, including

the largest portion of Belgium, Holland, Italy, and the eastern part of France, was allotted to Lotharius, together with the title of Emperor; the western part of the empire, embracing the largest part of France, and Flanders to the west of the Scheldt, became the share of Charles; the eastern part, which included nearly the whole of Germany and certain parts of Austria-Hungary, was given to Louis. The Treaty of Verdun [843] practically cut the territory of Belgium into two parts, separated by the Scheldt, and gave each of them to a different ruler. These two sections of Belgium remained separated during the Middle Ages, and were not reunited until six centuries later. After the death of Emperor Lotharius (855) the northern part of his central territory, located between the North Sea and the Jura Mountains, was given to one of his sons, Lotharius II. That section which included the entire eastern part of Belgium to the Scheldt embraced peoples of very different race and origin: Frisians, Franks, Alamans, Walloons. As it was impossible to name the territory after its inhabitants—they were of too many different origins—it was named after its sovereign: *regnum Lotharii* 'Lotharingia,' 'the realm of Lotharius.' In 870 the Treaty of Meerssen [Mersen], whereby Charles, King of France, and Louis, King of Germany, divided between them the realm of Lotharius II, ended the existence of that state. The second Treaty of Verdun in 879 finally settled the status of Lotharingia: the boundary between France and Germany was declared to be the river Scheldt, and the whole of Lotharingia was incorporated in Germany. Of course, all the parts of the former empire of Charles the Great were once again united by the Emperor Charles the Stout, but after all kinds of internal struggles, Lotharingia was again—and this time for many centuries—annexed to Germany in 925. [See VERDUN, TREATY OF; FRANKS; GERMANY: 800 to 881.] Belgium is thus divided into two tracts by the Scheldt: the western part, Flanders, belonging to France and politically influenced by that country; the eastern part, Lotharingia, which was a dependency of Germany. . . . Thus, at the beginning of the feudal system, there existed no political and no linguistic unity in Belgium. Moreover, although Flanders formed a politically united body, Lotharingia was subdivided into several small principalities: the duchy of Brabant, including the actual provinces of Brabant and Antwerp, the county of Limburg, the county of Namur, the duchy of Luxemburg, the county of Hainaut, and two ecclesiastical principalities, Cambrai and Liège. [See ANTWERP; and LUXEMBURG.] The absence of political unity was a consequence of the new political constitution of most of the countries of Western Europe in the tenth century—of feudalism, so called. In place of the former despotic and centralized power of the King there was now to be found the locally asserted rule of dukes, counts, viscounts, etc. These public officers who, in the ninth century, were still subordinate agents of the King, without any other power than that delegated to them by their master, had succeeded, partly through the weakness of the heirs of Charles the Great and partly on account of the invasions of the Normans in the ninth century and the incursion of the Hungarians in the tenth, in grasping more firmly their delegated powers and in making their military, political, and financial perquisites hereditary. Thanks to the custom whereby the King granted them a domain, called *beneficium*, as a reward for their services or to insure their loyalty, they had succeeded in getting a strong political foothold in their respective provinces, and had continuously developed their

possessions and their influence. In the tenth century the dukes and counts, formerly officers of the King, had won for themselves an independent and hereditary position. The kingdom was now everywhere broken up into small principalities, practically autonomous, where the King no longer exercised his power and where the people were now dominated by local dynasties. The new political organization, called feudalism, existed, of course, in Belgium also, and contributed in a large measure to the complete absence of political and national unity throughout the country. . . . From the middle of the twelfth century on, the national life of the eastern part of Belgium displayed more and more cohesion and individuality; little by little it broke down the geographical barrier of the Scheldt that the Treaty of Verdun had erected between Lotharingia and Flanders. Meanwhile the western part of Belgium, the county of Flanders, had developed also in its way. Assigned by the Treaty of Verdun to the kingdom of France, Flanders did not seek a separation from a country to which it was geographically attached and on whose territory were to be found the seats of its bishoprics and most of its monasteries. The political power of the house of Flanders dates from the time of Count Baldwin I, called Baldwin of the Iron Arm (879), an adventurous ruler, who violently took the daughter of the King of France, his lord, and made her his wife, notwithstanding the vehement protest of her royal father. . . . Baldwin II (910) enlarged his domain by conquering the wealthy regions of Walloon-Flanders and Artois and formed an alliance with England by marrying an Anglo-Saxon princess. Count Arnulf (918) took the title of marquis and tried—though vainly—to overpower the Duke of Normandy, who checked his advance in the south and with it the extension of Flemish conquest beyond the river Canche. Effectively blocked in their efforts to extend their power in the south, the Flemish counts next turned their attention to the north and the east. . . . [See FLANDERS: 863.] By the conquest of the county of Alost, Count Baldwin V was enabled to cross the Scheldt and to advance into Lotharingian territory. The marriage of his son with a princess of Hainaut, resulted in uniting both Flanders and Hainaut under the same dynasty. Here again the barrier of the Scheldt, broken by the Treaty of Verdun, was broken down and for the first time political ties were established on both sides of the Scheldt, between the two parts of Belgium. Coincident with the first sign of a tendency to union between Eastern and Western Belgium, Flanders began to come into closer contact with foreign countries and powers. As the son of Baldwin V had married the daughter of William the Conqueror, Duke of Normandy, many Flemish troops took part in the conquest of England by the Normans (1066), and these remained in the British Isles for purposes of colonization. Diplomatic and commercial relations between Flanders and England were the happy result. . . . In the twelfth century, however, the political expansion of Flanders came to a standstill. . . . A new epoch opens with the twelfth century in the history of Belgium. The era is frequently called the 'Time of the Communes,' because the internal political life of the country, from then on, was dominated by the development of the free cities (communes) and of their municipal institutions. And it has been said that 'in the part played by the cities since the twelfth century lies the best of the history of the Netherlands.' Until the rise of the communes, only two classes of people, the noblemen and the priests, were given any recognition. There remained, of

course, the peasant farmers, but they had no political or social power. After the twelfth century, a new class sprang into existence—the burghesses (bourgeois, burgers), the citizens of the free cities—and the rise of that class exerted a tremendous influence on the political and social development of the nation. To the tyranny of feudalism it opposed the spirit of personal and collective freedom, and the social construction of the nation was materially influenced by the introduction of the new elements it represented. The origin and development of the communes was mainly due to economic conditions: the Belgian cities of the Middle Ages were the daughters of trade and industry.

“This remarkable development of trade and industry was mainly responsible for the origin and growth of the communes. . . . In this manner the cities of Bruges, Ghent, Brussels, Louvain, Liège,

soon began to meddle in politics and to become political organizations as well. . . . [See also *GUILDS: Medieval.*] The commune possessed political and judicial autonomy and its inhabitants were personally free. . . . Although the commune owed certain duties to the lord, it had also, as a politically autonomous body, some important rights. . . . As the commune exercised the right of life and death over its members, it erected as symbols of that right the pillory and the gallows, generally at the gate or outside of the city wall. . . . The existence of the communes exerted a powerful influence on the internal politics of the feudal lords of Belgium. The latter were forced to take the communes more and more into account and to change their political attitude in accordance with the wishes of the burghesses. . . . As a matter of fact, war was no longer possible without the consent of the communes, and it resulted, there-



CLOTH HALL, YPRES
Before destruction in 1915

Malines, etc., were born, for it is an interesting point of Belgian history that nearly all the cities originated during the Middle Ages, very few of them dating back to the Roman times. Those colonies of merchants and craftsmen grouped together in professional and religious associations were called 'guilds,' and introduced an entirely new spirit among the people of the growing town. The unfree population dependent upon the convent, the church, or the castle had no means of changing its conditions of life, bound as it was by the numerous ties of feudal and other obligations. But the traders had to secure for themselves a certain degree of liberty, safety, and autonomy. The feudal régime or the rules of the manor were intolerable to them. The operation of the system was too tyrannous; it acted too much as a restraint on private liberty and would have rendered the free development of commercial and industrial enterprises impossible. [See *COMMERCE: Medieval: 8th-16th centuries.*] The guilds, there-

fore, that the burghesses, if in disagreement with their lord, instead of assisting him, appealed to foreign rulers and fought against their own prince. . . . No less important was the influence they exerted—mainly during the thirteenth century—in the development of the economic, industrial, social, intellectual, and artistic life of the country. . . . Toward the middle of the thirteenth century Bruges was enjoying trade relations with England, Normandy, Gascony, Spain, Provence, and the Hanscatic cities. . . . At the time of the communes manufacture was even more important than trade. . . . There remains the city of Liège (q. v.) in Eastern Belgium. This was a city of priests, the residence of the bishop-prince. It was filled with churches, convents, and chapels. The land was owned largely by religious communities. But the priests were more numerous than the burghesses. There was no thought here of industry until the end of the Middle Ages, when this part of the country became the seat of collieries and ironworks. . . . Under the influence of such commercial and indus-

trial conditions as we have recited, the life of the country people and the control of the soil were entirely transformed."—L. van der Essen, *Short history of Belgium*, pp. 17-20, 23-25, 36, 39-48.

1297-1477.—**Hundred Years' War.**—**French loss of influence.**—Added to Austrian possessions by marriage.—"In 1297 a fresh treaty was concluded between Edward and Gui [or Guy, inquisitor of Languedoc], and Edward took the field in Flanders at the head of an English army, but no great fighting followed. The war between France and Flanders was suspended by an armistice, and a treaty of peace concluded between England and France deprived Gui of English support in his final contest with Philippe le Bel. . . . Commercial interests made the citizens of Flanders eager to side with England; but Louis de Nevers, Count of Flanders, remained true to his feudal duty to the French king, and did not hesitate to face ruin in opposing Edward. The first contest of the Hundred Years' War took place on the soil of the Low Countries, on the 11th of November, 1337, when English soldiers flung themselves into the island of Cadzand [Kadzand], and cut in pieces the Flemish troops placed there to defend the coast. In the following July, Edward, escorted by four hundred ships, sailed up the Scheldt, and disembarked at Antwerp. . . . Supported, possibly instigated, by the Flemish burghers, Edward III assumed the title and arms of King of France, in Ghent, on the 26th of January, 1340, on the *Marché du Vendredi*, the city's historic square, where he received the homage of the municipalities of the three great towns of Flanders, and, his hand on the Bible, swore to maintain their rights and independence. Edward III remained faithful to the Flemish, and their country profited by the victories gained by England over France in the Hundred Years' War. . . . The ties which bound Belgium to France grew weaker and more weak as disasters swept over France during the Hundred Years' War [see FRANCE: 1337-1360]. At the same time the lesser principalities in Belgium became merged in the greater ones, and the line of demarcation traced at Verdun was gradually blotted out. In the fourteenth century the older dynasties died out in the direct lines, and their states passed by inheritance to three foreign houses. The House of Luxembourg became ruler of Brabant, while retaining Luxembourg; Bavaria, ruler of Holland, Zealand, Hainaut, and Liège; and Burgundy, of Flanders and Artois. . . . By these changes the work of centuries was completed. A new state appeared on the map between France and Germany, not only precursor, but direct and legitimate ancestor of the modern kingdoms of Belgium and Holland. The political organization created by the Burgundian dukes in Belgium remained the basis of that country's national institutions until the end of the old régime. Amidst the changes of kingdoms and dynasties Belgium was neither absorbed nor annexed, until the French revolution, and then her annexation to France was but momentary. By the marriage of Mary of Burgundy with Maximilian of Austria the sceptre of Belgium passed into the hands of the Hapsburgs. It was as heirs of Burgundy that the Kings and Emperors of Spain and Austria ruled over the Low Countries."—J. de C. MacDonnell, *Belgium, her kings, kingdom and people*, pp. 28-35.—See also BURGUNDY.

1566.—**Riot of image breakers in Antwerp.** See NETHERLANDS: 1566.

17th century.—**Historiography.** See HISTORY: 24.

1647-1648.—**Battle of Lens.**—Gradual loss of territory by France.—Through the negligence and incompetence of the generals in charge, France was losing ground in the Netherlands. Condé relieved Lens which had been besieged by the enemy under the Archduke Leopold. It was, although hard-won, a decisive victory. See NETHERLANDS: 1648.

1648.—**Spanish Netherlands separated from the United Provinces (Netherlands).**—About the year 1648 the history of the Catholic, or Spanish Netherlands became, by the recognition of the independence of the United Provinces, entirely separated from the history of their Protestant neighbors. It has been considered advisable, therefore, to give the Southern Netherlands a separate record, and, in spite of its possession by Spain, Austria and France in turn, to classify this area under the title which the provinces assumed when their own independence was achieved, namely, Belgium. The history of those provinces prior to 1648 will be found under Netherlands.

1648.—Still considered a part of the Holy Roman Empire. See GERMANY: 1648.

1652.—**Recovery of Dunkirk and Gravelines.**—Invasion of France. See FRANCE: 1652.

1653-1656.—**Campaigns of Condé in the service of Spain against France.** See FRANCE: 1653-1656.

1657-1658.—**England in alliance with France in the Franco-Spanish War.**—Loss of Dunkirk and Gravelines. See FRANCE: 1655-1658.

1659.—**Cessions of territory to France by the Treaty of the Pyrenees.** See FRANCE: 1650-1661.

1667.—**Claims and conquests of Louis XIV.**—**War of the Queen's Rights.**—In 1660 Louis XIV, king of France, was married to the Infanta of Spain, Maria Theresa, daughter of Philip IV, who solemnly renounced at the time, for herself and her posterity, all rights to the Spanish crown. The insincerity and hollowness of the renunciation was proved terribly at a later time by the long "war of the Spanish succession." Meantime Louis discovered other pretended rights in his Spanish wife on which he might found claims for the satisfaction of his territorial greed. These rested on the fact that she was born of her father's first marriage, and that a customary right in certain provinces of the Spanish Netherlands gave daughters of a first marriage priority of inheritance over sons of a second marriage. At the same time, in the laws of Luxemburg and Franche-Comté, which admitted all children to the partition of an inheritance, he found pretext for claiming, on behalf of his wife, one fourth of the former and one third of the principality last named. Philip IV of Spain died in September, 1665, leaving a sickly infant son under the regency of an incapable and priest-ruled mother, and Louis began quickly to press his claims. Having made his preparations on a formidable scale, he sent forth in May, 1667, to all the courts of Europe, an elaborate "Treatise on the Rights of the Most Christian Queen over divers States of the monarchy of Spain," announcing at the same time his intention to make a "journey" in the Catholic Netherlands—the intended journey being a ruthless invasion, in fact, with 50,000 men, under the command of the great marshal-general, Turenne. The army began its march simultaneously with the announcement of its purpose, crossing the frontier on May 24. Town after town was taken, some without resistance and others after a short, sharp siege, directed by Vauban, the most famous among military engineers. Charleroi was occupied on June 2; Tournay surrendered on the 24th; two weeks later Douai fell; Courtrai endured only four days of siege and

Oudenarde but two; Lille was a more difficult prize and held Turenne and the king before it for twenty days. "All Walloon Flanders had again become French at the price of less effort and bloodshed than it had cost, in the Middle Ages, to force one of its places. . . . September 1, the whole French army was found assembled before the walls of Ghent." But Ghent was not assailed, the French army being greatly fatigued and much reduced by the garrisoning of the conquered places. Louis, accordingly, returned to Saint-Germain, and Turenne, after taking Alost, went into winter quarters. Before the winter passed great changes of circumstance had occurred. The Triple Alliance of England, Holland and Sweden had been formed, Louis had made his secret treaty at Vienna with the emperor, for the partitioning of the Spanish dominions, and his further "journey" in the Netherlands was postponed.—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV.* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 1, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: A. F. Pontalis, *John de Witt*, v. 1, ch. 7.

1673-1678.—Fresh conquests by Louis XIV. See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674; 1674-1678; NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1690-1691.—Battle of Fleurus and the loss of Mons. See FRANCE: 1689-1691.

1692.—Loss of Namur and the Battle of Steenkerke. See FRANCE: 1692.

1693.—Battle of Neerwinden. See FRANCE: 1693 (July).

1694-1696.—Campaigns without battles.—Recovery of Namur. See FRANCE: 1694; and 1695-1696.

1697.—Peace of Ryswick.—French conquests restored. See FRANCE: 1697.

1698-1700.—Question of the Spanish succession.—Treaties of partition. See SPAIN: 1698-1700.

1701.—Occupied by French troops. See SPAIN: 1701-1702.

1713-1714.—Treaties of Utrecht.—Cession of the Spanish provinces to the house of Austria.—Barrier towns secured. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1744.—Invasion by the French. See AUSTRIA: 1743-1744.

1745.—War of the Austrian succession; Battle of Fontenoy.—French conquests.—In the spring of 1745, while events in the second Silesian War were still threatening to Frederick the Great (see AUSTRIA: 1744-1745), his allies, the French, though indifferent to his troubles, were doing better for themselves in the Netherlands. They had given to Marshal de Saxe, who commanded there, an army of 76,000 excellent troops. "As to the Allies, England had furnished her full contingent of 28,000 men, but Holland less than half of the 50,000 she had stipulated; there were but eight Austrian squadrons, and the whole body scarcely exceeded 50,000 fighting men. The nominal leader was the young Duke of Cumberland, but subject in a great measure to the control of an Austrian veteran, Marshal Königsegg, and obliged to consult the Dutch commander, Prince de Waldeck. Against these inferior numbers and divided councils the French advanced in full confidence of victory, and, after various movements to distract the attention of the Allies, suddenly, on the 1st of May, invested Tournay. . . . To relieve this important city, immediately became the principal object with the Allies; and the States, usually so cautious, nay, timorous in their suggestions, were now as eager in demanding battle. . . . On the other hand, the Mareschal de Saxe made most

skilful dispositions to receive them. Leaving 15,000 infantry to cover the blockade of Tournay, he drew up the rest of his army, a few miles further, in an excellent position, which he strengthened with numerous works; and his soldiers were inspired by the arrival of the King and Dauphin, who had hastened from Paris to join in the expected action. The three allied generals, on advancing against the French, found them encamped on some gentle heights, with the village of Antoin and the river Scheldt on their right, Fontenoy and a narrow valley in their front, and a small wood named Barré on their left. The passage of the Scheldt, and, if needful, a retreat, were secured by the bridge of Calonne in the rear, by a tête de pont [bridge-head], and by a reserve of the Household Troops. Abbatis were constructed in the wood of Barré; redoubts between Antoin and Fontenoy; and the villages themselves had been carefully fortified and garrisoned. The narrow space between Fontenoy and Barré seemed sufficiently defended by cross fires, and by the natural ruggedness of the ground; in short, as the French officers thought, the strength of the position might bid defiance to the boldest assailant. Nevertheless, the Allied chiefs, who had already resolved on a general engagement, drove in the French pickets and outposts on the 10th of May, New Style [13 days ahead of Old Style], and issued orders for their intended attack at daybreak. . . . At six o'clock on the morning of the 11th, the cannonade began. The Prince of Waldeck, and his Dutch, undertook to carry Antoin and Fontenoy by assault, while the Duke of Cumberland, at the head of the British and Hanoverians, was to advance against the enemy's left. His Royal Highness, at the same time with his own attack, sent General Ingoldsby, with a division, to pierce through the wood of Barré, and storm the redoubt beyond it." Ingoldsby's division and the Dutch troops were both repulsed, and the latter made no further effort. But the British and Hanoverians, leaving their cavalry behind and dragging with them a few field pieces, "plunged down the ravine between Fontenoy and Barré, and marched on against a position which the best Marshals of France had deemed impregnable, and which the best troops of that nation defended. . . . Whole ranks of the British were swept away, at once, by the murderous fire of the batteries on their left and right. Still did their column, diminishing in numbers not in spirit, steadily press forward, repulse several desperate attacks of the French infantry, and gain ground on its position. . . . The battle appeared to be decided: already did Marshal Königsegg offer his congratulations to the Duke of Cumberland; already had Mareschal de Saxe prepared for retreat, and, in repeated messages, urged the King to consult his safety and withdraw, while it was yet time, beyond the Scheldt." The continued inactivity of the Dutch, however, enabled the French commander to gather his last reserves at the one point of danger, while he brought another battery to bear on the head of the advancing British column. "The British, exhausted by their own exertions, mowed down by the artillery in front, and assailed by the fresh troops in flank, were overpowered. Their column wavered—broke—fell back. . . . In this battle of Fontenoy (for such is the name it has borne), the British left behind a few pieces of artillery, but no standards, and scarce any prisoners but the wounded. The loss in these, and in killed, was given out as 4,041 British, 1,762 Hanoverians, and only 1,544 Dutch; while on their part the French likewise acknowledged above 7,000." As the consequence

of the battle of Fontenoy, not only Tournay, but Ghent, likewise, was speedily surrendered to the French. "Equal success crowned similar attempts on Bruges, on Oudenarde, and on Dendermonde, while the allies could only act on the defensive and cover Brussels and Antwerp. The French next directed their arms against Ostend, . . . which . . . yielded in fourteen days. . . . Meanwhile the events in Scotland [the Jacobite rebellion—see SCOTLAND: 1745-1746] were compelling the British government to withdraw the greater part of their force; and it was only the approach of winter, and the retreat of both armies into quarters, that obtained a brief respite for the remaining fortresses of Flanders."—Lord Mahon (Earl Stanhope), *History of England*, 1713-1783, v. 3, ch. 26.

ALSO IN: F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France*, v. 6, ch. 52.—J. G. Wilson, *Sketches of illustrious soldiers: Saxe*.

1746-1747.—War of the Austrian Succession: French conquest of the Austrian provinces.—Humiliation of Holland.—Stadtholdership restored.—"In the campaign in Flanders in 1746, the French followed up the successes which they had achieved in the previous year. Brussels, Antwerp, Mons, Charleroi, Namur, and other places successively surrendered to Marshal Saxe and the Prince of Conti. After the capture of Namur in September, Marshal Saxe, reuniting all the French forces, attacked Prince Charles of Lorraine at Raucoux [or Roucoux], between Liège and Viset, and completely defeated him, October 11; after which both sides went into winter quarters. All the country between the Meuse and the sea was now in the power of France, Austria retaining only Luxemburg and Limburg. . . . Ever since the year 1745 some negotiations had been going on between France and the Dutch for the re-establishment of peace. The States-General had proposed the assembling of a Congress to the Cabinet of Vienna, which, however, had been rejected. In September 1746, conferences had been opened at Breda, between France, Great Britain, and the States-General; but as Great Britain had gained some advantages at sea, the negotiations were protracted, and the Cabinets of London and Vienna had endeavoured to induce the Dutch to take a more direct and active part in the war. In this state of things the Court of Versailles took a sudden resolution to coerce the States-General. A manifest was published by Louis XV. April 17th 1747, filled with those pretexts which it is easy to find on such occasions: not, indeed, exactly declaring war against the Dutch Republic, but that he should enter her territories 'without breaking with her'; that he should hold in deposit the places he might conquer, and restore them as soon as the States ceased to succour his enemies. At the same time Count Löwendahl entered Dutch Flanders by Bruges, and seized in less than a month Sluys, Ysendick, Sas de Gand, Hulst, Axel, and other places. Holland had now very much declined from the position she had held a century before. There were indeed many large capitalists in the United Provinces, whose wealth had been amassed during the period of the Republic's commercial prosperity, but the State as a whole was impoverished and steeped in debt. . . . In . . . becoming the capitalists and money-lenders of Europe, they [the Dutch] had ceased to be her brokers and carriers. . . . Holland was no longer the entrepôt of nations. The English, the Swedes, the Danes, and the Hamburgers had appropriated the greater part of her trade. Such was the result of the long wars in which she had been engaged. . . . Her political consideration had

dwindled equally with her commerce. Instead of pretending as formerly to be the arbiter of nations, she had become little more than the satellite of Great Britain; a position forced upon her by fear of France, and her anxiety to maintain her barriers against that encroaching Power. Since the death of William III., the republican or aristocratic party had again seized the ascendancy. William III.'s collateral heir, John William Friso, had not been recognised as Stadtholder, and the Republic was again governed, as in the time of De Witt, by a Grand Pensionary and greffier. The dominant party had, however, become highly unpopular. It had sacrificed the army to maintain the fleet, and the Republic seemed to lie at the mercy of France. At the approach of the French, consternation reigned in the provinces. The Orange party raised its head and demanded the re-establishment of the Stadtholdership. The town of Veere in Zealand gave the example of insurrection, and William IV. of Nassau-Dietz, who was already Stadtholder of Friesland, Gröningen and Gelderland, was ultimately proclaimed hereditary Stadtholder, Captain-General and Admiral of the United Provinces. William IV. was the son of John William Friso, and son-in-law of George II., whose daughter, Anne, he had married. The French threatening to attack Maestricht, the allies under the Duke of Cumberland marched to Lawfeld in order to protect it. Here they were attacked by Marshal Saxe, July 2nd 1747, and after a bloody battle compelled to recross the Meuse. The Duke of Cumberland, however, took up a position which prevented the French from investing Maestricht. On the other hand, Löwendahl [a Swedish general in the French service] carried Bergen-op-Zoom by assault, July 16th." The following spring (1748), the French succeeded in laying siege to Maestricht, notwithstanding the presence of the allies, and it was surrendered to them on May 7. "Negotiations had been going on throughout the winter, and a Congress had been appointed to meet at Aix-la-Chapelle, whose first conference took place April 24th 1748." The taking of Maestricht was intended to stimulate these negotiations for peace, and it undoubtedly had that effect. The treaties which concluded the war were signed the following October.—T. H. Dyer, *History of modern Europe*, v. 3, bk. 6, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: C. M. Davies, *History of Holland*, pt. 3, ch. 12, pt. 4, ch. 1.

1789-1790.—Results of Brabancon revolt. See VONCKISTS.

1789-1793.—Charity and poor relief laws. See CHARITIES: Belgium: 1650-1793.

1794.—Loss of Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914.

1797.—Ceded to France. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

1797-1815.—Conditions during the French Revolution and under Napoleon.—Belgium, or the former Austrian provinces and Liège, annexed to Holland, and the kingdom of the Netherlands created (1814).—"For these countries [Austrian Netherlands, Bishopric of Liège, and the old United Provinces] the French occupation had been not a mere episode, but a profound transformation. It had swept clean the ground on which the political edifice of the nineteenth century was to be built. There were in the Low Countries before the Revolution provinces of very unequal importance, governed under old and dissimilar customs, some of them without political rights (the Belgian districts conquered by the Dutch). Society was divided into classes unequal before the law; all political power was in the

hands of certain families or privileged bodies; the central government was weak; religious liberty was not recognised. France had swept away all the privileges, all the customs, all the political bodies of the provinces. She had set up in their stead the French system—equality among the citizens, equality among the provinces, systematic division into departments, each provided with a complete system of public services. The old aristocratic and irregular system was gone; a new democratic society, with a centralized administration had been created in its stead. This new society has made the Netherlands of the nineteenth century. The French revolutionary *regime* has remained firmly rooted in the country; but French rule did survive the fall of Napoleon. The inhabitants had little liking for it, as it came to them in the form of the military blockade—death and ruin. As soon as the French armies withdrew French administration collapsed. The movement began with the arrival of the allied army at The Hague. . . . Belgian provinces and the Bishopric of Liège having no legitimate sovereigns were treated as vacant territory. The Allies being friendly to the Orange family, gave these lands to the kingdom of the Netherlands in order to strengthen it and put it in a position to resist attack until the powers could come to its aid. The kingdom was to serve as a barrier against France.”—C. Seignobos, *Political history of Europe*, pp. 229, 230.—See also FRANCE: 1814 (April-June); VIENNA, CONGRESS OF. 19th century.—Educational development.—Conflict over state education. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Belgium.

1801.—Ceded to France by treaty of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803.

1815.—Waterloo campaign.—Defeat and overthrow of Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1815 (June).

1816.—Accession to the Holy Alliance. See HOLY ALLIANCE.

1830-1832.—Belgian revolt and acquisition of independence.—Dissolution of the kingdom of the Netherlands.—Creation of the kingdom of Belgium.—Siege of Antwerp citadel.—Constitution and government.—“In one sense the union” of Belgium with Holland, in the kingdom of the Netherlands created by the Congress of Vienna, “was defensible. Holland enjoyed more real freedom than any other Continental monarchy; and the Belgians had a voice in the government of the united territory. But, in another sense, the union was singularly unhappy. The phlegmatic Dutch Protestant was as indisposed to unite with the light-hearted Roman Catholic Belgian as the languid waters of the Saone with the impetuous torrent of the Rhone. Different as were the rivers, they met at last; and diplomatists probably hoped that Dutch and Belgians would similarly combine. These hopes were disappointed, and the two people, incapable of union, endeavoured to find independent courses for themselves in separate channels. The grounds of Belgian dislike to the union were intelligible. Belgium had a population of 3,400,000 souls; Holland of only 2,000,000 persons. Yet both countries had an equal representation in the States-General. Belgium was taxed more heavily than Holland, and the produce of taxation went almost entirely into Dutch pockets. The Court, which was Dutch, resided in Holland. The public offices were in Holland. Four persons out of every five in the public service at home were Dutchmen. The army was almost exclusively commanded by Dutchmen. Dutch professors were appointed to educate the Belgian youths in Belgian schools, and a Dutch director was placed over the Bank of Brussels. The Court even en-

deavoured to change the language of the Belgian race, and to substitute Dutch for French in all judicial proceedings. The Belgians were naturally irritated. . . . On the 2nd of June, the States-General were dissolved; the elections were peacefully concluded; and the closest observers failed to detect any symptoms of the coming storm on the political horizon. The storm which was to overwhelm the union was, in fact, gathering in another country. The events of July [at Paris] were to shake Europe to the centre. ‘On all sides crowns were falling into the gutter,’ and the shock of revolution in Paris was felt perceptibly in Brussels. Nine years before the States-General had imposed a mouture, or tax upon flour. The tax had been carried by a very small majority; and the majority had been almost entirely composed of Dutch members. On the 25th of August, 1830, the lower orders in Brussels engaged in a serious riot, ostensibly directed against this tax. The offices of a newspaper, conducted in the interests of the Dutch, were attacked; the house of the Minister of Justice was set on fire; the wine and spirit shops were forced open; and the mob, maddened by liquor, proceeded to other acts of pillage. On the morning of the 26th of August the troops were called out and instructed to restore order. Various conflicts took place between the soldiers and the people; but the former gained no advantage over the rioters, and were withdrawn into the Place Royale, the central square of the town. Relieved from the interference of the military, the mob continued the work of destruction. Respectable citizens, dreading the destruction of their property, organised a guard for the preservation of order. Order was preserved; but the task of preserving it had converted Brussels into an armed camp. It had placed the entire control of the town in the hands of the inhabitants. Men who had unexpectedly obtained a mastery over the situation could hardly be expected to resign the power which events had given to them. They had taken up their arms to repress a mob; victors over the populace, they turned their arms against the Government, and boldly despatched a deputation to the king urging the concession of reforms and the immediate convocation of the States-General. The king had received the news of the events at Brussels with considerable alarm. Troops had been at once ordered to march on the city; and, on the 28th of August, an army of 6,000 men had encamped under its walls. The citizens, however, represented that the entrance of the troops would be a signal for the renewal of the disturbances; and the officer in command in consequence agreed to remain passively outside the walls. The king sent the Prince of Orange to make terms with his insurgent subjects. The citizens declined to admit the prince into the city unless he came without his soldiers. The prince, unable to obtain any modification of this stipulation, was obliged to trust himself to the people alone. It was already evident that the chief town of Belgium had shaken off the control of the Dutch Government. The king, compelled to submit to the demands of the deputation, summoned the States-General for the 13th of September. But this concession only induced the Belgians to raise their demands. They had hitherto only asked for reforms; they now demanded independence, the dissolution of the union, and the independent administration of Belgium. The revolution had originally been confined to Brussels: it soon extended to other towns. Civic guards were organised in Liège, Tournay, Mons, Verviers, Bruges, and other places. Imitating the example

of Brussels, they demanded the dissolution of the union between Holland and Belgium. The troops, consisting of a mixed force of Dutch and Belgians, could not be depended on; and the restoration of the royal authority was obviously impossible. On the 13th of September the States-General met. The question of separation was referred to them by the king; and the Deputies leisurely applied themselves to its consideration, in conformity with the tedious rules by which their proceedings were regulated. Long before they had completed the preliminary discussions which they thought necessary the march of events had taken the question out of their hands. On the 19th of September fresh disturbances broke out in Brussels. The civic guard, attempting to quell the riot, was overpowered; and the rioters, elated with their success, announced their intention of attacking the troops, who were encamped outside the city walls. Prince Frederick of Orange, concluding that action was inevitable, at last made up his mind to attack the town. Dividing the forces under his command into six columns, he directed them, on the 23rd of September, against the six gates of the city. . . . Three of the columns succeeded, after a serious struggle, in obtaining possession of the higher parts of the city; but they were unable to accomplish any decisive victory. For four days the contest was renewed. On the 27th of September, the troops, unable to advance, were withdrawn from the positions which they had won. On the following day the Lower Chamber of the States-General decided in favour of a dissolution of the union. The crown of Belgium was evidently dropping into the gutter; but the king decided on making one more effort to preserve it in his family. On the 4th of October he sent the Prince of Orange to Antwerp, authorising him to form a separate Administration for the southern provinces of the kingdom, and to place himself at the head of it. . . . Arrangements of this character had, however, already become impossible. On the very day on which the prince reached Antwerp the Provisional Government at Brussels issued an ordinance declaring the independence of Belgium and the immediate convocation of a National Congress. . . . On the 10th of October, the Provisional Government, following up its former ordinance, issued a second decree, regulating the composition of the National Congress and the qualifications of the electors. On the 12th the elections were fixed for the 27th of October. On the 10th of November the Congress was formally opened; and on the 18th the independence of the Belgian people was formally proclaimed by its authority. . . . On the 4th of November the Ministers of the five great Continental powers, assembled in London at the invitation of the King of Holland, declared that an armistice should immediately be concluded, and that the Dutch troops should be withdrawn from Belgium. The signature of this protocol, on the eve of the meeting of the National Congress, virtually led to the independence of the Belgian people, which the Congress immediately proclaimed."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, v. 2, ch. 11.—It still remained for the Powers to provide a king for Belgium, and to gain the consent of the Dutch and Belgian governments to the territorial arrangements drawn up for them. The first difficulty was overcome in June, 1831, by the choice of Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg to be king of Belgium. The second problem was complicated by strong claims on both sides to the grand duchy of Luxemburg. The conference solved it by dividing the disputed territory between Belgium and Holland. The Belgians accepted the arrangement; the

king of Holland rejected it, and was coerced by France and England, who expelled his forces from Antwerp, which he still held. A French army laid siege to the citadel, while an English fleet blockaded the river Scheldt. After a bombardment of twenty-four days, December, 1832, the citadel surrendered; but it was not until April, 1839, the final treaty of peace between Belgium and Holland was signed.—C. A. Fyffe, *History of modern Europe*, v. 2, ch. 5.—"According to the Constitution of 1831 Belgium is 'a constitutional representative, and hereditary monarchy.' The legislative power is vested in the King, the Senate, and the Chamber of Representatives. The royal succession is in the direct male line in the order of primogeniture. By marriage without the King's consent, however, the right of succession is forfeited, but may be restored by the King with the consent of the two Chambers. No act of the King can have effect unless countersigned by one of his ministers, who thus becomes responsible for it. The King convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the Chambers. In default of male heirs, the King may nominate his successor with the consent of the Chambers."—*Statesman's year book*, 1920.—"In the event of a minority, or of the incapacity of the sovereign, the two houses are required to meet in a single assembly for the purpose of making provision for a regency. The powers of regent may not be conferred upon two or more persons jointly, and during the continuance of a regency no changes may be made in the constitution. If by any chance the throne should fall wholly vacant, the choice of a sovereign would devolve upon the legislative chambers, specially selected for the purpose, and deliberating in joint session. The civil list of the crown is fixed at the beginning of a reign. That of Leopold II., as established by law of December 25, 1865, was 3,300,000 francs, and that of the present sovereign, Albert I., is the same. The Council of Ministers consists of ten heads of executive departments. These, together with a variable number of ministers without portfolio, comprise the Council of State, an advisory body convened by the crown as occasion requires. All ministers are appointed, directly or indirectly, and all may be dismissed, by the king. All must be Belgian citizens, and no member of the royal family may be tendered an appointment. Ministers are all but invariably members of one or the other of the legislative houses, principally of the House of Representatives. Whether members or not, they are privileged to attend all sessions and to be heard at their own request. The houses, indeed, possess the right to demand their attendance. But no minister may vote, save in a house of which he is a member.

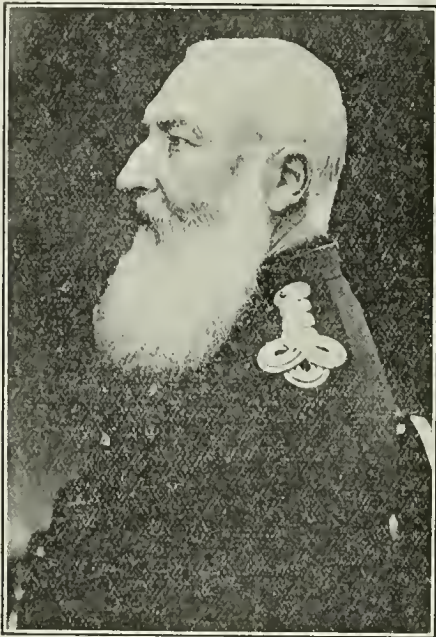
"Belgium is one of the few continental states in which the parliamentary system is thoroughly operative. At no point is the constitution more explicit than in its stipulation of the responsibility of ministers. Not only is it declared that the king's ministers are responsible; it is stipulated that 'no decree of the king shall take effect unless it is countersigned by a minister, who, by that act alone, renders himself responsible for it'; also that 'in no case shall the verbal or written order of the king relieve a minister of responsibility.' The House of Representatives is vested with the right to accuse ministers and to arraign them before the Court of Cassation; and the king may not pardon a minister who has been sentenced by this tribunal, save upon request of one of the two legislative chambers. A ministry which finds that it cannot command the support of a majority in the House of Representatives has

right to determine upon the dissolution of either of the houses, or of both. If after a general election there is still lack of harmony, the ministry, as would be the procedure in a similar situation in Great Britain, retires from office, the sovereign calls upon an opposition party leader to assume the premiership and to form a cabinet, and the remainder of the ministers are selected from the dominant parties by this official, in consultation with the king. By reason of the multiplicity of party groups in Belgium, the king is apt to be allowed somewhat wider latitude in the choice of a premier than is possible in Great Britain. The powers of the executive, exercised nominally by the king, but actually by the ministry, are closely defined in the constitution; and there is the stipulation, unusual in European constitutions, that the king shall possess no powers other than those which the constitution, and the special laws enacted under the constitution, confer explicitly upon

so explicit that the crown is left small discretion in the matter. The king, finally, is authorized to remit or to reduce the penalties imposed by the tribunals of justice, to coin money, to confer titles of nobility (which must be purely honorary), and to bestow military orders in accordance with provisions of law."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, pp. 535-538.

ALSO IN: Sir A. Alison, *History of Europe*, 1815-1852, *ch.* 24-25 and 29.

1830-1884.—Peaceful years of the kingdom of Belgium.—Political and economic progress.—Contest of Catholics and Liberals in Belgium.—“After winning its independence (1830) Belgium has also been free to work out its own career of prosperous development. King Leopold I, during his long reign showed himself the model of a constitutional sovereign in furthering its progress. The first railway on the continent was opened in 1835 between Brussels and Malines, and its railway system is now most complete. Its population between 1830 and 1880 increased by more than one-third, and now is the densest in all Europe, numbering 5,000,000 on an area only twice as large as Yorkshire. . . . When Napoleon III. seized on power in France all Belgians feared that he would imitate his uncle by seizing Belgium and all land up to the Rhine; but the close connection of King Leopold [brother of Prince Albert, the prince consort] with the English royal house and his skilful diplomacy averted the danger from Belgium. The chief internal trouble has been the strife between the liberal and clerical parties. In 1850 there were over 400 monasteries, with some 12,000 monks and nuns, in the land, and the Liberals made strenuous efforts for many years to abolish these and control education; but neither party could command a firm and lasting majority. In the midst of these eager disputes King Leopold I. died (1865), after seeing his kingdom firmly established in spite of ministerial crises every few months. His son Leopold II. has also been a constitutional sovereign. In 1867 the Luxemburg question seemed to threaten the Belgian territory, for Napoleon III. had secretly proposed to Bismarck that France should take Belgium and Luxemburg, as well as all land up to the Rhine, as the price of his friendship to the new German Confederation [see GERMANY: 1870 (Sept.-Dec.)]. . . . Again in 1870 the Franco-German war threw a severe strain on Belgium to guard its neutrality, but after Sedan this danger vanished. The strife between the liberal and clerical parties went on as fiercely in Belgium as in France itself, and after the rise and fall of many ministries the Liberals succeeded in closing the convents and gaining control over State education. . . . The electorate up to 1884 was limited to citizens paying 42 francs a year in direct taxes, but in 1884 it was extended by the clerical party acting for once in connection with the radicals.” (On the revised constitution of 1893 see below: 1892-1019.) “The politico-religious contest between Catholics and Liberals exists to a greater or less degree in all Catholic countries, and even in Protestant ones possessing, like Prussia, Catholic provinces; but nowhere is political life more completely absorbed by this antagonism than in Belgium, nowhere are the lines of the contest more clearly traced. . . . In order thoroughly to grasp the meaning of our politico-religious strife, we must cast a glance at its origin. We find this in the constitution adopted by the Congress after the Revolution of 1830. This constitution enjoins and sanctions all the freedom and liberty which has long been the privilege of England, and of the States she has founded



LEOPOLD II., KING OF THE BELGIANS

him. Under the conditions that have been explained, the king appoints all officials who are attached to the general administrative and foreign services, but other officials only in so far as is expressly authorized by law. He commands the forces by land and sea, declares war, and concludes peace. He negotiates treaties, with the limitation that treaties of commerce and treaties which impose a burden upon the state, or place under obligation individual Belgian citizens, take effect only after receiving the approval of the two houses; and with the further condition that no cession, exchange, or acquisition of territory may be carried through save by warrant of a law. The king promulgates all legislative measures, and he is authorized to issue all regulations and decrees necessary for the execution of the laws. In theory he possesses the power of the veto, but in the Belgian, as in parliamentary governments generally, there is no occasion for the actual exercise of this power. The king convokes, prorogues, and dissolves the chambers; though the provisions of the constitution relating to the legislative sessions are

in America and Australia. A free press, liberty as regards education, freedom to form associations or societies, provincial and communal autonomy, representative administration—all exactly as in England. How was it that the Congress of 1830, the majority of whose members belonged to the Catholic party, came to vote in favour of principles opposed, not only to the traditions, but also the dogmas of the Catholic Church? This singular fact is explained by the writings of the celebrated priest and author, Lamennais, whose opinions of that time exercised the greatest influence. Lamennais's first book, 'L'Essai sur l'indifférence en Matière de Religion,' lowered all human reasoning, and delivered up society to the omnipotent guidance of the Pope. This work, enthusiastically perused by bishops, seminarists, and priests, established the author as an unprecedented authority. When, after the year 1828, he pretended that the Church would regain her former power by separating herself from the State, retaining only her liberty, most of his admirers professed themselves of his opinion. . . . Nearly all Belgian priests were at that time Lamennaisians. They accepted the separation of Church and State, and, in their enthusiastic intoxication, craved but liberty to reconquer the world. It was thus that Catholics and Liberals united to vote for Belgium the constitution still in existence after a half-century. In 1832, Pope Gregory XVI., as Veuillot tells us, 'hurled a thunderbolt at the Belgian constitution in its cradle.' In a famous Encyclical, since incessantly quoted, the Pope declared, *ex cathedra*, that modern liberties were a plague, 'a delirium,' from whence incalculable evils would inevitably flow. Shortly afterwards, the true author of the Belgian constitution, Lamennais, having been to Rome in the vain hope of converting the Pope to his views, was repulsed, and, a little later, cast out from the bosom of the Church. The separation was effected. There was an end to that 'union' of Catholics and Liberals which had overthrown King William and founded a new political order in Belgium. It was not, however, till after 1838 that the two parties distinctly announced their antagonism. . . . The Liberal party is composed of all who, having faith in human reason and in liberty, fear a return to the past, and desire reforms of all sorts. . . . When Catholics are mentioned as opposed to Liberals, it is as regards their political, not their religious opinions. The Liberals are all, or nearly all, Catholics also; at all events by baptism. . . . The Catholic party is guided officially by the bishops. It is composed, in the first place, of all the clergy, of the convents and monasteries, and of those who from a sentiment of religious obedience do as they are directed by the bishop of the diocese and the Pope, and also of genuine Conservatives, otherwise called reactionists—that is to say, of those who consider that liberty leads to anarchy, and progress to communism. This section comprises the great mass of the proprietors and cultivators of the soil and the country populations. . . . We see that in Belgium parties are divided, and fight seriously for an idea; they are separated by no material, but by spiritual interests. The Liberals defend liberty, which they consider menaced by the aims of the Church. The Catholics defend religion, which they look upon as threatened by their adversaries' doctrines. Both desire to fortify themselves against a danger, non-existent yet, but which they foresee. . . . The educational question, which has been the centre of the political life of the country during the last two years [1880-1881] deserves expounding in detail. . . . Primary education was organized here in 1842,

by a law of compromise adopted by the two parties, thanks to M. J. B. Notbomb, one of the founders of the Belgian Constitution. . . . This law enacted that every parish should possess schools sufficient for the number of children needing instruction; but it allowed the 'commune' to adopt private schools. The inspection of the public schools and the control of the religious teaching given by the masters and mistresses, was reserved to the clergy. Advanced Liberals began to clamour for the suppression of this latter clause as soon as they perceived the preponderating influence it gave the priests over the lay teachers. The reform of the law of 1842 became the watchword of the Liberal party, and this was ultimately effected in July, 1879; now each parish or village must provide the schools necessary for the children of its inhabitants, and must not give support to any private school. Ecclesiastical inspection is suppressed. Religious instruction may be given by the ministers of the various denominations, in the school buildings, but out of the regular hours. This system has been in force in Holland since the commencement of the present [19th] century. Lay instruction only is given by the communal masters and mistresses; no dogmas are taught, but the school is open to the clergy of all denominations who choose to enter, as it is evidently their duty to do. This system, now introduced in Belgium, has been accepted, without giving rise to any difficulties, by both Protestants and Jews, but it is most vehemently condemned by the Catholic priesthood. . . . In less than a year they have succeeded in opening a private school in every commune and village not formerly possessing one. In this instance the Catholic party has shown a devotedness really remarkable. . . . At the same time in all the Churches, and nearly every Sunday, the Government schools have been attacked, stigmatized as 'écoles sans Dieu' (schools without God), to be avoided as the plague, and where parents were forbidden to place their children, under pain of committing the greatest sin. Those who disobeyed, and allowed their children still to frequent the communal schools, were deprived of the Sacraments of the Church. They were refused absolution at confession, and the Eucharist, even at Easter. All the schoolmasters and mistresses were placed under the ban of the Church, and the priests often even refused to pronounce a blessing on their marriage."—E. de Lavaley, *Political condition of Belgium* (*Contemporary Review*, Apr., 1882).

1835.—National bank established.—Money and banking system. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1822-1919.

1839-1914.—Perpetual neutrality.—"There were in 1914 three . . . states which occupied a peculiar position. They were the so called neutralized states, Belgium, Luxemburg and Switzerland. A neutralized state is one whose independence and integrity are guaranteed forever by international agreement. Such states may generally maintain armies but only for defense. They may never make aggressive war; nor may they make treaties or alliances with other states that may lead them into war. The reason why a state may desire to become neutralized is that it is weak, that its independence is guaranteed, that it has no desire or ability to participate in international affairs, in the usual struggles or competitions of states. The reasons why the great powers have consented to the neutralization of such states have differed in different cases. But the chief reason has been connected with the theory of the balance of powers, the desire to keep them as buf-

fers between two or more large neighboring states. . . . A neutralized state may . . . have an army and a navy and may build fortresses, as long as this is done for self-defense only, for a neutralized state is obliged to defend its neutrality if attacked, to the full extent of its powers. . . . Thus in 1914 Belgium and Switzerland had armies and military service, Luxemburg, however, was an anomaly, as the treaty of 1867 neutralizing her provided explicitly that she should not be allowed to keep any armed force. Under the circumstances Luxemburg could do nothing for the defense of her neutrality when invaded in August 1914. Belgium, however, could and did make a spirited, though ineffectual, resistance to the invader."—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe, 1870-1919*, pp. 203-204.—"The collective wisdom of Europe at the time the Kingdom of Belgium was born denied it articulation in regard to international politics by prescribing a special and exclusive atmosphere for its orbit. It imposed a state of 'perpetual neutrality' on Belgium as the condition of its existence, and no one can say at this moment [1916] with absolute confidence when or how that fettering restraint is to be shaken off and got rid of. Belgium has never been a free agent. Her sovereignty has always been restricted by the condition imposed at her birth as a nation. . . . No one has been able to state authoritatively who originated the idea of imposing a condition of 'perpetual neutrality' upon Belgium. The London Conference had been six months in session, it had already fulminated its orders in 23 protocols, before the phrase made its first appearance in the Eighteen Articles of June, 1831. Those articles were the draft of a projected treaty which Belgium and Holland were summoned to accept at the command of the Powers. As a matter of fact, the Eighteen Articles were subsequently withdrawn, and replaced by the Twenty-four Articles of November, 1831, which were eventually embodied in the final treaty of April, 1839; but, in regard to the point before us, the substitution of one set of articles for the other made no difference, as both contained the clause declaring that Belgium should form 'a perpetually neutral state.' It was the introduction of a new principle into the constitution of independent self-governing States, and many have been the occasions since when the arguments and representations of the Foreign Offices of the guaranteeing Powers have revealed a very faulty acquaintance with their own handiwork. . . . The condition of neutrality as the ideal existence for a community had been brought prominently before the world at the close of the Napoleonic wars by the 'voluntary' declaration of the revived Swiss Republic that it intended to observe neutrality towards all countries. The Vienna Congress took note of that interesting declaration, but it must be remembered that Switzerland can at any moment repudiate her own declaration and announce to the world that she has changed her mind. She owes no one but herself an explanation, she has no scrupulous or unscrupulous guarantors to take into her account. That is the merit of a voluntary, self-imposed neutrality. But poor Belgium was robbed of her free will. . . . It became the ideal of Belgian statecraft to live up to the standard of 'perpetual neutrality.' No one has ever realised or sympathised with the painful efforts of the Belgian Government to steer a straight course as an impartial and perpetual neutral with regard to its neighbours and the rest of the world. . . . In fact, the Belgian Government had made of its perpetual neutrality a kind of fetich, before which the most evident national interests, and even

the dictates of common sense, had to be waived. Never did it clasp the feet of the false god more tenaciously than during the last forty-eight hours of the old system. Thus it was that the Belgian Government, when the great crisis came in August, 1914, held itself debarred from concerting any measures of co-operation with its friends until after the enemy had committed the first aggression and was advancing in force into the country. In plain words, the loyalty of Belgium to the principle of perpetual neutrality, which had been accepted 83 years before, gave the invader many points to the good at the outbreak of the struggle, and placed not only herself but her friends in a position of corresponding disadvantage and embarrassment. Indeed, that disadvantage at the start of the war would have proved positively disastrous to all but for General Léman's heroic defence of Liège. This peril had long been foreseen. The imposed neutrality of Belgium debarred her Government from taking those measures of timely precaution which an entirely independent state, unfettered in its own right of action, would certainly have done when Germany began to concentrate a large body of troops at Elsenborn at the beginning of July, 1914."—*En Vedette, Imposed neutrality of Belgium (Fortnightly Review, Apr., 1916)*.—By the terms of the peace treaties closing the World War this restraint of perpetual neutrality was removed.—See also NEUTRALITY: Present laws; DIPLOMATIC HISTORY: 35; 36.

1864-1914.—Red Cross and relief work. See RED CROSS: 1864-1914.

1865.—Commercial treaty with Germany. See TARIFF: 1853-1870.

1865-1869.—Savings banks established. See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

1866.—The Latin union and the silver question in exchange. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1853-1874.

1873.—Government control of telegraph system. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1873: Belgium.

1876-1890.—Formation of the International African Association.—Explorations.—Creation of the Congo state. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Partitioning of Africa among European powers; and BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890.

1878-1881.—At international conference on bi-metallism standard. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1867-1893.

1884.—Berlin conference over affairs in Africa.—Attitude regarding Belgian Congo. See BERLIN ACT.

1885.—Formation of Labor party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1885-1902.

1885-1902.—Expansion in Africa.—Exploitation of natives.—Brussel's conference (1890).—Results of attempts to found African empire in the Congo region. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1885-1902; 1880.

1886-1909.—Labor conditions.—Insurance.—"Turning to the laws for the regulation of labour, and leaving the mining industry out of account, it may be said that Belgian labour legislation dates from an enquiry held in 1886, consequent upon industrial disturbances, 'to investigate the conditions of industrial labour in the kingdom, and to study any measures which might be adopted to improve them.' Since 1886 a number of measures have become law, partly by enactment and partly by royal decree, which have aimed at defining the relationship between employer and employed, and establishing public control over the conditions of labour. We need only deal here with a few of these. The truck system [see below for explana-



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tion] and the payment of wages in public houses [saloons] were prohibited in 1887, and in 1889 the employment in factories of children under twelve years was forbidden, and the hours of labour were restricted to twelve per day for boys under sixteen, and for girls and women under twenty-one. It cannot be said that this was a drastic measure; but it had taken fifty years to bring public opinion even up to this level, for a bill having a somewhat similar purpose was introduced unsuccessfully as early as 1843. Since 1889 the hours of children and women under twenty-one years of age in textile factories have been further reduced—to sixty-six hours per week—and other reductions in the length of the working week, affecting particular trades, have been made. The law of 1889 also prohibited the occupation in factories of women for four weeks after confinement, and the night labour of women and young persons. In practice, however, the exceptions allowed to the latter prohibition are numerous, especially in the glass and sugar industries. Women under twenty-one years of age are excluded by this law from underground work in the mines. In 1903 a Workmen's Compensation Act was passed, giving industrial workers the right to claim compensation (not exceeding half the loss incurred) for injuries sustained in the prosecution of their work, from whatever cause. Prior to this no workman could claim any compensation unless he could prove that the injury was due to negligence on the part of the employer—a thing usually very difficult to do. In 1905 two additions were made to factory legislation. The first was a royal decree restricting the hours of work for children under thirteen to six per day, and the second, a law limiting the working days for all operatives to six per week, except where special exemptions are granted. As a matter of fact these exemptions are so numerous that the object of the law has been very largely defeated. This is a brief outline of the principal factory legislation, but there are other Acts dealing with matters of less importance, one, for instance, requiring the conditions of work and the basis of calculating piece wages, etc., to be written out, and put up in the factories, and one which deals with unhealthy or dangerous occupations. An Act may also be mentioned which sets forth the respective rights and duties of masters and employees. It will be seen from this list that there is nothing in the Belgian labour legislation of a very original nature. The legal provision made for the protection of labour and the regulation of industry is of comparatively recent date, and is considerably less than in Britain and certain other industrial countries. Moreover—if one may judge from the complaints heard in different regions—even the few laws which have been enacted are often somewhat laxly administered. Factory inspection, established in 1888, was reorganised in 1895, but there are too few inspectors to do the work efficiently. In 1905 there were only 22 provincial inspectors, in addition to about 6 officers attached to the central staff at Brussels. . . . An attempt must be made to explain why wages in Belgium are so much lower than in Britain. It is a matter which gravely affects the Belgian, since, though the cost of his food is somewhat less and his rent is a good deal less, these advantages do not compensate him for the great difference in the wage. Although he is comparatively well housed, his food is coarser and he has less scope for the satisfaction of individual tastes, and his clothing is both less elaborate and less adequate. He spends less (although a larger

proportion of his wage) on drink than does the British workman, and though his wages are much less, he must work considerably longer to earn them. What is the explanation of the low wages in Belgium? . . . The somewhat low efficiency of the Belgian workman is partly due to the very low level of general education in the country. It will be shown that probably about a quarter of the workmen can neither write nor read, and this illiteracy may be taken as the measure of their intellectual development, since we have no reason to suppose that their mental faculties have been unusually developed in other directions instead. Thus, generally speaking, they are less intelligent than the British workmen, less alert, less able to grasp a point quickly and clearly, more enslaved by routine. This is especially true in the Flemish provinces, where, except in Antwerp and Ghent, the standard of education is much lower than in the Walloon provinces. And this low standard operates against the efficiency of the Belgian workman in another way, by rendering technical instruction much less effective than it otherwise would be. . . . Another cause for the somewhat inferior efficiency of the Belgian is his low standard of living. In the case of families investigated by the writer whose wages were under 16s. 8d. [about \$4] a week, there was, upon the average, a deficiency of 26 per cent in the supply of protein, and of 14 per cent in that of fuel energy. These families, it must be remembered, were, for the most part, thrifty and respectable, spending but little money upon drink or other unnecessary objects. There is no doubt that there are hundreds of thousands of workmen in Belgium who are habitually under-nourished. As a well-known American economist has reminded us:—'What an employer will get out of his workmen will depend very much on what he first gets into him. Not only are bone and muscle to be built up and kept up by food, but every stroke of the arm involves an expenditure of nervous energy which is to be supplied only through the alimentary canal. What a man can do in twenty-four hours will depend very much on what he can have to eat in those twenty-four hours; or perhaps it would be more correct to say, what he has had to eat the twenty-four hours previous. If his diet be liberal, his work may be mighty. If he be under-fed he must under-work.' Another reason for the low wages in Belgium is that the workmen are not strenuous in demanding the full market value of their labour. They have for so long been accustomed to a low standard of comfort, that they have become reconciled to it, and do not strive actively to improve their positions. This is especially true of the Fleming, whose wages are, as a rule, much lower than those of the Walloon. His meagre education had done little or nothing to widen his horizon and general outlook; he lives in a state of inertia; he is willing to plod on as his father did before him, and it is difficult to persuade him to leave the beaten track. Told of the better labour conditions in Britain, of the shorter hours, and the higher pay, such men shrug their shoulders and reply, 'Ah, yes; but for us it is impossible.' Thus it is hard to organise them into strong trade unions. . . . Another cause, which has frequently been mentioned to the writer as in part accounting for the fact that the Belgian workman does not strenuously demand his full economic wage, is that the teaching and influence of the Catholic Church discourage such action. . . . One of the chief reasons why wages in Belgium are so low is that they are still largely fixed by individual instead of by collective bargaining, the

Trade Union movement being yet in its infancy, although it is now growing rapidly, as evidenced by the following figures. In 1891, according to M. Vandervelde's estimate, there were only 65,000 organised workmen in the whole country. In 1901 M. Varlez gave the number as 132,000, and in 1909 it had increased to about 200,000 or 16 per cent of the industrial population."—B. S. Rowntree, *Land and labour: lessons from Belgium*, pp. 81-100.—The "truck system" referred to above signifies the barter or actual exchange of goods for goods. It involves the practice of paying workmen by means of orders on certain stores, or in kind, instead of with money. This has been forbidden in Great Britain by the Truck Acts of 1831, 1887 and 1896. The employee must be paid in full, without reductions or any restriction placed upon his spending. "Public encouragement of workmen's insurance in Belgium began in 1851 with the enactment of a measure, modelled on a French law of the previous year, extending to friendly relief societies the advantages of official recognition. Other acts to stimulate the formation of such societies were passed in 1861 and 1887. The law at present covering the subject was passed June 23, 1894. It made provision for the first time for a state subvention in aid of sickness insurance organisations. Of 'registered' societies, which alone are entitled to share in this subvention, there were, in 1907, 3,300, with an aggregate membership of 400,000. Of unregistered societies, which are independent in their management and receive no public aid, there were at the same time about 800, with a membership of 50,000. In view of the fact that the wage-earners of Belgium number not fewer than 1,200,000, it is apparent that there is yet large room for sickness insurance extension. Since 1868 miners have been subject to compulsory insurance against accidents through special sickness insurance associations to whose funds both employers and employees contribute and the state and the provincial governments allow subsidies. On December 24, 1903, there was enacted a modern employers' liability law whose provisions were made applicable to workmen in all industries, including manufactures, trade, and agriculture, and to apprentices and foremen whose annual earnings amount to less than 2,400 francs. In many quarters there was demand for a thoroughgoing compulsory accident insurance scheme, to be supported by employers and employees. Such a plan failed to be adopted, but under closely regulated conditions employers are held pecuniarily liable for all accidents which take place in their service, save such as can be shown to have been occasioned by the negligence of employees. The maximum of compensation is one-half of the wages received. One of the principal services which the state has rendered the workman in Belgium is the creation of the present system of insurance against invalidity and old age. In 1850 there was established by law a State Annuity Fund (Caisse Générale d'Épargne et de Rétraite) into which any person over eighteen years of age might make payments for himself or others, thus procuring insurance for an immediate or a deferred life annuity. In 1865 the operation of the scheme was extended, and in 1869 the maximum amount of the annuity was fixed (where it remains) at 1,200 francs. In 1891 the government began to grant bounties in aid of annuities, and by an important law of May 10, 1900, amended in 1903, the principle of state subvention was definitely established, and for special appropriations from year to year was substituted a definite and permanent state subscription. The object of the

act of 1900 was to encourage thrift among the working-classes and to contribute in their behalf a fund from which the workman, upon attaining the age of sixty-five, may derive an annuity reaching a maximum of 360 francs, and, in the second place, to assure to workmen or workingwomen special grants of sixty-five francs a year when they are in need. To each franc which the worker lays by the government adds three-fifths of a franc, so that the individual who lays by fifteen francs will possess at the end of the year twenty-four francs. In other words, the state subscription to payments into the Annuity Fund amounts to sixty per cent. of the workman's deposits, up to fifteen francs a year. When the deposits are larger, the government contribution is proportionately smaller. When the depositor has to his credit a fund sufficient to constitute for him an annuity of 360 francs, premiums from the state cease entirely. Toward the expenses of this system the provinces and many communes make grants, and the national budget carries an appropriation of 15,000,000 francs annually. The number of deposits in 1906 was 2,224,727."—F. A. Ogg, *Economic development of modern Europe*, pp. 631-633.—See also SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Belgium: 1900-1904.

1886-1909.—Education.—"The student of a nation's social and economic development instinctively turns for guidance to her educational system. The history of education in Belgium is one of incessant dispute between religious and political parties, the question at issue being whether it should be controlled by the Church or by the State. The solution seems no nearer than it was fifty years ago, and, meanwhile, education itself suffers severely. The English people know something of what is called 'the religious difficulty' in schools, and bitter feelings have sprung up on either side, but they are mild compared with the antagonism roused in Belgium. In order to understand present conditions, the history of elementary education in Belgium must be briefly outlined. In 1830 the Catholics and Liberals united to throw off the Dutch yoke, but when this was done, their ways soon parted. That, no doubt, was inevitable, for the standpoints from which they viewed the question of education were and are fundamentally different. The contention of the Liberals, and in more recent times of the Socialists, is that education in elementary schools should be neutral in character so far as the teaching of religion is concerned, and that when paid for by public money it should be publicly controlled. That of the Catholics is expressed in an encyclical published in 1897 by Pope Leo XIII., according to which 'Not only must religion be taught to the children at certain hours, but all the rest of the instruction must exhale Christian piety as a perfume, and every kind of teaching, whatever may be its specific nature, must be penetrated and dominated by religion.' In the Belgian constitution, framed in 1830, it was enacted that any one should be at liberty to teach without restriction. The Catholics immediately took advantage of this privilege; and so active were they that ten years after Belgium was constituted a separate kingdom, nearly one-half of the schools (2284 out of 5189) were entirely maintained and managed by them, without taking into account the State-aided schools placed under their care. The Liberals, fearing that the clergy would 'monopolise the education of youth,' set on foot an agitation for direct and systematic intervention of the State in the matter of elementary instruction. Eventually, a compromise was agreed on in the law of 1842, by which

the Catholics accorded a large measure of authority to the State, while the Liberals agreed to the official intervention of the clergy. . . . The Education Act which they passed in 1879, called by the Catholics *la Loi de Malheur* [the law of misfortune], declared that public education must depend exclusively on the civil authority. In future no grants were to be given to any schools which did not submit to Government inspection and conform to certain prescribed conditions. . . . With the exception of Russia, Belgium is the only country in Europe which has no system of compulsory education inscribed on its statute books, though in some countries the law is disregarded. The Socialists and Liberals are strongly in favour of introducing a compulsory system, but they are steadfastly opposed by the Catholics, who maintain that such a proceeding would be hostile to the spirit of liberty so dear to the Belgian people. They also fear that to make education compulsory would be to introduce the thin end of the wedge of complete Government control of the schools."—B. S. Rowntree, *Land and labour: lessons from Belgium*, pp. 257-262.—However, each commune must have at least one primary school, for the support of which it is responsible, though subsidies are added by the state and provinces. There are a large number of private or free schools, mostly under ecclesiastical control. The secondary schools include many supported by the government, and higher education is supplied by the four universities, of which Ghent and Liège are state institutions, and Louvain and Brussels are free.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Belgium; Workers' education: Belgium.

1891.—Commercial treaty with Germany renewed. See TARIFF: 1870-1900.

1892-1919.—Constitutional revisions.—A great agitation among the Belgian workingmen, ending in a formidable strike, in 1890, was only quieted by the promise from the government of a revision of the constitution and the introduction of universal suffrage. The Constituent Chambers, elected to perform the task of revision, were opened on July 11, 1892. The amended constitution was promulgated on September 7, 1893. It conferred the suffrage on every citizen twenty-five years of age or over, domiciled in the same commune for not less than one year, and not under legal disqualification. The new constitution was made especially interesting by its introduction of a system of cumulative or plural voting. One supplementary vote was conferred on every married citizen (or widower), thirty-five years or more of age, having legitimate issue, and paying at least five francs per annum house tax; also on every citizen not less than twenty-five years old who owned real property to the value of 2,000 francs, or who derived an income of not less than 100 francs a year from an investment in the public debt, or from the savings bank. Two supplementary votes were given to each citizen twenty-five years of age who had received certain diplomas or discharged certain functions which imply the possession of a superior education. The same citizen could accumulate votes on more than one of these qualifications, but none was allowed to cast more than three. On the adoption of the new constitution, the Brussels correspondent of the London *Times* wrote to that journal: "This article, which adds to manhood suffrage as it exists in France, Spain, Germany, Switzerland, the United States, and the Australian colonies, the safeguard of a double and triple suffrage accorded to age, marriage, and paternity, as well as to the possession of money saved

or inherited, or of a profession, will constitute one of the distinguishing marks of the new Belgian Constitution. As it reposes upon the just principle that votes must be considered in reference to their weight rather than to their numbers, it has had the effect of putting an immediate end to the violent political crisis which disturbed the country. It has been accepted without much enthusiasm, indeed, but as a reasonable compromise. The moderates of all classes, who do not go to war for abstract theories, think that it has a prospect of enduring." An attempt to introduce proportional representation along with the plural suffrage was defeated. The constitution of the Senate raised questions hardly less important than those connected with the elective franchise. Says the correspondent quoted above: "The advanced Radical and Socialist parties had proposed to supplement the Chamber, the political representation of the territorial interests of the country, by a Senate representing its economic interests. The great social forces—capital, labour, and science—in their application to agriculture, industry, and commerce, were each to send their representatives. It may be that this formula, which would have made of the Belgian Senate an Assembly *sui generis* in Europe, may become the formula of the future. The Belgian legislators hesitated before the novelty of the idea and the difficulty of its application. This combination rejected, there remained for the Senate only the alternative between two systems—namely, to separate that Assembly from the Chamber by its origin or else by its composition. The Senate and the Government preferred the first of these solutions, that is to say direct elections for the Chamber, an election by two degrees for the Senate, either by the members of the provincial councils or by specially elected delegates of the Communes. But these proposals encountered from all the benches in the Chamber a general resistance." The result was a compromise. The Senate was to consist of seventy-six members elected directly by the people, and twenty-six elected by the provincial councils, the term of each to be eight years. The Senators chosen by the councils were exempted from a property qualification; those popularly elected were required to be owners of real property yielding not less than 12,000 francs of income, or to pay not less than 1,200 francs in direct taxes. The legislature was empowered to restrict the voting for Senators to citizens thirty years of age or more. The members of the Chamber of Representatives were to be apportioned according to population and elected for four years, one half retiring every two years. The Senate and Chamber meet annually in November, and are required to be in session for at least forty days; but the king may convoke extraordinary sessions, and may dissolve the Chambers either separately or together. In case of a dissolution, the constitution requires an election to be held within forty days, and a meeting of the Chambers within two months.

Slight changes were made in the electoral provisions of the constitution during 1912. More important changes, however, were introduced in 1910, when the constitution was again revised. The principle of manhood suffrage with compulsory voting, tempered by the plural vote and proportional representation of minorities, based upon the intricate system devised in 1892-1893, was replaced by manhood suffrage with a six months' residential qualification. The vote on a limited scale was extended to women, namely, unmarried widows or mothers of soldiers killed, or of civilians shot by the enemy, and women imprisoned by the

enemy for patriotic acts. From this electorate both houses of the legislature are chosen, except those senators who are elected indirectly. The Senate, now composed of 120 members, is elected for eight years. The number of members elected directly is equal to half the number of deputies. The indirectly elected senators are chosen by the provincial councils, two for each province with less than 500,000 inhabitants; three for each with more than 500,000 and less than 1,000,000; and four for each with over a million. The 186 deputies are elected for four years, in the proportion of one to every 40,000 inhabitants; one half retire every two years. Senators must be forty years old, and deputies not less than twenty-five. Only the chamber of deputies (representatives) can originate money bills or bills relating to the contingent for the army. The executive consists of seven ministries, namely of finance, of justice, of interior and instruction, of war, of railways, posts and telegraphs, of foreign affairs, of agriculture, industry and public works.—See also EUROPE: Modern period: Revolutionary movement for self-government.

1894.—Commercial treaty with Germany. See GERMANY: 1892-1894.

1894-1895.—First election under the constitution of 1893.—Victory of the Catholics and surprising Socialist gains.—The singularity of the experiment of cumulative or plural voting caused the elections that were held in Belgium in 1894 and 1895 to be watched with an interest widely felt. Elections for the Chamber of Representatives and the Senate occurred on the same day, Oct. 14, 1894. Previously the Belgian suffrage had been limited to about 130,000 electors. Under the new constitution the electors numbered no less than 1,370,000, and the working of the plural system gave them 2,111,000 votes. The result was a more crushing victory for the Catholics than they had ever won before. Of 152 Representatives they elected no fewer than 104. The Liberal party was almost annihilated, securing but 20 seats in the Chamber; while the Socialists rose to political importance, winning 28 seats. This representation is said to be not at all proportioned to the votes cast by the several parties, and it lent force to the demand for a system of proportional representation, as the needed accompaniment of plural voting, which had been urged when the constitution was revised. In the Senate the Conservatives obtained 52 seats and the Liberals 24. In the next year an electoral law relating to communal councils was passed. In this law, the principle of proportional representation was introduced, along with that of cumulative or plural voting. Compulsory voting, enforced by penalties more or less severe, was also a feature of the law. In November, the first election under it was held, and again the Socialists made surprising gains, at the expense of the Radical party, the Catholics and Liberals generally holding their ground.

1897 (July).—British notice to terminate existing commercial treaties. See ENGLAND: 1897 (June-July).

1898 (June).—Sugar conference at Brussels. See SUGAR BOUNTIES.

1898 (July-December).—In the Chinese "battle of concessions." See CHINA: 1898 (February-December).

1899 (May-July).—Representation in the Peace Conference at The Hague. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

1899-1900.—Threatened revolution.—An explosion of discontent with the working of the electoral provisions of the new constitution (see

above) occurred in June, and created for a time an exceedingly dangerous situation. It was precipitated by an attempt on the part of the government to pass a bill providing for proportional representation in certain districts, which was expected to increase the advantage already possessed by the Clerical or Catholic party. Excitement in the Chamber of Deputies reached such a height on June 28 that fighting among the members occurred, and soldiers were called in. That night and the next day there was serious rioting in Brussels; barricades were built; sharp battles between citizens and soldiers were fought, and a general strike of working men was proposed. On the 30th, the government arranged a compromise with the Socialist and Liberal leaders which referred the question of proportional representation to a committee in which all parties were represented. This quieted the disorder. In due time the committee reported against the measure which the government had proposed; whereupon a change of ministry was made, the new ministry being expected to bring forward a more satisfactory plan of proportional representation. It produced a bill for that purpose, the provisions of which failed to give satisfaction, but which was passed, nevertheless, near the end of the year.

Commenting, in July, on the disturbances then just quieted in Belgium, the *Spectator*, of London, remarked: "The recent explosion of political feeling in Belgium was a much more serious event than was quite understood in this country [England]. It might have involved all Europe, as, indeed, it may even yet. There was revolution in the air, and a revolution in Belgium would gravely affect the military position both of France and Germany, would rouse keen suspicions and apprehensions in this country, and would perturb all the dynasties with fears of coming change. The new electoral bill drove the Liberals and Socialists of the little kingdom into one another's arms—both believing that it would give the Clericals a permanent hold on power—and whenever these two parties are united they control the majority of the Belgian people. That majority is a most dangerous one. It controls all the cities, and it includes hundreds of thousands of men who resent their economic condition with justifiable bitterness, and who are penetrated with a tradition of victories achieved by insurrection. At the same time they have no pacific vent for their discontents, for the suffrage gives double votes to the well-to-do, and secures to both Liberals and laborers on all economic or religious questions a certainty of defeat. With the inhabitants of the cities all rioting and killing the officials, the government would have been compelled to resort to force, and it is by no means clear that force was decidedly on their side. The Belgian army is not a caste widely separated in feeling from the people; it has no instinctive devotion to the Clerical party, and it has no great soldier whom it admires or to whom it is attached. The king is distrusted and disliked both personally and politically; and the dynasty, which has no historic connection with Belgium, has never taken root in the soil as the Bernadottes, for example, have done in Sweden. If the revolutionists had been beaten, they would have appealed to France, where Belgium is regarded as a reversionary estate; while if they had been victorious, they might—in our judgment, they certainly would—have proclaimed a republic. . . . The danger has, we suppose, for the moment been smoothed away; but it has not been removed, probably can not be removed, while the conditions which produce it continue to exist. The Belgians,

who are commonly supposed to be so prosperous and pacific, are divided by differences of race, creed, and social condition more violent than exists in Ireland, where at all events, all alike, with insignificant exceptions, speak one tongue. The French-speaking Belgians despise the Flemish-speaking Belgians, and the Flemish-speaking Belgians detest the French-speaking Belgians, with a rancor only concealed by the long habit of living and acting together,—a habit which, remember, has not prevented the same contempts and aversions from continuing to exist in Ireland. The Clericals and the Secularists hate each other as only religious parties can hate; far more than Catholics and Protestants in any of the countries where the two creeds stand side by side. The Secularist seems to the Clerical a blasphemer, against whom almost all devices are justifiable, while the Clerical is held by the Secularist to be a kind of evil fool, from whom nothing is to be expected except cunningly concealed malignity. The possessors of property expect that the 'ugly rush' which used to be talked of in England will occur to-morrow, while the wage receivers declare that they are worked to death for the benefit of others, who will not leave them so much as a living wage. All display when excited a noteworthy fierceness of temper, a readiness to shed blood, and a disposition to push every quarrel into a sort of war,—tendencies visible throughout the history of the country." At the parliamentary election in June, 1900, under the new law providing for proportional representation, the Socialists gained seventeen seats from the Clerical party.—See also **PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION: Belgium.**

1900-1904.—Municipal systems of insurance against unemployment. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Belgium: 1900-1904.**

1900-1904.—Social insurance.—Unemployment insurance. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details.**

1900-1905.—Relations with the Congo State.—Expiration of the convention of 1890.—Condemnation of King Leopold's administration of the Congo state. See **AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1890-1906; BELGIAN CONGO: 1900, 1903-1905.**

1900-1908.—Socialist power. See **SOCIALISM: 1890-1908.**

1902.—Sugar bounty conference. See **SUGAR BOUNTY CONFERENCE.**

1902.—Commercial treaty with Germany renewed. See **TARIFF: 1902-1906.**

1902.—Popular opposition to the plural vote.—Demand for constitutional revision defeated.—General strike in the country.—Substantially universal but not equal suffrage was given to the male citizens of Belgium by the constitution of the kingdom as revised in 1893. All had one vote, but certain classes of persons, qualified by property ownership, tax-payments, education, office-holding or professional dignity, were given one or two supplementary votes. Opposition to this political inequality had been growing from the first, until it united the Socialist and Liberal parties in a demand for the revision of the constitution, not only to abolish the plural suffrage, but to introduce proportional representation and compulsory education. The agitation attending this demand brought about, in April, a general strike throughout the country of workmen in all departments of industry, to the extent of 350,000. The government resisted the demand, maintaining that the system of plural voting had not been sufficiently tried, and the bill for constitutional revision was defeated in the Chamber of Representatives, after a bitter debate, by 84 votes to 64. The

situation was described as follows by Mr. Townsend, the American minister to Belgium, in a despatch of April 19: "The struggle between labor and capital in Belgium has become extremely acute in the past few years. A large industrial population, confined to a small superficial area, with long hours of labor and small wages, have combined to produce a feeling of discontent among the working classes, who, perhaps unjustly, blame the existing Government for a condition of affairs which may be due to economic conditions rather than political. This is a factor which may be largely responsible for the rapid growth of Socialism in Belgium during the past few years. Liberals and Socialists have combined to fight for universal suffrage, and have raised the cry 'one man one vote' as a panacea for the existing ills. The Clericals maintain that the existing system of plural voting meets the present requirements of the country; that it places a premium on education, and acts as a check to the power of the ignorant, who are prone to resort to violence and disorder. The more moderate Liberals in the House of Representatives expressed a willingness to accept a compromise in the shape of a total abolition of the triple vote, granting one vote at 25 years and a second vote to married men of 35 or 40 years, with legitimate issue. The Clericals, however, would not consider a compromise and opposed revision in any form. During the past fortnight, while the debates on the subject of revision were being held in the House of Representatives, the socialists and workmen have held nightly meetings at the Maison du Peuple, and have frequently paraded the streets shouting for universal suffrage and 'one man one vote.' The Liberal members, as well as some of the socialist leaders in the House, have cautioned the paraders to be calm, to avoid violence and disorder. But the ranks of the paraders have been swelled by the addition of the representatives of the very lowest and criminal classes of the population, the result being a conflict with the police followed by the breaking of windows and other damages to property. Shots were exchanged between the gendarmes and rioters, several of the latter being killed and wounded. Similar scenes were at the same time enacted in other towns in Belgium, consequently the Government called out the troops. Order has been restored, but the streets of Brussels, as well as the large towns, are lined with soldiers. A general strike has taken place in all the industrial centers of Belgium, with the avowed object of forcing the Government to grant universal suffrage, but without success. The feeling of unrest is very general all over the country."—*Papers relating to the foreign relations of the United States, 1902, p. 85.*—See also **SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Belgium.**

1903.—Organizations of insurance against unemployment. See **SOCIAL INSURANCE: Belgium: 1900-1904.**

1903.—Agreement for settlement of claims against Venezuela. See **VENEZUELA: 1902-1904.**

1904.—Liberal gains in the elections, at the expense of the Catholics and Socialists.—Belgian elections, in May, reduced the majority by which the Clericals still retained control of the government, and took six seats in the representative chamber from the Socialists, adding in all nine to the representation of the Liberal party. The latter continued, with no success, its demand for a revision of the constitution, especially for the abolition of the plural vote, which gives the Church party its majority in Parliament, while its voters are an actual minority of the nation.

Belgian feeling on the subject of the charges of brutal oppression in the Congo Free State was deeply stirred, and its current ran strongly against the accusers of the king. The public in general appears to have been fully persuaded that interested motives were actuating the whole criticism of Congo administration, and that the stories of inhumanity to the natives were wholly false.

1906.—At the Algeciras conference on the Morocco question. See FRANCE: 1904-1906; and ITALY: 1906.

1907.—Second Hague Conference. See Hague Conferences: 1907.

1908-1909.—Annexation of Belgian Congo.—Attitude of powers. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1906-1908; 1909.

1909.—New military law.—Compulsory service with no substitution. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 24; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1913.

1909 (December).—Death of King Leopold.—Accession of King Albert.—On December 17, 1909, King Leopold died. He was succeeded on the throne by Prince Albert, son of his brother, the Count of Flanders. Of the new king, who was born in 1875, it was said by *The Times*, of London: "The happiest expectations are cherished in Belgium for the new King's reign. He has shown, together with his gracious Consort, that desire to identify himself with the interests of the humblest of his subjects which we are accustomed to admire among the characteristic merits of our own Royal Family. He was naturally precluded by his position from taking any part in the controversies connected with the Congo, but it may reasonably be thought that if his uncle's life had been less prolonged the constitutional difficulties raised by the 'Congo question' would have been avoided. He is known to have been painfully impressed by the need of reform during his recent visit to the colony."

1910.—Charities in control of convents.—Orphanages; etc. See CHARITIES: Belgium: 1792-1910.

1910-1912.—Elections.—"The elections of May, 1910, were contested with unusual keenness by reason of the fact that the Liberal-Socialist coalition seemed to have, for the first time in a quarter of a century, a distinct chance for victory. The Catholics were notoriously divided upon certain public issues, notably Premier Schollaert's Compulsory Military Service bill, and it was believed in many quarters that their tenure of power was near an end. The Liberal hope, however, was doomed to disappointment; for, although both Liberals and Socialists realized considerable gains in the popular vote in some portions of the kingdom, in only a single constituency was the gain sufficient to carry a new seat. The consequence was that the Catholic majority was reduced, but not below six, and party strength in the Chamber stood: Catholics, 68; Liberals, 45; Socialists, 34; Christian Democrats, 1. Among reasons that may be assigned for the Liberal failure are the fact that the country was prosperous and not disposed to precipitate a change of governments, the alienation of some voters by the working relations that had been established between the Liberals and the Socialists, and the advantage that regularly accrues to the Catholics from the plural vote. During the years 1910-1912 the Catholic tenure of power, prolonged uninterruptedly since 1884, seemed more than once on the point of being broken. Most of the time, however, the legislative machine performed its functions sufficiently well with a majority of but half a dozen seats, and the drift of affairs operated eventually to strengthen the Catholic position. In

March, 1911, Premier Schollaert introduced an education bill looking toward the placing of church schools upon a footing financially with the schools maintained by the communes, and the opposition to this measure acquired such intensity that the author of the bill was forced to retire. But his successor, De Broqueville, a man of conciliatory temperament, formed a new Catholic cabinet which, by falling back upon a policy of 'marking time,' contrived to stave off a genuine defeat. In the municipal elections held throughout the country October 15, 1911, the Liberal-Socialist candidates were very generally successful, but the parliamentary elections which took place June 2, 1912, had the unexpected result of entrenching the Catholic party more securely in power than in upwards of a decade. The combined assault of the Liberals and the Socialists upon 'clericalism' fell flat, and against the Government's contention that the extraordinary and incontestable prosperity of the country merited a continuance of Catholic rule no arguments were forthcoming which carried conviction among the voters. The Catholic vote showed an increase of 130,610, the Liberal and Socialist opposition an increase of 40,402, and the Christian Democrats a decrease of 4,602. The new chamber consists of 101 Catholics, 45 Liberals, 38 Socialists and 2 Christian Democrats, giving the Government a clear majority of sixteen. The elections were marked by grave public unrest, involving widespread strikes and anti-clerical demonstrations, with some loss of life. More clearly than before was exhibited in this campaign the essentially bourgeois and doctrinaire character of the present Liberal party. The intimate touch with the masses which in the days of its ascendancy, prior to 1884, the party enjoyed has been lost, and more and more the proletariat is looking to the Socialists for propagation of the measures required for social and industrial amelioration."—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, pp. 546-547.

1910-1913.—Reform measures with regard to the Belgian Congo. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1910-1913.

1910-1914.—Industrial progress.—Statistics of trade unions.—Development of coöperation. See COÖPERATION: Belgium; LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1910.

1913.—General Strike.—"The general strike (*grève générale*, known in Belgium as the G. G.) proved effective for obtaining electoral reform in 1893, and, although it failed in 1902, it was applied again in 1913. On February 5 the committee of the Socialist party decided to continue their preparations for a general strike to be declared on March 31, in consequence of the refusal of M. de Broqueville, the Premier, to appoint a select committee of inquiry into the question of manhood suffrage. Two days later the Chamber of Deputies rejected, by 90 votes to 83, a Bill for the revision of the Constitution, proposed by the Socialist party, but on the 12th, the date for the strike was altered to April 14, in order to permit negotiations with the Government on electoral reform, and on March 6 the Socialist Deputies even decided to postpone it indefinitely. But to the profound disappointment of the working classes M. de Broqueville stated, on March 12, that the solution of the question would depend upon the result of the elections in 1914, and on March 23 the Socialist Congress decided almost unanimously to let the strike begin on April 14. Messrs. Vandervelde and Huysmans did all they could to avert this decision, and the Ghent delegates begged the Congress in vain to take into account the £1,200,000 already spent on the exhibition in that town. The Cham-

ber of Deputies resumed its session on April 16, and M. Lorand, an advanced Liberal, got permission to introduce a Bill for a Referendum on franchise reform. During the discussion on this request M. Vandervelde stated that there were at least 370,000 men on strike. Hence on April 22, the Chamber passed unanimously a motion of M. Masson, approving the appointment of a commission to formulate 'a suffrage system superior to that now in force.' The strike committee considered that thereby the general strike had achieved all that was possible for the present, and urged the immediate resumption of work. On April 24 the strike was practically at an end, although the miners in the Liège and Hainault districts stood out until May 1. Troops had been moved to the affected districts, but the strikers remained perfectly peaceful; the miners' trade unions authorized the continuation of necessary works in the mines; the Wilson line service from Hull to Ghent was temporarily suspended, but the Ghent Exhibition works had been declared neutral territory. On May 26 this special Commission for Electoral Reform was completed. It consists of thirty-one members, among whom are the leaders of the different parties in Chamber and Senate."—*Annual register*, pp. 360-361.—With this promise of complete revision of the electoral system, the strike came to an end after lasting ten days. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Belgium: 1830-1921; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1913.

1914.—Colonies in Africa.—Control of Congo.—Riches. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914; BELGIAN CONGO: 1914-1916.

1914.—Percentage of railways controlled by government. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914.—Manufacture of Browning small arms. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: World War.

1914.—World War.—Invasion of Belgium.—"On the 28th of June, 1914, Archduke Franz Ferdinand of Austria and his wife, the Duchess of Hohenberg, were assassinated at Serajevo. Austria seized upon this as an excellent pretext for commencing the attack of Serbia which had been frustrated the year before by the refusal of Italy to co-operate. On the 23rd July she presented an ultimatum to Serbia, to which the Servian Government replied by a note which, in spite of the great concessions made by it, was considered by Austria as insufficient. Five days later, on the 28th July, the latter Power declared war on Serbia. The Chancelleries realized that Europe was threatened with a war of the nations. As soon as M. Davignon, the Belgian Minister for Foreign Affairs, received, through the Minister of Belgium at Vienna, the text of the Austrian ultimatum, he took all the necessary steps to secure respect for Belgian neutrality in the event of war breaking out. On the 23rd July he sent detailed instructions to the Belgian Ministers at Paris, Berlin, London, Vienna, and St. Petersburg (Petrograd). . . . When the Belgian Government learned of the declaration of war by Austria on Serbia, they at once decided to put the army on a strengthened peace footing. In order that this measure should not be misconstrued abroad, the Belgian Ministers accredited to the different Courts were to explain that there was no question of mobilization, and that the strengthened peace-footing had no other object than to provide the Belgian army with effectives analogous to those of the corps maintained in permanence in frontier areas by neighbouring Powers. Events rapidly developed. On the 31st July the general mobilization decreed by Austria was followed by a proclamation of a 'State of Danger of War' in Germany. At 7 p. m. on the same day the Bel-

gian Government, in its turn, proceeded to a general mobilization. During the course of that day M. Klobukowski, the French Minister at Brussels, came and showed M. Davignon a telegram of the Havas Agency announcing that Germany had proclaimed a state of danger of war, and took the opportunity of declaring that France would not send troops into Belgium, although large forces might be concentrated on the frontiers of that country. This official communication doubtless caused great satisfaction to the Belgian Government, which at that time cherished the hope that Germany would take up the same attitude. They knew that England, in view of the possibility of a European war, had asked the French and German Governments separately whether each of them was prepared to respect the neutrality of Belgium. They awaited a favourable reply from the German Government, being informed that the German Minister at Brussels had that morning made a statement—giving, it is true, his personal opinion—that the friendly sentiments of Germany and her desire to respect Belgian neutrality remained unchanged. On the next day, the 1st August, the French Government announced that it would respect the neutrality of Belgium. The news from Germany was not so satisfactory. Herr von Jagow had, it seemed, said that he could not answer the question whether Germany would respect the neutrality of this country. . . . Next morning the Belgian people could read in their newspapers that the Germans had seized the railways and the capital of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, and that Germany had declared war on Russia. . . . The Minister of Germany proceeded to the Foreign Office. He presented himself at seven o'clock, bringing at last an official communication from his Government. It was an ultimatum. . . . This note did not bear the heading 'Very Confidential' without a reason. It proposed to Belgium that she should secretly barter her honour for sounding phrases and a few promises, the intentional vagueness and want of precision of which put little obligation on the Government which formulated them."—L. Van der Essen, *Invasion and war in Belgium*, pp. 24-28.

"The German communication greatly affected the Belgian Minister of Foreign Affairs. There were but twelve hours in which to comply with or deny the proposal. Under the initiative of Baron de Gaiffier, Political Director-General at the Foreign office, the answer to the ultimatum was drawn up and immediately dispatched. The note set forth clearly that France had formally declared on the 1st of August that she would strictly observe the neutrality of Belgium in the event of war with the central powers. The Belgian answer stated that in the instance of a breach of neutrality on the part of France, the Belgian army would offer the most vigorous resistance to the invader. The reply asserted that Belgium had always been faithful to her international obligations and that an attack upon her independence for maintaining her neutrality constituted a flagrant violation of international law. The Belgian government, the note continued, would not betray her duty to Europe and refused to believe that her independence could be held only at the price of violating her neutrality. The reply closed with: 'If this hope is disappointed the Belgian government is firmly resolved to repel, by all the means in their power, every attack upon their rights.'"—*First Belgian grey book*.—"As Germany had not yet committed any act of war, the Belgian Cabinet decided that there was at present no occasion to appeal to the guaranteeing Powers. At midday M. Davignon

made this decision known to the Belgian representatives at the Courts of Paris, Berlin, London, Vienna, and St. Petersburg (Petrograd). Acting in the same way, the King sent a telegram to the King of England in which he contented himself with making a supreme appeal for 'diplomatic' intervention by the English Government to safeguard Belgian neutrality. . . . Next day, the 4th August, was a day full of stirring events. At 6 a. m. the German Minister drew up a letter, bringing to the notice of the Belgian Government that, as Belgium intended to oppose the passage of German troops, 'the latter, to their deep regret, find themselves compelled to take—if necessary by force of arms—those measures of defence already foreshadowed as indispensable, in view of the menace of France.' The die was cast. The powerful German Empire, violating her plighted word and repudiating her signature, was about to fall with all her might upon the small country which refused to forfeit her honour. . . . Brussels was seething with excitement. The hour when the Belgian Parliament was to hold its last sitting was drawing nigh. This sitting was held in the Hall of the Chamber, where the members of the Senate and the Chamber had taken up their position mingled together in a way that the gravity of the situation alone could explain. The streets were filled with an excited crowd, which hastened in huge masses to the Rue de la Loi. The King, accompanied by the Queen and the Royal Family, was to be present at this solemn sitting. The arrival of the Sovereign was awaited with ill-concealed impatience, and people burned with desire to hear the words of a speech, the theme and motive of which every one realized. The noble phrases of the reply to the German ultimatum had aroused feelings unknown a little while before, sentiments of great patriotic pride mingled with and intensified by deep emotion. . . . At Brussels the Place du Palais de la Nation was black with people. Soon the echoes of frantic applause rose above the city—the Royal cortège was arriving. The King advanced through the compact ranks of the crowd, which thrilled at the sight and was overcome by its simple grandeur. He was mounted and wearing service uniform. Behind him, in a carriage, came the Queen and the three Royal children. A wave of enthusiasm swept over the spectators: Flemish and Walloon, Catholics, Socialists, and Liberals, all felt that they had but one soul—the soul of the nation, the Belgian soul which had at last been revealed in her. With the country in danger, all the dispute of the time of peace was hushed. . . . [It was also on this occasion that M. de Broqueville, Minister of War, stepped to the balcony and informed the mass of people waiting outside the Chamber that 'the soil of our country has been polluted.' The Ministry was just then in receipt of a dispatch from the general staff stating that the German troops had crossed the frontier at Gemmenich, thereby flagrantly violating neutral relationship and initiating an avowed invasion which was thrust upon the Belgians with no alternative (to choose) but to resist with all the possible resources available.] Suddenly a profound silence fell. The King was standing there, ready to read his speech. And in the midst of that silence, in which one could almost hear the beating of hearts, there slowly fell these well-scanned words, pronounced in a steady voice:—"Gentlemen,—Never since 1830 has there been so grave an hour for Belgium. The integrity of our land is threatened. The very strength of our right, the sympathy with which Belgium, proud of her free institutions and moral conquests, has always been

regarded by other nations, and the need that the balance of power in Europe has for our independent existence, give us hope that the events which threaten will not happen. But if our hope is vain, if we must resist an invasion of our land and defend our threatened homes, we must, no matter how hard it may be, be found armed and ready for the greatest sacrifices. . . . If the foreigner, disregarding our neutrality, all the demands of which we have always scrupulously fulfilled, violates our territory, he will find all the Belgians ranged round their Sovereign, who will never betray his constitutional oath, and their Government, in whom the whole nation has absolute confidence. I have faith in our destiny. A country defending itself is respected by all. That country will not perish. God be with us and our just cause. Long live Independent Belgium!"—The members of the Assembly and the crowds on the platforms had applauded the most vigorous passages of this speech. Emotion was at its height. . . . On the 3rd of August . . . Germany declared war on France in the evening, and information about the military preparations in Rhenish Prussia showed clearly that Germany was preparing to cross the Belgian frontier. Orders were at once issued for the destruction of all the important works, tunnels, bridges, etc., on the routes open to the invader; the railways of the Provinces of Liège and (Belgian) Luxembourg were cut, and the principal roads were blocked."—L. Vander Essen, *Invasion and war in Belgium*, pp. 32, 34-35, 47.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front; a; Preparation for war: b. 1914.—Germany and Belgian neutrality.—German evidence on the unjustifiability of the invasion of Belgium.—"At the outbreak of the World War, Dr. Muehlon was a member of the Krupp board of directors of Essen. As his letters show, he was in touch with persons well informed of the real course of events. He was, therefore, one of the relatively few Germans who knew, from the outset, that the Central Empires had forced an unnecessary and unjustifiable war upon Europe; and he was one of the far smaller number of Germans whom the conduct of their government stirred to indignation and moral revolt. . . . In one important matter Muehlon's evidence is direct. The dealings of the Belgian government with the Krupp Company were matters of which he had immediate personal knowledge. The German assertion that the Belgian government had arranged to cooperate with Great Britain in aggressive war against Germany has never been substantiated; it has, indeed, been disproved; but Muehlon's testimony that, for years before the war, Belgium had made itself dependent on Germany for military supplies and that, at the outbreak of war, fortress artillery, ordered and fully paid for by the Belgian government and long ready for shipment, was, at the request of the Belgians themselves, still held in storage in the Krupp works at Essen—this testimony reduces the German assertion to an absurdity. It leaves the Belgians at fault in one respect only: they had misplaced their confidence. They believed that the German government would observe its treaty obligations and keep its repeatedly plighted faith."—M. Smith, *Introduction to international conciliation*, Sept., 1918.—In the same issue, pp. 27-37, the following letter is reproduced in the original German with an English translation.—"The forcible occupation of Belgium, as well as that of Holland, was, it is true, often discussed before the war as a possibility; but it remained a military secret that in the event of a simultaneous war against Russia and France, the German authorities had definitely

adopted the plan of overthrowing France in the quickest possible way and with all available forces, before slow-moving Russia was ready to strike, and had therefore decided, whatever might be the situation, to demand passage through Belgium. [See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: i, 6, v.] After the imperial chancellor had taken action in conformity with the military mandate, and after he was aware that Belgium was preparing to defend itself, he appeared before the Reichstag and gave his excuse: 'Necessity knows no law.' Belgium, he said, would be restored and indemnified. His speech showed plainly that Belgium was being maltreated without any fault of its own, solely because of German strategic considerations. Although his plea in justification did not reveal the necessity of choosing precisely this plan of campaign, but rather the boundless brutality of those who framed the plan, his admission of Belgium's innocence was, nevertheless, his greatest moment in the war. . . . It was not long before the now familiar aspersions against Belgian neutrality were started—aspersions which have been sufficiently refuted to satisfy all those who are capable of thinking. Belgium—in the outcome least unfortunate for that country—was to be simply an object of barter at the conclusion of peace. . . . I have myself talked, in Germany, with many men qualified to form an opinion on the subject, but never with one who so much as attempted, with a single word, to hint at any fault on the part of Belgium. Nevertheless, thousands of hirelings were and are still permitted to circulate a constantly growing series of accusations, which are intended to cause that declaration of the imperial chancellor to be forgotten and to harden the hearts of the German people against Belgium. The German people, who, as it is, trouble their leaders with few questions about truth and justice in the war, who above all things desire to roll off upon others the inevitable burden of misery and, in the main, demand from their leaders one thing only—that they encounter no material reverse of fortune! The German people, who, as it is—no matter what the imperial chancellor may have said—are to a certain degree determined to believe that the Belgians got only their deserts when their country was raided, and who do not need any addition to their old stock of fairy tales about Belgium: that the French were in Belgium first; that the English would have come to Belgium anyway; that the Belgians should have behaved themselves and offered no resistance, etc. It may therefore be not altogether useless, if I contribute my modest share towards the establishment of the truth. What I have told every acquaintance of mine orally, may perhaps be more effective if I submit it publicly to those with whom I am unacquainted. And if it does not help, may it at least be a consolation to the friends of truth and, especially, to the Belgians. In any case, my testimony has the advantage that, with a little good will, it may be substantiated and that thousands of witnesses and ample written evidence may be found in Germany.

"Before the war Belgium had ordered from the Krupp Company in Essen four large modern guns (twenty-eight centimeters) for the fortifications of Antwerp. At the beginning of 1914 the guns were completed, accepted, paid in full, and ready for shipment; but the work on the fortifications of Antwerp had not yet been carried so far that the guns could be set up. The debates on this subject in the Belgian Chamber of Deputies will perhaps be recalled. At this point the Belgian government requested Krupp to keep the guns in storage for the time being. Krupp agreed, but not willingly.

Such storage is unusual, and it entails many inconveniences. Krupp repeatedly took steps, both by word of mouth and in writing, to get rid of the guns; the Belgian government continually repeated its request that Krupp be kind enough to keep them, and was even ready to pay for the accommodation. A *modus vivendi* was repeatedly found but the attitude of both parties remained unchanged until the war broke out, when the Prussian Ministry of War at once seized these guns in Essen as booty (value four million marks). From this I draw the following conclusion: Had the Belgian government had any evil intentions whatsoever against Germany, or had it expected a German attack, it would, at the very latest when war threatened, have secured possession of its expensive guns, instead of insisting that they should remain in Krupp's care. My evidence, however, is not confined to this single instance. For many years Belgium kept up active connections with Germany in the matter of its war materials. . . . I have always had the impression that by giving large orders to Germany, which is greedy for business, keen in its pursuit, and quick to take offense, Belgium believed that it could keep that country in good humor, whereas she expected France, whose industry enjoyed little support from the government and was, moreover, less keen as regarded its own development, to understand her reasons for favoring Germany and to be content with general indications of sympathy.

"A few months before the war Belgium established another and particularly important connection between itself and Krupp. For its supply of a new (scarcely tested) ammunition for field artillery it placed itself entirely in the hands of this company. . . . Consider the close dependency of the war-material business on governmental intentions, and then, on the basis of the occurrences I have here recounted, which are matters of public knowledge, pass judgment on the alleged *mala fides* of the Belgian government towards Germany."—W. Muehlon (*Die Freie Zeitung, Bern*, May 4, 1918).—See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 24; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 24; 34 to 37; 51 to 54; 57; 58; 61; 73, iii.

1914.—Belgian mission to United States.—"His majesty, the King of the Belgians, appointed a Special Envoy, for the purpose of acquainting the President of the United States of America with the deplorable state of affairs prevailing in Belgium, whose neutrality has been unjustly violated. . . . Mr. Henry Carton de Wiart, Minister of Justice, was chosen for this mission . . . which was received by the President of the United States in Washington, on September 16th, 1914. Mr. Henry Carton de Wiart, in the name of the Mission, made the following address: 'Excellency: His Majesty, the King of the Belgians, has charged us with a special mission to the President of the United States. Let me say to you how much we feel ourselves honored to have been called upon to express the sentiments of our King and of our whole nation to the illustrious statesman whom the American people have called to the highest dignity of the commonwealth. . . . Ever since her independence was first established, Belgium has been declared neutral in perpetuity. This neutrality, guaranteed by the Powers, has recently been violated by one of them. Had we consented to abandon our neutrality for the benefit of one of the belligerents, we would have betrayed our obligations toward the others. And it was the sense of our international obligations as well as that of our dignity and honor that has driven us to resistance. The consequences suffered by the Belgian

Nation were not confined purely to the harm occasioned by the forced march of an invading army. This army not only seized a great portion of our territory, but it committed incredible acts of violence, the nature of which is contrary to the law of Nations. Peaceful inhabitants were massacred, defenseless women and children were outraged, open and undefended towns were destroyed, historical and religious monuments were reduced to dust, and the famous library of the University of Louvain was given to the flames. Our Government has appointed a judicial Commission to make an official investigation, so as to thoroughly and impartially examine the facts and to determine the responsibility thereof, and I will have the honor, Excellency, to hand over to you the Proceedings of the inquiry.

"In this frightful holocaust which is sweeping

Belgian delegates to the United States, pp. v-vii.
—See also *WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: x. 1914-1918.—German occupation.—Atrocities.*
—With the crossing of the Belgian frontier the German armies proceeded to crush resistance. On August 4 (1914), General von Emmich hurled his soldiers against the Belgian forts about Liège and succeeded in entering the city seven days later. It was, thereafter, an easy matter for the Teuton forces to penetrate Belgium up to Louvain, where the main Belgian force established its principal line of defense. On August 19, the Belgian army was again forced to retreat, in the face of overwhelming odds, towards Malines and Antwerp. Brussels fell before General von Kluck on the following day (see *BRUSSELS*), and the fortress of Namur succumbed to General von Bülow's attack on the 22d, leaving the path clear for a German invasion



RUINS OF LOUVAIN, SHOWING RAVAGES OF THE WAR

all over Europe, the United States has adopted a neutral attitude. And it is for this reason that your country, standing apart from either one of the belligerents, is in the best position to judge without bias or partiality, the conditions under which the war is being waged. It is at the request, even at the initiative of the United States, that all civilized nations have formulated and adopted at The Hague a law regulating the laws and usage of war. We refuse to believe that war has abolished the family of Civilized Powers, or the regulations to which they have freely consented. . . . At the very moment we were leaving Belgium, the King recalled to us his trip to the United States and the vivid and strong impression your powerful and virile civilization left upon his mind. Our faith in your fairness, our confidence in your justice, in your spirit of generosity and sympathy, all these have dictated our present mission."—J. Beck, *Case of Belgium in the present war, published for the*

of France. A Franco-British force did make an attempt to stay the German conquest of Belgium (August 20-23) but the effort was unsuccessful when General Castelnau's army was forced to retreat and take up a defensive position at Nancy. With the arrival of the British Expeditionary Force under Field Marshal Sir John French (August 20), a counter offensive was ordered by General Joffre, but when the French armies retreated hastily from the Ardennes towards Sedan, General French abandoned his position at Mons (August 24) and fell back into France. The Germans now had an open road to France. One of the darkest periods in Belgian history set in upon the invaded nation, simultaneous with the conquest of the Germans and the subsequent invasion of France. (See *WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: a to f*). Occasionally, during the four years of warfare the Belgians successfully encountered the Germans, but, in the main, beginning with the loss of Antwerp,

October 10, 1914. (See ANTWERP: 1914.) Belgium's period of suffering lasted until the signing of the armistice on November 11, 1918.

"We may now sum up and endeavour to explain the character and significance of the wrongful acts done by the German army in Belgium. . . . Murder, rape, arson, and pillage began from the moment when the German army crossed the frontier. For the first fortnight of the war the towns and villages near Liège were the chief sufferers. From the 10th of August to the end of the month, outrages spread in the directions of Charleroi and Malines and reach their period of greatest intensity. There is a certain significance in the fact that the outrages round Liège coincide with the unexpected resistance of the Belgian army in that district, and that the slaughter which reigned from the 19th August to the end of the month is contemporaneous with the period when the German army's need for a quick passage through Belgium at all costs was deemed imperative. Here let a distinction be drawn between two classes of outrages. Individual acts of brutality—ill-treatment of civilians, rape, plunder, and the like—were very widely committed. These are more numerous and more shocking than would be expected in warfare between civilised Powers, but they differ rather in extent than in kind from what has happened in previous though not recent wars. In all wars many shocking and outrageous acts must be expected. . . . In the present war, however—and this is the gravest charge against the German army—the evidence shows that the killing of non-combatants was carried out to an extent for which no previous war between nations claiming to be civilised (for such cases as the atrocities perpetrated by the Turks on the Bulgarian Christians in 1876, and on the Armenian Christians in 1895 and 1896, do not belong to that category) furnishes any precedent. That this killing was done as part of a deliberate plan is clear from the facts hereinbefore set forth regarding Louvain, Aerschot, Dinant, and other towns. The killing was done under orders in each place. It began at a certain fixed date, and stopped (with some few exceptions) at another fixed date. Some of the officers who carried out the work did it reluctantly, and said they were obeying directions from their chiefs. The same remarks apply to the destruction of property. House burning was part of the programme; and villages, even large parts of a city, were given to the flames as part of the terrorising policy. Citizens of neutral states who visited Belgium in December and January report that the German authorities do not deny that non-combatants were systematically killed in large numbers during the first weeks of the invasion, and this, so far as we know, has never been officially denied. If it were denied, the flight and continued voluntary exile of thousands of Belgium refugees would go far to contradict a denial, for there is no historical parallel in modern times for the flight of a large part of a nation before an invader. The German Government have, however, sought to justify their severities on the grounds of military necessity, and have excused them as retaliation for cases in which civilians fired on German troops. There may have been cases in which such firing occurred, but no proof has ever been given, or, to our knowledge, attempted to be given, of such cases, nor of the stories of shocking outrages perpetrated by Belgian men and women on German soldiers. . . . One elementary error creeps at once into the German argument, for they were likely to confound, and did in some instances certainly confound,

legitimate military operations with the hostile intervention of civilians. Troops belonging to the same army often fire by mistake upon each other. That the German army was no exception to this rule is proved not only by many Belgian witnesses but by the most irrefragable kind of evidence, the admission of German soldiers themselves recorded in their war diaries. . . . We gladly record the instances where the evidence shows that humanity had not wholly disappeared from some members of the German army, and that they realised that the responsible heads of that organisation were employing them, not in war but in butchery. . . . Two classes of murders in particular require special mention, because one of them is almost new, and the other altogether unprecedented. The former is the seizure of peaceful citizens as so-called hostages to be kept as a pledge for the conduct of the civil population, or as a means to secure some military advantage, or to compel the payment of a contribution, the hostages being shot if the condition imposed by the arbitrary will of the invader is not fulfilled. Such hostage taking, with the penalty of death attached, has now and then happened, the most notable case being the shooting of the Archbishop of Paris and some of his clergy by the Communards of Paris in 1871, but it is opposed both to the rules of war and to every principle of justice and humanity. The latter kind of murder is the killing of the innocent inhabitants of a village because shots have been fired, or are alleged to have been fired, on the troops by someone in the village. For this practice no previous example and no justification have been or can be pleaded. . . . That these acts should have been perpetrated on the peaceful population of an offending country which was not at war with its invaders but merely defending its own neutrality, guaranteed by the invading Power, may excite amazement and even incredulity. It was with amazement and almost with incredulity that the Committee first read the depositions relating to such acts. But when the evidence regarding Liège was followed by that regarding Aerschot, Louvain, Andenne, Dinant, and the other towns and villages, the cumulative effect of such a mass of concurrent testimony became irresistible, and we were driven to the conclusion that the things described had really happened."—Bryce, *Report of the committee on alleged German outrages*, pp. 39-41, 42-44.

On August 14 (1914), the German government sent an official note to the Belgian government threatening that the war would soon assume "a cruel character" because civilians had taken part in the fighting around Liège and had ill-treated the wounded, and also because the civilian population at Antwerp had destroyed the property of Germans and had brutally massacred women and children. Realizing that this attempt to shift the responsibility of the outrages committed in the wake of the invasion was at most based on inaccurate and misleading information received by the German government, the Belgian government, nevertheless, published through the press daily instructions, advising the civilians not to fight the enemy appearing in their district, nor to try to abuse or threaten them, to keep indoors and not to offer any provocative opportunity to the enemy. The civilians were instructed to leave their homes whenever the enemy soldiers occupied them for purposes of defense.

"Then the German army overran Belgium; almost from the outset of the campaign the German newspapers were full of stories of irregular methods of warfare adopted by the Belgian people

and horrible atrocities committed by them on isolated German scouts who fell into their hands, and on the German wounded. German refugees, who left Belgium by the eastern frontier, told of attacks by Belgian mobs on men, women, and children, and there was even one detailed account of how German women had been dragged from a train, stripped naked, and torn to pieces by an excited mob. Then came tales of treacherous attacks on the German troops by Belgian civilians, generally described as 'being led by their curé.' There were accounts of German soldiers being hospitably received by the Belgians on whom they were billeted, and then poisoned, or otherwise murdered. There were tales of Belgian women gouging out the eyes of the wounded, and a story of a number of wounded being murdered in a Belgian hospital. In many cases these stories were told with particulars of times and place, and purported to be related by eye-witnesses. They appeared in letters of soldiers from the front, or they were told by wounded men, or their escorts, coming back over the German frontier. They appeared in newspapers all over Germany—papers of every kind. . . . However, stories of all kinds of atrocities alleged to have been committed by the Belgians were widely believed in the German army and in Germany in the first weeks of the war. There is no doubt the result was that these fictions largely contributed to the outbursts of savagery on the part of the invaders that marked the latter part of August, 1914. The worst of atrocity-mongering is that it leads to reprisals which are themselves atrocities. . . . Again, everyone will remember how, in 1914, stories were freely circulated of Belgian children arriving in England with their hands cut off by German soldiers. At the time, I was told that there were such cases in London. An inquiry of the Belgian Reception Committee brought the reply that they knew of no such case. Precisely the same stories were told in Germany of German families arriving from the Belgian frontier bringing with them their children whose hands had been cut off by the Belgians. Here, too, the story was a fiction. It is hard to understand how it was ever believed anywhere. One might imagine a dead child being shown with its hands cut off, but it is absurd to imagine a child's hands being cut off and the child surviving for many minutes. For even surgical amputation of one hand means that the big artery of the arm must be dealt with skilfully and rapidly unless the subject of the operation is to bleed to death. But the story was believed in Germany of the Belgians, as it was believed in other countries of the Germans. Has not a famous cartoonist drawn a picture which was circulated by thousands, showing the Kaiser's nightmare dream of scores of little children holding up their stumps of arms with the hands gone! There was another story in September, 1914, that there were many cases in the London hospitals of our wounded soldiers who had been blinded, by having their eyes gouged out by fiendish enemies, as they lay helpless on the ground. The story was contradicted by the Press Bureau, on information received from the hospitals. But precisely the same story was widely circulated in Germany, and in this case it was frequently alleged that it was Belgian women who had gouged out the eyes of the unfortunate German wounded. In December, 1914, several German papers published a statement that in the hospitals of Hanover and Berlin there were soldiers who had suffered this cruel outrage. The directors of these hospitals, in reply to an inquiry, said that no such case was known to them. It was stated that at Aachen

[Aix-la-Chapelle] a whole ward in a hospital was full of wounded men whose eyes had been put out. In reply to an inquiry, the chief surgeon of the hospital, who, by the way, was a celebrated oculist, wrote on September 30, 1914: 'In none of the hospitals of Aachen is there "a ward full of wounded men whose eyes have been put out," and to my knowledge there has absolutely been no case of this kind at Aachen.' But it seems almost impossible to kill a lie of this kind once it has been started. . . . An ugly feature of these German stories is that they betray undoubted hostility to the Belgian and French priests, and they certainly were not written to Catholic homes. In all armies soldiers writing home from the front sometimes indulge in what may be called 'romancing.' I heard from an English officer how in censoring the letters of his men he found one in which the writer described how he had taken part in a bayonet charge. He said to the man, 'Why do you write this kind of thing? You know we have never been in a bayonet charge.' And the reply was, 'Of course I know it, Sir, but that is the *kind of thing they like to read at home.*' It would seem that there are some German homes where they like to read about atrocities committed by Catholic priests."—A. H. Atteridge (*The Month*, Jan.-June, 1917, pp. 425-433).—"Into Dutch Limburg the tide of immigration flowed without great variations; but this was not the case with Zeeland or Brabant, where the Belgian refugees arrived, at the time of the siege of Antwerp, at the rate of some hundreds of thousands (600,000, it is believed) in a few days. Zeeland received not only the fugitives from Antwerp, who arrived directly by boat, but also those from Gand, Bruges, Ostend, and other parts of Flanders, who had travelled by road to the Dutch territory lying on the left bank of the Scheldt. Through Fluis, a little frontier town containing only a few hundreds of inhabitants, 60,000 persons passed in October; on certain days the little Zeeland town had its population increased tenfold. At Hontenisse, which contained rather more than five thousand inhabitants, there were, about the 15th of October, 18,000 refugees; certain farmhouses gave shelter to as many as 300. . . . Just as they fled to Holland, so thousands of Belgians who were driven from their homes by the German invasion entered France in the early days of the war. When the soil of France was itself invaded, this migration, which had become more difficult, was considerably lessened. But it rose again, attaining extraordinary figures, when the Germans, after the fall of Antwerp, moved onward to the coast and to the Yser. On the day before the enemy reached Ostend, and even on the same day, there was a formidable exodus, chiefly along the road from Nieuport to Dunkirk, but also by sea. 'At Calais,' writes a correspondent of *Le Temps*, 'one saw them entering the harbour—a host of small fishing-boats from the Belgian coast, from Blankenberghe, Heyst, Nieuport, Ostend, or La Panne. What a heart-breaking spectacle met the eyes when these poor people landed! They were packed together on the narrow decks of the small sailing-boats, unfortunate families who had been able to save and bring away with them only a little linen and the few trifling objects to which they were most attached. . . . In Switzerland also the Belgian refugees are comparatively numerous; there are some 2,500 who are provided with homes by the care of committees which have been formed in the cantons of Vaud, Geneva, Neuchâtel, Fribourg, Le Valais, and Berne, and 1,000 who live upon their own resources. . . . At the time of the great exodus, between the 7th and

the 14th of October, 1914, no less than 26,000 fugitives were landed in Folkestone harbour. A large number arrived at Tilbury also, and on the 14th of October hundreds of fugitives who had embarked upon fishing-boats arrived at Ramsgate and other small harbours of the South-east coast. Finally, England received the surplus of the Dutch immigration. At the present time [1915] more than 180,000 Belgian refugees are awaiting in England the liberation of their national territory; while many thousands of Belgian wounded are being treated in English hospitals."—Gerlache de Gomery, *Belgium in war time*, pp. 133-141.—See also *WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: b; c; d; e; v, 1; and Miscellaneous auxiliary services; X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 1; a, 12, ii.*

1914-1918.—National distress.—Relief meas-

rock-bottom basis of Belgium's national existence, was shattered by the shock of the German armies. Within ten weeks from the fourth of August almost the entire country was in the possession of the enemy. With credit destroyed, production came to an instant standstill. Mines and workshops, factories and mills closed, and panic seized the land. The whole of the working population was plunged into the deepest misery. The harvest was being gathered as war broke on the country and the ripe crops were left standing in the fields where they were trampled by the armies or left to rot. Belgium on July thirty-first was a land of intense activity. A week later it was a land of the unemployed. July thirty-first found 1,757,489 men, women, and children occupied in upwards of seven hundred industries; 1,204,810 people were tilling the land. August seventh found practically



REFUGEES FROM ANTWERP, FLEEING BEFORE GERMAN INVASION

ures.—“Few know in detail the situation in which Belgium found herself in the autumn of 1914. The invasion by the German armies overwhelmed the country almost as completely as an avalanche overwhelms a village lying in its path. The superstructure of civilized society was swept away. Belgium had been the most highly industrialized country in the world. It imported seventy-eight per cent of its breadstuffs. Its own agricultural products afforded sustenance to the population for only four months out of the year. For the other eight months the country was dependent upon imported foods; much of them quickly perishable. A peaceable interruption of overseas or overland commerce would have brought the whole country into immediate sight of starvation, even without the horrors of invasion. Forty-nine per cent of the population were salary and wage earners. Almost half the population, then, was dependent on the normal functioning of industry. Credit, which is the basis of modern industrial activity and the

every man, woman, and child on farms, in fields, on canals, on railroads, in every village, town, and city, suddenly idle, without work, and without food, Preceding the westward march of the invaders came a wave of refugees. Uprooted from the soil, flung from villages and cities invaded, often burned and pillaged, they fled westward, carrying with them panic and blind terror. While Belgium's heroic army by its stand at Liège and Namur may have saved Paris and Calais, it could not save its own country. As the Germans advanced they seized every line of communication,—the railroads, street-cars, canals, telegraphs, telephones, and mails. The copper nerves and iron veins which are the life of every modern nation were wrenched from the Belgians. Every village was cut off from its neighbor; every town from the next town. There was no means of transport, except for German troops, so that every commune, from the tiniest village to the greatest city, was suddenly isolated, ignorant of what was hap-

pening a few miles off, and unable to ascertain the most vital news, except through a few hasty words that might fall from the shaking lips of fugitives. As the Germans occupied town after town, province after province, they quartered soldiers upon the Belgians, and these hastened the consumption of what little food was available. General von Emmich's proclamation to the Belgians before Liège ran: 'I give formal guarantee to the Belgian population that it will not have to suffer the horrors of war; that we shall pay in money for the food we must take from the country; that our soldiers will show themselves to be the best friends of a people for whom we entertain the highest esteem, the greatest sympathy.' But the patriotic resistance of the Belgians changed all this. General von Beseler's despatch to the Kaiser following the fall of Antwerp is typical of the psychology of the soldier, and has a curiously medieval ring: 'The war booty taken at Antwerp is enormous: at least 500 cannon and huge quantities of ammunition, sanitation materials, numerous high-power motor-cars, locomotives, wagons, 4,000,000 kilograms of wheat, large quantities of flour, coal, and flax wool, the value of which is estimated at 10,000,000 marks; copper, silver, one armored-train, several hospital trains, and quantities of fish.' There are few of the raw materials of industry which cannot be put to some military use. A great part of the machinery of peace-time can be converted into machinery with which to manufacture implements of war. Above all soldiers need food and consume it in immense quantities. Finding all these things at hand in Belgium the Germans proceeded to commandeer them right and left. Linseed oil, oil-cakes, nitrates, animal and vegetable oils of all sorts, petroleum and mineral oils, wool, copper, rubber, ivory, cocoa, rice, wine, beer—anything and everything that men could consume or that the German factories could utilize—were seized and transported to the Fatherland. In many cases the goods were confiscated; in others they were requisitioned by the conquerors, a price was decided upon, and payment promised at some convenient time in the future. Belgium was gutted. From the isolated communes came frantic appeals for help. The Belgians appealed first to the Germans, who in some cases divided their army rations with the people, although this was unsystematic and utterly useless when seven millions were concerned. They appealed to their neighbor Holland, but the Dutch were eating war bread and anxiously hoarding every bit of food-stuff, for they were as yet unable to import enough for their own uses. They appealed to Brussels, sending purchasing agents with dog-carts to buy a little flour and potatoes in the open market; for Brussels was officially the capital, and they were accustomed to turn to Brussels. But Brussels, like themselves, was isolated and face to face with famine. The sole advantage it possessed over the other communes was a volunteer relief organization, called the Central Relief Committee (*le Comité Central de Secours et d'Alimentation pour l'Agglomération Bruxelloise*), formed on September fifth under the patronage of the American and Spanish Ministers, Mr. Brand Whitlock and the Marquis of Villalobar. In every little village there was a *Bureau de Bienfaisance*; often there was a Society of Saint Vincent de Paul and a *Comité de Secours*. In the larger cities there were sturdy branches of the Red Cross, with committees of charity, cheap restaurants, committees to take charge of the children of soldiers, to provide proper diet for nursing mothers, and a variety

of other relief organizations, secular and religious, such as the Little Sisters of the Poor, mainly under the auspices of the Roman Catholic Church. But though the local machinery was at hand there were first four general problems to face: the re-establishment of order and credit abroad; the right to transport foodstuffs through the British blockade into territory in the hands of the Germans; the right to use the transport facilities of Belgium in the distribution of such imports; and the securing of a guarantee that the Germans would requisition for themselves nothing thus imported for the Belgian population. The Central Relief Committee, which had been formed to care for the wants of Brussels, appealed through its American and Spanish Minister-patrons to Governor-General Kolmar von der Goltz to guarantee the safety of any supplies which might be purchased or donated abroad for the benefit of the Belgian civil population. On October sixteenth the Governor-General gave formal assurance that 'foodstuffs of all sorts imported by the Committee to assist the civil population shall be reserved exclusively for the nourishment of the civil population of Belgium, and that consequently these foodstuffs shall be exempt from requisition on the part of the military authorities and shall rest exclusively at the disposition of the Committee.' Meanwhile Mr. Whitlock had appealed officially to the United States Government. In the London *Times* for Wednesday, October fourteenth, 1914, is the following telegram: 'New York, October 13.—The Administration cannot permit Mr. Page to have food supplies for the starving population of Brussels shipped in his name to Mr. Whitlock until the German Government sanctions this step. Mr. Page's urgent representations concerning the immediate necessity of relieving the wants of Brussels were communicated to Germany last Wednesday, but no reply has yet been received.' [Mr. Page was United States ambassador in London.] Armed with the assurance given by Governor-General von der Goltz that nothing imported by the committee would be requisitioned by the Germans, Emile Francqui and Baron Lambert of the Central Relief Committee, and Hugh Gibson, secretary of the American Legation, went to London to explain to the British Government the desperate situation of the city of Brussels and to request permission to import food. At the same time they appealed personally to American Ambassador Walter Hines Page and were by him referred to an American mining engineer named Herbert Clark Hoover, who had just rendered notable services to the Embassy and to his fellow-countrymen by heading a committee to advance funds to send home to America those of our nationals who had been caught in Europe at the outbreak of war. As a result of conferences between Mr. Hoover and Mr. Francqui a plan was drawn up and submitted to the British Government, which granted permission to Mr. Hoover and to an American Committee which he should organize under the patronage of the Ministers of the United States and of Spain in London, The Hague, and Brussels, the right to purchase and transport through the British blockade to Rotterdam, Holland, cargoes of foodstuffs, destined to be trans-shipped into Belgium, consigned to the American Minister in Brussels, and to be distributed through the Central Relief Committee—now expanded to the Belgian National Relief Committee (*la Comité National de Secours et d'Alimentation*)—under the direction of American citizens, who should certify, as representatives of Mr. Brand Whitlock, that the food was equitably apportioned and consumed

only by the Belgian civil population. This plan was not for the assistance of the city of Brussels alone but was for the whole of Belgium. The *London Times* of October twenty-fourth, 1914, says: 'A Commission has been set up in London under the title of *The American Commission for Relief in Belgium*. The Brussels Committee reports feeding 300,000 daily.' On November fourth it states: 'The Commission for Relief in Belgium yesterday issued their first weekly report, 3 London Wall Buildings. A cargo was received yesterday at Brussels just in time. Estimated monthly requirements: 60,000 tons grain, 15,000 tons maize, 3,000 tons rice and peas.—Approved by the Spanish and American Ministers, Brussels.'—E. E. Hunt, *War bread*, pp. 175-183.—'A change had come about in the attitude of the German authorities toward the Commission for Relief in Belgium and the National Committee. 'I approve with lively satisfaction the work of the Central Relief Committee,' his [von der Goltz's] letter runs, 'and I do not hesitate formally and expressly to give by this letter assurance that foodstuffs of all sorts imported by the Committee to feed the civil population are reserved exclusively for the needs of the population of Belgium, that consequently these foodstuffs are exempt from requisition on the part of the military authorities, and that they remain exclusively at the disposition of the Committee.' Eight months later, on June twenty-sixth, 1915, [the new] Governor-General, von Bissing, wrote to the Minister-patrons of the Committee in a very different strain. . . . [in a communication which] included this ominous paragraph: 'All tendency on the part of the National Committee to monopolize the distribution of charitable assistance in Belgium must be stopped. The principle must be maintained that all other charitable organizations, above all, the Belgian Red Cross, have the right to act side by side with, and outside of, the National Committee.' The National Relief Committee had never claimed, nor could it claim, a monopoly of Belgian relief work. Its policy was federal, not monopolistic. Its aim was relief in Belgium and nothing else. Scores of existing relief organizations had been patronized and subsidized by the Committee, but all were engaged in work which was humanitarian and at bottom neutral. Any other basis was impossible. Mr. Brand Whitlock, the Marquis of Villalobar, and their colleague and new Minister-patron, Jonkheer de Weede, Dutch Minister at Havre, could not have lent their names to any other program. But on the other hand the Belgian Red Cross was no longer Belgian. The German authorities, for reasons which have not been made clear, had taken charge of it and Prince Hatzfeldt was its head. Then as always when we were in great difficulty in Belgium came Herbert C. Hoover. A letter preceded him from the Marquess of Crewe, Lord President of the British Council, demanding that the German Government hand over to the Commission for Relief in Belgium and the National Relief Committee, for distribution to the Belgians, the whole of the indigenous cereal crop for 1915, and add to this the usual guarantees against military requisition. To requisition the crop the German General Government constituted an interesting bit of machinery called the Central Crop Commission on which there were five Germans, one Belgian, and one American. A maximum price was decreed at which the crop was to be purchased of the farmer and a maximum price at which flour was to be sold throughout Belgium. Barley was requisitioned for the Belgian breweries; rye was apportioned between human and animal con-

sumers; and traffic in cereals outside of the channels of the Commission was absolutely prohibited. The function of the Central Crop Commission was to requisition the crop under such circumstances as made it easy for the Belgian National Committee and the Commission for Relief in Belgium to purchase and distribute it to the ultimate consumers. Provincial cooperative societies were instituted with sufficient capital available to buy one-twelfth of the crop each month, and it was then turned over to the committees, and by them distributed as if it were imported grain."—*Ibid.*, I, p. 308.—'The problem of Belgian Relief is not simply one of feeding a population; there is also the broad problem of destitution. In Belgium over fifty per cent of the working population is unemployed; and beyond all this there are the normally poor, the blind, the orphan, and the helpless. Three-and-a-half million people in Belgium, and two millions in France are either wholly or partially destitute. They must have not only the imported supplies, but they must have the supplement of native foodstuffs in potatoes and soup. They must be clothed with millions of garments, they must be warmed with thousands of tons of coal, the homeless must be housed. For security's sake, the babies and mothers of the poor must have their food prepared and served in separate canteens and the older children must have supplementary public meals in the schools. Furthermore the middle and professional classes denuded of income must have considerate and sympathetic treatment. All of this gigantic labor has been accomplished by the creation of hundreds of special committees penetrating horizontally and vertically into the population.'—H. C. Hoover, *America's obligation in Belgian relief (pamphlet)*, p. 7.—See also INTERNATIONAL RELIEF; RED CROSS: 1864-1914.

1914-1918.—The Belgian deportations.—Clandestine journalism.—'On October 3rd, 1916, the German General Headquarters issued a decree that 'Unemployed Belgians able to work may be compelled to work even outside the place where they are living. The German authorities and military courts have the right to enforce the proper execution of this regulation.' The Belgian communal authorities were immediately called upon by the Germans to furnish lists of unemployed. When the communes refused, the Germans made out the lists themselves. In order to swell them they threw men out of employment by fraudulent means, and included men who had never ceased to be employed. When the lists were ready, the victims were called up at twenty-four hours' notice. Many were called upon, under pressure of imprisonment and starvation, to sign a 'voluntary agreement.' Those of means were in some cases invited to buy themselves off by paying blackmail. Otherwise, after being inspected like cattle by representatives of the German 'Industrie-Bureau,' or even by subordinate German officials, they were marched to the station, packed into open cattle-trucks (60 men in a truck), and carried away. . . . The Germans posted soldiers with fixed bayonets to control the desperate women and children whose husbands and fathers were being deported to Germany. . . . We only know that they are being deported there to take the place of German workers in German factories, mines, and quarries, in order that the Germans so released from necessary war-work at home may be drafted into the active German armies at the front. Fifteen thousand Belgians had been deported to Germany for this purpose by October 24th, 1916, 50,000 by November 19th, and nearly 100,000 by

the beginning of December; but there are half-a-million unemployed in Belgium altogether, all of whom are exposed to deportation by the terms of the German decree, and as the Germans have already extended the measure—in practice, though not on paper—to Belgians who are not genuinely out of employment, every able-bodied worker in the Belgian territory under German occupation is a potential victim of the same outrage.”—A. J. Toynbee, *Belgian deportations*, pp. 14-15.—“Nothing could be more shocking than this wholesale carrying away of men from Belgium. I know of no case in European history to surpass it. Not even in the Thirty Years’ War were there such things done by any recognised government as the German Government has done, first and last, in Belgium. This last case is virtual slavery. The act is like that of those Arab slave-raidings in Africa who carried off negroes to the coast to sell. And the severity is the more odious because these Belgians and the work

many’s implicit approval, by Germany’s ally. But the scale of the present deportations in Belgium, though it is appalling already and no limit is in sight, is a less criminal feature than the steps by which the deportations were prepared and the object for which they are being carried out. There are half-a-million unemployed in Belgium today because the German Government, as soon as it had got the country into its power, requisitioned the Belgian stocks of raw materials and carried away the plant from Belgian industry to a standstill and threw Belgian workmen out of employment. . . . Baron von Bissing, the German Governor-General of Belgium since December, 1914, lays the responsibility for the deportations on Belgian idleness and the British Blockade. ‘England,’ he is reported to have said in his recent interview with the correspondent of the *New York Times*, ‘has reduced nearly 500,000 Belgian labourers to a chronic state of demoralising idleness. It is in order to remedy these increasingly intolerable con-



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forcibly extracted from them are going to be used against their own people. Having invaded Belgium and murdered many hundreds, indeed even thousands, among them women and children who could not be accused of ‘sniping,’ the German military Government dislocated the industrial system of the community. They carried off all the raw materials of industry and most of the machinery in factories, and now, having thus deprived the inhabitants of work, the invaders are using this unemployment as a pretext for deporting them in very large numbers to places where nothing will be known of their fate. They have not even been allowed to take leave of their wives and children. . . . Women threw themselves on the rails in front of the locomotive about to haul out the train containing the miserable captives, and the German soldiers forced them off with bayonets.”—Viscount Bryce, quoted in A. J. Toynbee, *Belgian deportations*, p. 5.—“This systematic, wholesale deportation of a people has no precedent since the Assyrian deportations of the eighth century B.C. Its only parallel in contemporary history is the Turkish deportation of the Armenians in 1915—a crime committed, with Ger-

ditions, harmful alike to the Belgian nation and the individual, that I have ordered measures to encourage the voluntary migration of unemployed Belgian labourers to Germany, and to evacuate the congenitally idle who refuse suitable work at good wages.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 16, 20.—Despite the thoroughness with which the Germans ruled Belgium, during the four years ending with the German retreat in the fall of 1918, the Belgians, in some mysterious and unknown manner, although a strict censorship was imposed upon them, managed to acquaint the inhabitants of the invaded sections from time to time with the news of the war, and also succeeded in sustaining their excellent morale. One of the chief purposes of these publications which appeared timely in the people’s mail boxes was to maintain communication with the outside world and with the aid of such information “to destroy the effects of Prussian falsehoods indefatigably repeated.” The influence of these clandestine journals was such upon the population that the German governor-general offered rewards of 100,000 francs for the detection of those responsible, but the offer proved ineffectual in disclosing the patriotic editors and distributors.—See

also WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in Northern France and Belgium: b.

1914-1918.—Martyrdom of Flanders and the Walloon country.—Its significance.—“It is not my wish that these lines be construed as fit subject of an epitaph for our cities leveled to earth. They are not dead—life survives beneath their ashes like that of returning spring, which descends and reascends to the upper soil, under the snow. Flanders and the Walloon country have, in times past, known as sorrowful days as those through which they are now passing. Burgundy, Spain, and Austria have, turn by turn, torn and dismembered them, but not destroyed, for they were created to arise—always triumphant! But if hope is ever ours and protects from the fatal wind our watch-light at the end of the avenue, it is none the less true that the present hour is strangely sad and terrible. To subdue us, Germany is not satisfied merely to throw against us her soldiers. She sends the incendiary with the torch. She does not limit herself to legitimate warfare but attacks the mother and growing child. Her efforts are directed against our entire civilization. She has wished, not only to attack our future, but our past. Her hate is complete. Our hope is in our future. Not yet realized, it burns, nevertheless, with fervor and confidence. It can not be touched or seen. However, it is as real as our presence upon earth. Our past, on the contrary, is visible and palpable. It is made of rock and it abides in our monuments. From the eleventh or twelfth century is symbolized in the crucial construction of our churches, our ideals, and our faith. We have ornamented our temples with decorations realistic as well as pious, revealing thus the *nuances* [shades] of all our thoughts. Since the thirteenth century our civic pride has been emphasized and united in a thousand towers. From our private residences, as well as our public buildings, they stand dominant, signifying to all that this pride should be above mere selfish interests or the rivalries of society. To satisfy our desire for meditation and silence we have built our convents. Our markets given over to the hands of our fullers, our butchers, our drapers, tell of our zeal for labor, commerce and industry. What we have built has been imposing and beautiful. We have created masterpieces. All the life of our historic past has been ardent and personal. In this it differs from that of other nations. At two periods, the fifteenth and sixteenth century, we have given to the world, thanks to our painters, a lesson in art. Only yesterday our literature, already illustrious though scarcely begun, voiced to the attentive ear of Renown, the names of our great writers. Europe and America know them. They are respected as well as praised. Our greatest names in literature are put along side of Carlyle and Emerson. These aesthetic blossomings have been, each time, the result of material prosperity, wide and sure. Next to England, Germany, and France, it is little Belgium that has taken rank in the commercial battles of the Occident. It is thus with a certain assurance that we celebrate our virtues. We are worthy to be, and to remain free, because we possess the ethical qualities that are suited to our civilization and that serve the various impulses and beauty of the world. We lack, perhaps, the glory of arms, but, thanks to our enemies themselves, we have conquered. ‘We have had the honor—yes, truly! without knowing it—of being the first to defend a past full of splendor and achievement. Greece and Rome attended at our sides, invisible. At Liège, in the dark sky, soared the great wings of

Pallas Athene, while below hovered the monstrous Zeppelins. None of our little Flemish or Walloon soldiers suspected this and we, ourselves, were ignorant of the fact. We only had knowledge when, later, the full moral significance of this war dawned upon us. The German theorists have confessed that they dreamed of an Asiatic civilization where whole nations are held in slavery. They wish to see again the times of Darius, of Xerxes and of Nebuchadnezzar. Fair liberty and organized oppression were again the stakes of the battle, and it was upon Belgium they first made war. If, in the immense unhappiness that has befallen us, there remains, aside from an undying hope, a motive of high exaltation and even of joy, it is to dream that our courage, our fervor and our devotion has served one of the greatest causes humanity has ever known. Let us remember, too, that during the tragic hours of the first days of August we loved, hated, acted, cried, sang and wept with an intensity such as all the existence of our past as a nation can not boast—this sudden and superb moment through which we lived, under the thunderbolt. And were we truly a nation before this magnificent moment? We wasted ourselves in petty quarrels; we were indifferent to great realities; we were even complaisant to reproaches concerning our origins, Flemish or Walloon; we strove to be lawyers, shopkeepers and office holders before being citizens. Danger has united our scattered strength in a single luminous unity. And now we rise from our ruined cities, from our leveled farms, from the immense battle field of our land, and, with victory already in our hearts—we wait!”—E. Verhaeren, *Belgium's agony* (translated from the French by Bergen Applegate).

1914-1918.—German administration by “Special Military Tribunals.”—In his “Petite histoire de l'invasion et de l'occupation allemande en Belgique,” Professor Léon Van der Essen thus describes the administration of justice in Belgium by the Germans: “The written specification of penalties is vague and leaves a free field for caprice; the definition of offences is also vague, and the essential constituent factors of the various crimes are not indicated. The laws and decrees are published, but it is a farce, because they are based on the German Military Penal Code, with which Belgians are not acquainted. When the accused appears before the tribunals he has no guarantees; there is no genuine preparation of the case, and the presence of an advocate is forbidden during the trial. All that a Belgian advocate can do is to bribe one of the (German) clerks of the Court, collect from him a few scraps of information, and finally intervene after judgment has been given by addressing a petition for mercy to the Governor-General through a host of intermediaries. Even this belated intervention (though it must be mentioned that at Brussels the advocate is allowed to say a few words while the trial is in progress) depends entirely on the good will of the provincial military governor.”

1914-1918.—African campaign.—Not a small part of Belgium's military campaign against the German forces took place in Africa, where Belgian troops cooperated with the British and French in the conquest of Germany's East and West African colonies. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 12; a, 20; 1917: VII. East African campaign: a.

1914-1918.—Vocational re-education of the maimed. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Re-education.

1915 (January).—Cardinal Mercier of Malines defies German invaders. See *WORLD WAR*: 1914: I. Western front: y.

1915.—Aerial operations and raids. See *WORLD WAR*: 1915: X. War in the air.

1916.—Flanders' language rights insured. See *WORLD WAR*: 1917: XII. Political conditions in belligerent countries: h, 5.

1916.—Allied economic conference at Paris. See *TARIFF*: 1916; *WORLD WAR*: 1916: XII. Political conditions in belligerent countries: a.

1916-1917.—Pan-German ambitions versus the World War.—“From the point of view of general European politics, the significance of Belgium and of her northern neighbor, Holland, from which she separated in 1830, has lain the fact that they have been coveted by those Germans who have desired to increase the boundaries of the German Empire, and who have to that end, advocated the absorption of certain territories lying beyond the boundaries of Germany. Belgium and Holland have been coveted by the Pan-Germans because of their riches, industrial and agricultural, because of their coast-line, abounding in excellent harbors on the Atlantic, fronting England, and also because of their colonies, Belgium possessing a vast African domain now called the Congo Colony, rich in tropical products, and Holland possessing invaluable tropical islands in the East Indies, Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and the Celebes. . . . The Pan-Germans looked with greedy eyes upon these spacious and inviting territories belonging to countries which, in a military sense, were conveniently weak.”—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe, 1870-1919*, p. 205.—See also *PAN-GERMANISM*: Pan-German League and its branches.—On April 5, 1916, the German Chancellor, speaking on the aims of the World War gave the following outlines of the future action of Germany concerning Belgium: “We will obtain sure guarantees in order that Belgium should not become a vassal-State of England and France and should not be used as an economic and military bulwark against Germany. Germany cannot abandon to Latin influence the Flemish people which has so long been brought under subjection. We will secure for them a sound development, according to their resources, founded on the Flemish language and character.” During 1917, peace proposals, coupled with an offer to evacuate Belgium, were published by the German government [see also *WORLD WAR*: 1917: XII. Political conditions, etc.: h; h, 1; h, 3; h, 4]. The proposals were rejected alike by Belgium and her allies. The German annexationists, nevertheless, were busy urging the Pan-Germans to adhere to the policy of extending the German political state and influence. Deputy Roessicke, in a speech in the Reichstag (May 15, 1917) strongly advocated permanently claiming Belgium as a German naval state. Governor-general of Belgium, von Bissing, in a letter to deputy Stressemann, wrote (June 3, 1917): “There lies in my house a memorandum composed by me for myself alone, which deals more precisely and exhaustively with the future of Belgium and arrives at the definite result that, if we do not get Belgium into our sphere of power, and if we do not govern it in German fashion and use it in German fashion, the war is lost.” The beginning of 1918 saw a marked change in the attitudes of the governments towards peace proposals. On January 8, 1918, President Wilson enunciated his famous fourteen points as a basis for negotiating peace and terminating the state of war, then in its fourth year.

The seventh point propounded by the President related to Belgium, stipulating that before peace would be acceptable Belgium must be evacuated and restored, without any attempt to limit her sovereignty. Previous to this the Bolsheviks among other proposals to the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk (December 2, 1917), in an effort to bring together representatives of the Allied Powers to discuss a general peace, also favored “the restoration of Belgium and indemnity through an international fund for damages.”—See also *WORLD WAR*: 1916: XI. Peace proposals: b, 2; 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace; a, g, m; 1917: XII. Political conditions in belligerent countries: h, 5; 1918: X. Statement of war aims: a, b, d, k; also *WORLD WAR*: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: e.

1917.—Occupation of Merckem peninsula by Belgian troops. See *WORLD WAR*: 1917: II. Western front: d, 23.

1917.—Action of Council of Flanders.—Baron de Broqueville's view on Flanders situation.—Germany's attempt to divide the country. See *WORLD WAR*: 1917: XII. Political conditions in belligerent countries: h; h, 1; h, 2; h, 3; h, 4; h, 6.

1917-1918.—Attitude of trade unions on strikes. See *ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL*: Belgium: 1917-1918.

1918 (March).—Battle of Picardy. See *WORLD WAR*: 1918: II. Western front: b.

1918 (April).—Naval operations: Zeebrugge and Ostend. See *WORLD WAR*: 1918: IX, Naval operations: a.

1918 (August-October).—Operations in Flanders.—Western front. See *WORLD WAR*: II. Western front: m; r, 2; q, 2.

1918 (September).—Armistice with Bulgaria. See *WORLD WAR*: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: c.

1918 (October).—Armistice with Turkey: Text. See *WORLD WAR*: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: d.

1918.—German grip released.—With the aid of the British fleet the Belgian Army under King Albert participated in the Foch offensive which brought about the collapse of the German armies (September 28, 1918). The hasty retreat of the Germans from western Belgium began October 16. Two days later the Germans evacuated Ostend, Zeebrugge and the submarine bases on the coast. On the morning of October 25, 1918, the king, queen and crown prince of Belgium made a state entry into Bruges. The forced evacuation of Belgian territory continued unabated until the signing of the armistice, November 11, 1918. Two days later the king entered Ghent; Antwerp on the 10th; and on November 22 the royal family were enthusiastically greeted on their return to Brussels.—See also *WORLD WAR*: 1918: XI. End of the war: a; c; d; d, 1; f; f, 1.

1918.—Total casualties and property loss during World War. See *WORLD WAR*: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: b, 3, and 4.

1918.—Shipping.—Results of World War. See *COMMERCE*: Commercial age: 1914-1921.

1918.—Represented at Inter-allied Labor Conference. See *LABOR PARTIES*: 1868-1919.

1918.—Represented at London and Paris scientific conferences. See *INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH*.

1919.—At the Peace Conference.—Problem of reparations.—“Belgium had suffered more than four years of German occupation, including the systematic spoliation of her farms, her factories,

and her railroads, and the deliberate attempt to divide her people into two separate Walloon and Flemish states; she had barely escaped permanent incorporation with Germany. Yet all this time she had fought as best she could beside the Allies; she had made heavy sacrifices; she had stood for international right. Belgium expected much from the peace, and Belgium was in large measure disappointed. Belgium was disappointed on the economic side, for she was flooded with depreciated German currency which the Allies did not take over, and her hopes for full priority on the account of restoration and reparation were not entirely fulfilled. Indeed, it soon became apparent that the general bill for reparation would far exceed the ability of Germany to pay, and that there were not resources enough in all Germany to meet that restoration of invaded territory upon which President Wilson had declared 'the whole world was agreed.' Belgium had suffered less than France by the destruction of war itself, for her territory, save in the case of the Meuse fortresses and the battle zone in Flanders, had not been fought over; but the German occupation which she had borne in equal measure was relatively far more serious, for it affected the whole country and not merely a part, and it produced stagnation of industry and cessation of commerce on a scale that destroyed enterprise and left idleness as well as poverty in its stead. . . . Finally, Belgium was dissatisfied with her whole position at the Conference. During the war she had acted as one of the Allies and had her representation in the Allied councils. At Paris she was only a small power, limited to three delegates—at first even to two—and excluded from the guiding and deciding group of the Five Great Powers. Even the decisions which directly concerned her were taken by the Council of Ten or the Council of Four. She was outside, while Italy and Japan were inside. Individually her delegates sat on important committees, but there were times when Belgium must have felt far removed from the central tasks of the Conference, in the outer limbo occupied by Liberia, Panama, and Siam. A Belgian told the story of an officer who had lost both legs. 'You will always be a hero,' said a consoling friend. 'No,' replied the officer, 'I shall be a hero for a year and a cripple for the rest of my life.' Belgium felt that the days of her position as a hero were over. . . . The simplest solution of the problem of the Scheldt, would be the elimination of Holland from its southern shore, which she has held for more than three hundred years. This land, called Maritime or Zealand Flanders (Flandre zélandaise, Ryksvlaanderen), has an area of 275 square miles and a population of 78,677, chiefly Catholic. Its economic relations are mainly with Belgium, but it has manifested no desire to change its political affiliations, and has recently been assiduously cultivated by Holland. A less drastic measure would be the admission of Belgium to co-sovereignty on the lower Scheldt, leaving Holland in the possession of its banks. Still another possibility would be the complete internationalization of the river, under the League of Nations. These solutions, especially the first two, have been energetically opposed in Holland as infringements on her sovereignty. The question of her boundaries was not, she declared, a matter for the Peace Conference. . . . If the territorial status of Belgium has not been essentially bettered by the war, her economic status is certainly worse. No share in a problematic indemnity will compensate her for her direct losses, not to speak of her other expenses—the stripping of her resources, the enforced

idleness of her factories, the disappearance of her foreign markets and her transit trade. Dependent in an extraordinary degree on the outside world, Belgium was cut off from it for nearly five years, and it is a question how fully she can recover her previous position. A hero in 1914, is Belgium to remain a cripple for the future? The German is gone, but he left ruin and disillusion behind him. Small wonder that many a Belgian asks whether it was all worth while, as he contrasts his lean and hungry country with the prosperity of neutral Holland. Small wonder that the neutral world, as it looks to the future, is encouraged to imitate the Holland that stood pat, the Luxemburg that succumbed, rather than the Belgium that resisted. The neutral is more prosperous than the ally."—C. H. Haskins and R. H. Lord, *Some problems of the Peace Conference*, pp. 48-50; 65-66; 69-70.—"Before touching upon the formation of the permanent reparations commission and upon its workings I must mention the priority of \$500,000,000 that was arranged for Belgium. A priority, without specifying the amount of it, had, in effect, been pledged to Belgium long before the end of the war, but nobody seemed to be very keen to establish the priority. Colonel E. M. House, however, late in February suggested a plan to Mr. Balfour of the British delegation and M. Klotz of the French delegation, granting Belgium a priority of \$500,000,000 on the German reparation, this sum being sufficient to set Belgium well on her way to recovery. There was, however, great delay in getting final assent to this priority. Mr. Norman Davis, the able and leading United States Treasury representative, and all the American delegation worked hard to bring it about and to push the plan on every occasion, but it still hung fire. The Belgian delegation, finally becoming alarmed, insisted on formally taking up the question with the Council of Four. The Belgian delegation under the leadership of Mr. Hymans, Minister of foreign affairs, made two chief demands: one for priority and one for reimbursement for what the war had cost her. To this latter item there was vigorous objection on the ground that it was inadmissible to provide for Belgium's 'costs of war' and not for those of England, France, Italy and the other Allies. As a compromise to meet the situation a formula was finally proposed in a phrase to the effect that Germany was to be obligated especially to 'reimburse Belgium from the Allies as a necessary consequence of the violation of the treaty of 1839.' Inasmuch as all such sums borrowed by Belgium were used for the prosecution of the war, this phrase was simply a euphemism for granting Belgium the war costs that she demanded. But it was finally agreed to on all hands and the crisis was averted. It should be noted that from the beginning the American delegation had claimed for Belgium full reimbursement of war costs on the ground that irrespective of the armistice agreement, Germany had made herself liable for these through having violated the neutrality of Belgium. Germany in fact herself repeatedly recognized her obligation to indemnify Belgium completely."—E. M. House and C. Seymour, *What really happened at Paris*, pp. 270-281.—See also PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work.

1919.—Claims in Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1919-1921.

1919.—Electoral reform bill.—On April 11, the Belgium Chamber of Deputies unanimously adopted the Electoral Reform bill, preventing a ministerial crisis.—See also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Belgium: 1830-1921.

1919 (June 28).—Treaty of Versailles.—Abrogation of imposed neutrality.—In Article 31, Part III of this historic document the special neutralized status of Belgium is abrogated and Germany “undertakes immediately to recognize and to observe whatever conventions may be entered into by the principal allied and associated powers, or by any of them in concert with the Governments of Belgium and of the Netherlands, to replace the . . . treaties of 1839.” Article 32 extends the full sovereignty of Belgium over the whole of the contested territory of Moresnet (Moresnet Neutre), which “Germany recognizes.” In Article 33 Germany “renounces in favor of Belgium all rights and title over the territory of Prussian Moresnet,” and in Article 34 Germany is called upon to renounce “in favor of Belgium all rights and title over . . . the whole of the Kreise [districts] of Eupen and of Malmédy.” (See *VERSAILLES, TREATY OF*: Part III; Section I.) Article 38 stipulates that “The German Government will likewise restore to the Belgian Government the articles and documents of every kind carried off during the war by the German authorities from the Belgian public administrations, in particular from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs at Brussels.” Furthermore, according to the terms laid down by special provisions, Germany was charged to hand over to the University of Louvain: manuscripts, incunabula, printed books, maps, and objects of collection corresponding to those destroyed in the Library of Louvain; also to restore to Belgium certain Flemish art treasures from the Berlin Museum and the Pinakothek in Munich. Belgium also received a mandate for about 20,000 square miles of territory in the extreme northwest of former German East Africa, adjoining the Belgian Congo. Belgium was disappointed at not acquiring Luxembourg, however, and at failing to secure at the expense of Holland the province of Limburg and the south bank of the Scheldt. For full details of reparations to be exacted from Germany for damage wrought in Belgium, see *PARIS, CONFERENCE OF*: Outline of work; *VERSAILLES, TREATY OF*: Conditions of peace; Part II; *SPA, CONFERENCE OF*: and below: 1920 (June-July).

1919.—Reconstruction.—Considering the population of the country, Belgium's casualty losses are proportionately larger than those of any other of the Allies. Out of a mobilization of 267,000, the total war casualties amounted to 90,000 men, including 20,000 dead, 10,000 prisoners or missing and 60,000 wounded. In addition 30,000 Belgians (civilians) lost their lives during the German occupation. The loss of life for this small nation is indeed a terrific blow, the influence of which will probably never be eradicated, and the whole country stands to suffer many years before the devastated country will assume its former peaceful life. Agricultural pursuits, reconstruction in general, physical reconstruction of the long suffering people will take many years to reach normality again. Almost all Belgium is a mass of irreparable ruins; fine buildings, historic structures, museums, universities and cathedrals have been razed to the ground; towns have been destroyed completely; the country has been devastated from end to end. But despite the tremendous discouragement facing the thrifty Belgians, reports showed (December, 1920) that the reconstruction of Belgium is well on its way. The workmen have set themselves to their trades with no languid attitude of awaiting the favorable moment to strike. Railroads are being rebuilt throughout the country; factories constructed on the devastated sites of former ones; mills are being built up to begin once more the

manufacturing of steel. Immediately following the signing of the armistice (November 11, 1918), a law was passed forbidding alcoholic beverages. With the passing of the law the making of whisky, gin and other alcoholic liquors ceased almost immediately. The same careful scrutiny is not being carried out by the Federal agents in regard to those who sell liquors, as a result of which the larger restaurants, hotels and places of amusements are selling alcoholic drinks freely. “The Belgians to-day have the air of men who have emerged from a period of bitter repression. They speak as though they were newly endowed with the power of speech, freely and joyfully. So long has silence been imposed upon them, so long has the telling of what they felt and thought been forbidden on pain of death, that they are eager to impart the truth to the first-comer. It has been their fate to live and act a lie for four years. . . . When in 1914, they made the supreme choice of war, they knew something of the misery and suffering which war would bring in its train. They might have chosen the easier way of acquiescence with the bully's will. They preferred to accept the burden and the glory of defiance. Their sufferings, then, being of their own seeking, have set upon their country's brow the crown of martyrdom. And if the wearing of the crown lightened through four weary years the weight of the cross, the relief is still far greater than it would have been even if Belgium had not played an heroic part. . . . It is Louvain which leaves upon the mind the deepest impression of German ferocity. For the wanton destruction of this peaceful city there was no military excuse. . . . Ypres and its desolation cannot be set down in words. It is destruction made manifest. The few gaunt ruins that remain of the famous Cloth Hall, once the pride and glory of the country, are the measure by which you may count the cost which Ypres is asked to pay for an imperishable name. You have no standards by which you may measure the punishment inflicted upon the town and upon the country about it. Of the few shreds and patches that are left of it, none has any resemblance to life. Everything is distorted, out of shape, out of colour, out of resemblance. The roads which lead to Ypres are not like roads. They are patched with sleepers, and the holes, which break them in pieces, are hastily filled. The vegetation is not like vegetation. No blade of grass is visible. There are no crops; there are no trees that are not broken, armless, twisted out of the shapes which once were theirs. . . . Belgium, then, has suffered grievously from the war. She meets her sufferings with a quiet resolution. If her factories are still perforce idle, she is already repairing her railways and rebuilding her bridges. On the road between Ostend and Brussels there are many signs of devastation, and as many of a stout determination that men and women shall be hindered as little as possible in coming and going between the two towns. As you travel by train, you hear always the sound of the hammer, you see the busy workmen at their toil. New lines are being laid, rivers are being spanned afresh, and on all hands the hopefulness and industry of the people are evident. Nor are the Belgians content with the work of reparation. Always skilful husbandmen, they are bringing back into their intensive cultivation every inch of the soil that is possible. The country about Ypres and Dixmude, and all that area that is rightly called ‘devastated,’ will defy all the efforts of agriculture for many a year to come. But elsewhere scarce a patch of ground is left uncultivated, and everywhere you may see signs of

the neatness and intensity characteristic of the Belgians. They are a busy folk, and they have made up their minds that the results of the war shall not hamper them for long."—C. Whibley, *Belgium in 1919* (*Blackwood's Magazine*, Oct.-Dec., 1919, pp. 528-529, 533-535).—"To accelerate restoration the government on August 8 (1919) decided to take over all farms in the devastated regions and work them according to the most approved scientific methods; the owners are to be paid five per cent. interest on a pre-war valuation until such time as the properties are returned to them. On August 13 the Labor Party opened an educational campaign in an effort to reduce the cost of living; their proposal included government requisition of wheat, sugar, milk and butter, and government regulation of the prices of coal, shoes, and clothing."—*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920.—On September 9, 1919, Cardinal Mercier, primate of Belgium, arrived in New York, primarily, the aged prelate said, to express the gratefulness of his nation to those who contributed so much to save it during the country's darkest hours. While in New York Cardinal Mercier made a strong appeal to the Americans that they might continue in their position as benefactors by sending raw material and machinery to the slowly recuperating Belgians. One of the encouraging results of the Cardinal's visit was the pledging by Americans to raise a fund of \$500,000 to help restore the University of Louvain. One of the chief causes for whatever bitterness still exists in Belgium is the Flemish movement, now practically dead. The late German governor Von Bissing attempted to make use of this movement to divide Belgium into two parts. Those who actively supported the Germans in their scheme to drive a wedge between the Flemings and the Walloons are now completely ostracized. Many arrests have been made in Bruges, Brussels and Ghent. M. Cooremans, who during the period of German occupation accepted from Berlin the part of chief secretary to the separatist Flemish ministry was condemned by a court martial to fifteen years' hard labor. Reconstruction in Belgium was actually begun during this period with the acceptance of \$22,000,000 credit from the United States, which was to provide food and clothing for the more than 2,000,000 still destitute. Experts on reconstruction estimate that the reconstruction work in Belgium will take at least five years. Belgium's greatest need is of raw materials, such as leather, rubber, wool, cotton and steel. The factories are still handicapped tremendously by the Germans' removal and destruction of machinery. Another factor which is beginning to deter Belgium from getting back to normal conditions is the exodus of workmen to France, where much higher wages are offered. In France a Belgian workman can earn 11,000 francs a year, while at home he can earn but a third of that. Brussels and Antwerp are steadily recuperating. Antwerp, especially, is exporting considerable quantities of coal to France.—See also *WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XII. Reconstruction: b.*

1919 (September 10).—Treaty of St. Germain ending war with Austria. See *ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF*.

1919.—Visit of royal family to United States.—King Albert, Queen Elizabeth and Crown Prince Leopold (Duke of Brabant) of Belgium arrived in Washington (D. C.) on October 28, 1919. The royal guests were given a hearty welcome by the Senate and the House. King Albert, in a short address before the members of both Houses of Con-

gress, paid a tribute to the American army for its deciding weight in the World War and thanked Brand Whitlock, American ambassador to Belgium, and Herbert C. Hoover, the American food administrator for devastated Belgium, for their sacrifices to the cause of the Belgians during the war.

1919 (November 27).—Treaty of Neuilly with Bulgaria. See *NEUILLY, TREATY OF (1919)*.

1919.—Statistics of trade unions. See *LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919*.

1919.—Represented at Conference for International Union of Academies. See *INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French Academy*.

1919-1920.—Internal politics.—"In preparation for general elections an interesting campaign was waged. The program of the Catholic party included maintenance of the *status quo* in questions of church and state, cessation of party politics, solution of the Flemish question and female suffrage in communal elections. The Liberals asked for disestablishment of the church, undenominational education and a referendum with regard to woman suffrage for parliamentary elections. The third main party, the Socialists, stood for universal male suffrage at twenty-one years after six months' residence, the enactment of an 8-hour working day, increased old-age pensions, pay in case of sickness or disablement and reduction of the high cost of living. As a result of the elections held on November 16 the Catholics polled 649,420 votes (73 seats); Socialists, 640,320 (70 seats); Liberals, 310,570 (34 seats); Christian Democrats, 44,386 (4 seats); Front party, 44,426 (3 seats); Renaissance Nationale, 29,028 (1 seat); Middle Class party, 18,516 (1 seat); various other parties, 59,937 (2 seats). The Catholics lost 24 seats, the Socialists gained 30 and the Liberals lost 11. In the Senate the Catholics elected 50 members, the Liberals 36, and the Socialists 25. The new coalition cabinet, again headed by M. Delacroix (Catholic) as Prime Minister and Minister of Finance, was composed as follows: Foreign Affairs, M. Hymans (Liberal); Interior, M. Renkin (Catholic); Colonies, M. Franck (Liberal); Economic Affairs, M. Jaspars (Catholic); Public Works, M. Ansele (Socialist); Agriculture, Baron Ruzette (Catholic); Education, M. Destree (Socialist); Railways, Marine, Post and Telegraph, M. Pouillet (Catholic); Justice, M. Vandervelde (Socialist); War, M. Masson (Liberal). On February 6, 1920, the seats of eight Socialist senators were declared vacant by reason of the failure of the incumbents to meet the income-tax requirement prior to election. As a result of by-elections held to fill these elections, the Socialists lost eight seats. . . . A bill giving women the right to vote in municipal elections on an equality with men passed the Chamber of Deputies on March 10 by a vote of 115 to 22, and the Senate on April 14 by a vote of 60 to 33. A parliamentary committee is at present (July 1) working on a revision of the constitution. The budget for 1920 shows an expenditure of 8,566,410,730 francs, while the revenue totals only 3,331,561,559 francs."—*Political Science Quarterly*, Sept., 1920, pp. 109-110.

1920.—Housing problem. See *HOUSING: Belgium*.

1920 (January).—Boundary agreement with the Dutch.—Annexation of ceded German territory.—Following the speech of Mr. Hymans (Dec. 23) the Belgian foreign minister, in which he explained to Parliament that the negotiations with the Hague in regard to the control of the Scheldt would leave Belgium in a better position but that

the country would be imperiled in a military way, an agreement was finally reached (Jan. 13, 1920) between the Belgian and Dutch governments. Two committees were to be formed. One committee, dealing only with the question of the Scheldt was to sit at Brussels; the other, dealing with the Ghent-Terneuzen canal to sit at Ghent. On January 10 the proclamation was issued stating that the former Prussian regions of Eupen and Malmédy were taken under the sovereignty of Belgium in accordance with the Peace Treaty. The Belgian high commissioner, General Baltia, entered Malmédy on the 22d and read the official proclamation to the populace in German and French, promising the people on behalf of the Belgian government, religious freedom, standardization of labor and educational advantages enjoyed by the rest of Belgium.—See also VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part II; Part III, Section I.

1920 (June 4).—Treaty of Trianon with Hungary. See TRIANON, TREATY OF (1920).

1920 (June-July).—Alliance with France.—Bonus for ex-service men.—In July, Belgium, taking advantage of her newly-acquired status, concluded a defensive alliance with France. The terms had been practically agreed upon in a conference in June between Marshal Foch and General Waglinse. According to the terms of this treaty Belgium reserves the right to maintain neutrality in all disputes between France and other nations concerning French colonial possessions. Notwithstanding the conditions laid down in Article XVIII of the Covenant of the League of Nations, that every treaty or international agreement entered into by any member of the League shall be registered and published, the French and Belgian governments indicated that the alliance was of a purely defensive character and that it would destroy the purpose of the alliance if the military terms were made public. Hence the technical details of the agreement were not disclosed. The treaty will be arranged to hold for from five to fifteen years. Among other defensive measures Belgium agrees to maintain a larger army than was maintained before the war and also to restore the fortifications around Antwerp. Belgium promises France full military support in future armed conflicts under the condition that France is not the aggressor. On July 29 the Chamber of Deputies in Brussels was invaded by a mob of soldiers who, in protest at the government's neglect of the men who served in the war, demanding that a cash bonus be paid them, broke doors and windows in an unimpeded march through the Chamber. The demonstrations were finally quelled following the arrest of 150 of their number and the promise that their claims would be considered by the Chamber. Before the adjournment of the Belgian Chambers, a law was unanimously passed providing for a bonus for all Belgian soldiers. The law stipulated that each soldier receive seventy-five francs for every month of service at the front between August 1, 1914, and November 11, 1918, and fifty francs for every month of service at the rear or while interned as a prisoner of war.

1920 (September).—Railway workers' strike.—Early in September Belgium's railway workers, acting similarly with the workers of the other countries throughout the world, refused to transport through Belgium troops or munitions intended for Poland, which was at that time still warring with soviet Russia. As a result of this stand, General Janson, minister of war, and Paul Hymans, the foreign minister, resigned from the cabinet, because, they declared, they differed on this point from their Socialist colleagues. General Jan-

son, however, withdrew his resignation the following day to avert a serious situation during the adjournment of both Chambers.

1920.—Control with Great Britain of German East Africa. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1920.

1920.—Summary of relief work. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief: a.

1920.—Olympic games.—The American athletes, who took part in the Olympic games at Antwerp captured first place, scoring 212 points to Finland's 105, the nearest competitor. Sweden scored ninety-five points, England eighty-five, France thirty-four, Italy twenty-eight, South Africa twenty-four, Canada ten, Norway ten, Denmark nine, Esthonia eight, New Zealand five, Belgium five, Australia five, Czecho-Slovakia three, Holland two, and Luxemburg one.

1920-1921.—Woman suffrage defeated.—Proposed amendment of Belgian constitution.—Constitution under revision.—On July 1, 1920, a bill granting unrestricted suffrage to women was defeated in the Chamber of Deputies by a vote of 80 to 74. Later in the same month the Chamber voted 146 to 4 to amend the constitution so that any future parliament by a two-thirds majority may extend the suffrage without constitutional revision. During May, 1921, the question of revision was again under consideration by Parliament. See BELGIUM, CONSTITUTION OF.

1921.—Economic control in Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1919-1921.

1921 (March).—Occupation of Düsseldorf, Duisberg, Ruhrort, by France, England and Belgium. See FRANCE: 1921 (March 8).

Agricultural education. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Belgium.

Art education. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: Belgium.

Charities. See above 1830-1832, also CHARITIES: Belgium.

Historiography (19th century). See HISTORY: 24.

Military organization.—National defense problems. See MILITARY ORGANIZATIONS: 24.

National Library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Belgium.

National music. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: The Netherlands: Belgium.

Prison reform. See PRISON REFORM: Belgium. BIBLIOGRAPHY: *History and description*.—R. C. Ensor, *Belgium (Home University Library, 1915)*. Concise survey of recent history and conditions before the war.—J. de C. MacDonnell, *Belgium, her kings, kingdom, and people (1914)*. Good historical survey since establishment of independence in 1830, with account of conditions under King Albert.—H. Pierenne, *Belgian democracy, its early history*, tr. by J. V. Saunders. Mainly account of medieval city republics of the Low Countries, by leading Belgian historian.—L. Van der Essen, *Short history of Belgium (1916)*. Good outline account by professor of history at Louvain.

German invasion and rule.—Belgium and Germany, texts and documents, preceded by a foreword by Henri Davignon. Preface by Belgian foreign minister, Viscount Bryce, and others.—*Report of the committee on alleged German outrages*, p. 61. Evidence and documents laid before the committee on alleged German outrages.—Mrs. C. Kellogg, *Women of Belgium*; by only woman member of Hoover commission. Describes relief work and what Belgian women have done for themselves.—G. de Libert de Flemalle, *Fighting with King Albert*, by captain in Belgian army. Important for Belgian army before the war and

question of its preparedness, with narrative on resistance to invasion.—J. Massart, *Belgians under the German eagle*, tr. by B. Miall. Written from observations during first year of the war, with full documentation from German sources.—Cardinal Mercier, *Pastorals, letters, allocutions, 1914-1917*, with a biographical sketch by Rev. Joseph F. Stillmans.—L. Mokveld, *German fury in Belgium*, tr. by C. Thieme, Dutch correspondent with German army from Liège to the Yser.—J. H. Morgan, *German atrocities, an official investigation*. Professor Morgan was member of Bryce commission, and this volume supplements the Report with additional material and comments.—P. Nothomb, *Barbarians in Belgium*, tr. by J. E. H. Findlay. Account by Belgian, endorsed by preface by Belgian minister of justice.—K. Nyrop, *Imprisonment of the Ghent professors; a question of might and right, my reply to the German legation in Stockholm*.—Emile Cammaerts, *Through the iron bars, two years of German occupation in Belgium*.—*Case of Belgium in the present war, an account of the violation of the neutrality of Belgium and of the laws of war on Belgian territory*. Officially prepared by the Belgian delegates in the United States, with official documents and affidavits.—R. Chambry, *Truth about Louvain*, by a resident of Louvain.—Commandant de Gerlache, de Gomery, *Belgium in war time*, tr. from the French by B. Miall.—H. S. Gibson, *Journal from our legation in Belgium*. Interesting selection from daily notes of first secretary of American legation from July 4 to December 31, 1914.—L. H. Grondys, *Germans in Belgium, experiences of a neutral*. Journal account of Dutch professor who was in Louvain during the destruction.—O. Halasi, *Belgium under the German heel*. Description of conditions observed by an Hungarian author during a visit in 1916.—C. Huberich and A. N. Speyer, eds., *German legislation for the occupied territories of Belgium; Official texts, official commission of the Belgian government*. Reports on the violations of the rights of nations and of the laws and customs of war in Belgium, with extracts from the pastoral letter of Cardinal Mercier, and preface by J. Van de Heuvel, minister of state.—C. Sarolea, *How Belgium saved Europe*, with a preface by Count Goblet d'Alviella. Patriotic appreciation of Belgium's part in first weeks of the war.—L. Van der Essen, *Invasion and the war in Belgium*, with a sketch of the diplomatic negotiations preceding the conflict. By a professor of history at Louvain.—G. Verdavaine, *Pictures of ruined Belgium*, with seventy-two pen and ink sketches drawn on the spot by L. Berden. Chief value in pictures.—E. Verhaeren, *Belgium's agony*, tr. and introduced by M. T. H. Sadler. Splendid literary exposition of Belgium's sufferings.

BELGIUM, Constitution of.—Under BELGIUM: 1802-1919, there is given some account of the revision of the constitution of the kingdom in 1893, and the peculiar new features introduced in its provisions, relative to the elective franchise. See also, *Ibid.*, 1830-1832; 1894-1895; 1899-1900; and 1920-1921. The following is a translation of the text of the revised constitution, with a summary of its divisions:

The Territory and Its Divisions (Arts. 1-3)

Belgian Citizens and Their Rights (Arts. 4-24)

Concerning Powers (Arts. 25-31)

The Houses (Arts. 32-46)

The House of Representatives (Arts. 47-52)

The Senate (Arts. 53-59)

The King and the Ministers

The King (Arts. 60-85)

The Ministers (Arts. 86-91)

The Judicial Power (Arts. 92-107)

Provincial and Communal Institutions (Arts. 108, 109)

Finances (Arts. 110-17)

The Army (Arts. 118-24)

General Provisions (Arts. 125-30)

The Revision of the Constitution (Art. 131)

Temporary Provisions (Arts. 132-38)

Supplementary Provision (Art. 139)

Title I

Of the Territory and of its Divisions

ARTICLE 1. Belgium is divided into provinces, these provinces are: Antwerp, Brabant, Western Flanders, Eastern Flanders, Hainaut, Liège, Limburg, Luxemburg, Namur. It is the prerogative of law, if there is any reason, to divide the territory into a larger number of provinces. Colonies, possessions beyond the seas or protectorates which Belgium may acquire, are governed by particular laws. The Belgian forces appointed for their defense can only be recruited by voluntary enlistment.

ARTICLE 2. The subdivisions of the provinces can be established only by law.

ARTICLE 3. The boundaries of the State, of the provinces and of the communes can be changed or rectified only by a law.

Title II

Of the Belgians and their Rights

ARTICLE 4. The title Belgian is acquired, preserved and lost according to the regulations determined by civil law. The present Constitution, and other laws relating to political rights, determine what are, in addition to such title, the conditions necessary for the exercise of these rights.

ARTICLE 5. Naturalization is granted by the legislative power. The great naturalization, alone, assimilates the foreigner to the Belgian for the exercise of political rights.

ARTICLE 6. There is no distinction of orders in the State. Belgians are equal before the law; they alone are admissible to civil and military offices, with such exceptions as may be established by law in particular cases.

ARTICLE 7. Individual liberty is guaranteed. No person can be prosecuted except in the cases provided for by law and in the form which the law prescribes. Except in the case of flagrant misdemeanor, no person can be arrested without the order of a judge, which must be served at the time of the arrest, or, at the latest, within twenty-four hours.

ARTICLE 8. No person can be deprived, against his will, of the judge assigned to him by law.

ARTICLE 9. No punishment can be established or applied except by provision of law.

ARTICLE 10. The domicile is inviolable; no domiciliary visit can be made otherwise than in the cases provided for by law and in the form which it prescribes.

ARTICLE 11. No person can be deprived of his property except for public use, in the cases and in the manner established by law, and with prior indemnity.

ARTICLE 12. The penalty of confiscation of goods cannot be imposed.

ARTICLE 13. Civil death is abolished; it cannot be revived.

ARTICLE 14. Religious liberty, public worship, and freedom of expressed opinion in all matters are guaranteed, with a reserve for the repression of offenses committed in the exercise of these liberties.

ARTICLE 15. No person can be compelled to join, in any manner whatsoever, in the acts and ceremonies of any worship, nor to observe its days of rest.

ARTICLE 16. The State has no right to interfere in the appointment nor in the installation of the ministers of any religion, nor to forbid them to correspond with their superiors and to publish their acts under the ordinary responsibility of publication. Civil marriage shall always precede the nuptial benediction, with the exceptions to be prescribed by law in case of need.

ARTICLE 17. Teaching is free; all preventive measures are forbidden; the repression of offenses is regulated only by law. Public instruction given at the expense of the State is also regulated by law.

ARTICLE 18. The press is free; censorship can never be re-established; caution-money from writers, editors or printers cannot be required. When the author is known and is a resident of Belgium, the editor, the printer or the distributor cannot be prosecuted.

ARTICLE 19. Belgians have the right to meet peaceably and without arms, in conformity with such laws as may regulate the use of their right but without the requirement of a previous authorization. This stipulation does not apply to open air meetings, which remain entirely subject to police regulations.

ARTICLE 20. Belgians have the right of association; this right cannot be subject to any preventive measure.

ARTICLE 21. It is the right of every person to address to the public authorities petitions signed by one or several. The constituted authorities alone have the right to address petitions in a collective name.

ARTICLE 22. The secrecy of correspondence is inviolable. The law determines who are the agents responsible for violation of the secrecy of letters confided to the post.

ARTICLE 23. The use of the languages spoken in Belgium is optional; it can be prescribed only by law, and only for acts of public authority and for judicial transactions.

ARTICLE 24. No previous authorization is necessary for the undertaking of proceedings against public officials, on account of acts in their administration, except that which is enacted concerning ministers.

Title III

Of Powers

ARTICLE 25. All powers are derived from the nation. They are exercised in the manner prescribed by the Constitution.

ARTICLE 26. Legislative power is exercised collectively by the King, the Chamber of Representatives and the Senate.

ARTICLE 27. The initiative belongs to each one of the three branches of the legislative power. Nevertheless, all laws relating to the revenue or to the expenditures of the State, or to the contingent of the army must be voted first by the Chamber of Representatives.

ARTICLE 28. The interpretation of laws by authority belongs only to the legislative power.

ARTICLE 29. The executive power, as regulated by the Constitution, belongs to the King.

ARTICLE 30. The judicial power is exercised by the courts and tribunals. Decrees and judgments are executed in the name of the King.

ARTICLE 31. Interests exclusively communal or

provincial, are regulated by the communal or provincial councils, according to the principles established by the Constitution.

Chapter First.—Of The Chambers

ARTICLE 32. Members of both Chambers represent the nation, and not merely the province or the subdivision of province which has elected them.

ARTICLE 33. The sittings of the Chambers are public. Nevertheless, each Chamber forms itself into a secret committee on the demand of its president or of ten members. It then decides by absolute majority whether the sitting on the same subject shall be resumed publicly.

ARTICLE 34. Each Chamber verifies the powers of its members and decides all contests on the subject that may arise.

ARTICLE 35. No person can be at the same time a member of both Chambers.

ARTICLE 36. A member of one of the two Chambers who is appointed by the government to any salaried office, except that of minister, and who accepts the same, ceases immediately to sit, and resumes his functions only by virtue of a new election.

ARTICLE 37. At every session, each Chamber elects its president and its vice-presidents and forms its bureau.

ARTICLE 38. Every resolution is adopted by the absolute majority of the votes, excepting as may be directed by the rules of the Chambers in regard to elections and presentations. In case of an equal division of votes, the proposition brought under deliberation is rejected. Neither of the two Chambers can adopt a resolution unless the majority of its members is present.

ARTICLE 39. Votes are given by the voice or by sitting and rising; on "l'ensemble des lois" the vote is always taken by the call of the roll of names. Elections and presentations of candidates are made by ballot.

ARTICLE 40. Each Chamber has the right of inquiry [or investigation].

ARTICLE 41. A bill can be passed by one of the Chambers only after having been voted article by article.

ARTICLE 42. The Chambers have the right to amend and to divide the articles and the amendments proposed.

ARTICLE 43. The presenting of petitions in person to the Chambers is forbidden. Each Chamber has the right to refer to ministers the petitions that are addressed to it. Ministers are required to give explanations whenever the Chamber requires them.

ARTICLE 44. No member of either Chamber can be prosecuted or called to account for opinions expressed or votes given by him in the performance of his duties.

ARTICLE 45. No member of either Chamber can be prosecuted or arrested in affairs of repression, during the session, without the authorization of the Chamber of which he is a member, except the case be "de flagrant delit." No bodily constraint can be exercised against a member of either Chamber during the session, except with the same authorization. The detention or the prosecution of a member of either Chamber is suspended during the whole session if the Chamber so requires.

ARTICLE 46. Each Chamber determines by its rules the mode in which it will exercise its powers.

Section I.—Of the Chamber of Representatives

ARTICLE 47. Deputies to the Chamber of Representatives are elected directly under the following conditions. [Until the electoral changes of 1919 this clause ran]: A vote is conferred on citizens who have completed their 25th year [reduced to 21st year, April, 1919], who have resided for at least one year in the same commune, and who are not within one of the cases of exclusion provided for by law. A supplementary vote is conferred on each citizen who fulfills one of the following conditions: 1. To have completed 35 years of age, to be married, or to be a widower having legitimate offspring, and to pay to the State a tax of not less than 5 francs on account of dwelling-houses or buildings occupied, unless exempted by reason of his profession. 2. To have completed the age of 25 years and to be owner: Either of real property, valued at not less than 2,000 francs to be rated on the basis of the "revenu cadastral," or of a "revenu cadastral" proportioned to that value; Or of an inscription in the great book of the public debt, or of a "carnet de rente Belge" at the savings bank of at least 100 francs of "rente." The inscriptions and bank books must have belonged to the incumbent for at least two years and a half. The property of the wife is assigned to the husband; that of children under age, to the father. Two supplementary votes are assigned to citizens fully 25 years of age who are included in one of the following cases: A. To be the holder of a diploma of higher instruction or of a similar certificate of attendance on a complete course of medium instruction of the higher degree, without distinction between public and private establishments. B. To fill or to have filled a public office, to occupy or to have occupied a position, to practise or to have practised a private profession, which implies the supposition that the titulary has at least an average education of the higher degree. The law determines these functions, positions and professions, as well as, in given cases, the time during which they shall have been occupied or practised. No person can accumulate more than three votes [reduced to one vote only for each man over twenty-one, and given also to specified classes of women, April, 1919].

ARTICLE 48. The constitution of the electoral colleges is regulated by law for each province. The vote is obligatory and takes place in the commune with exceptions to be determined by law.

ARTICLE 49. The electoral law fixes the number of deputies according to the population; this number cannot exceed the proportion of a deputy for 40,000 inhabitants. It determines also the qualifications of an elector and the mode of the electoral operations.

ARTICLE 50. To be eligible, it is necessary: 1. To be a Belgian by birth or to have received the "grand naturalization"; 2. To enjoy civil and political rights; 3. To have completed 25 years of age; 4. To reside in Belgium. No other condition of eligibility can be required.

ARTICLE 51. The members of the Chamber of Representatives are elected for four years. Half of them are changed every two years, according to the order of the series determined by the electoral law. In case of dissolution, the Chamber is entirely renewed.

ARTICLE 52. Each member of the Chamber of Representatives receives a yearly indemnity of 4,000 francs. [This has been considerably increased since the close of the World War.] He is, besides, entitled to free travel on the State railways and

on the "conceded" railways, from his residence to the city where the session is held.

Section II.—Of the Senate

ARTICLE 53. The Senate is composed: 1. Of members elected in proportion to the population of each province, conformably to Art. 47; though the law may require that the electors shall be 30 years of age, the provisions of Art. 48 are applicable to the election of these senators. 2. Of members elected by the provincial councils, to the number of two from each province having less than 500,000 inhabitants, of three from each province having from 500,000 to 1,000,000 of inhabitants, and of four from each province having more than one million of inhabitants.

ARTICLE 54. The number of senators elected directly by the electoral body is equal to half the number of the members of the Chamber of Representatives.

ARTICLE 55. Senators are elected for eight years; half of them are changed every four years, according to the order of the series determined by the electoral law. In case of dissolution, the Senate is entirely renewed.

ARTICLE 56. To be eligible for election and to remain a senator, it is necessary: 1. To be a Belgian by birth or to have received the "grande naturalization"; 2. To enjoy civil and political rights; 3. To reside in Belgium; 4. To be at least 40 years of age; 5. To pay into the treasury of the State at least 1,200 francs of direct taxes, patents included; Or to be either proprietor or usufructuary of real property situated in Belgium, the cadastral revenue from which is at least 12,000 francs. In the provinces where the number of those eligible does not attain the proportion of one in 5,000 inhabitants, the list is completed by adding the heaviest tax-payers of the province to the extent of that proportion. Citizens whose names are inscribed on the complementary list are eligible only in the province where they reside.

ARTICLE 56 BIS. Senators elected by the provincial councils are exempted from all conditions of census; they cannot belong to the assembly which elects them, nor can they have been a member of it during the year of the election, nor during the two previous years.

ARTICLE 57. Senators receive neither salary nor indemnity.

ARTICLE 58. The King's sons, or in their absence the Belgian Princes of the branch of the Royal family called to reign, are by right senators at 18 years of age. They have a deliberative voice only at 25 years of age.

ARTICLE 59. Any assembly of the Senate which may be held outside the time of the session of the Chamber of Representatives is null and void.

Chapter II.—Of the King and his Ministers

Section I.—Of the King

ARTICLE 60. The constitutional powers of the King are hereditary in the direct, natural and legitimate descent from His Majesty Leopold-George-Christian-Frederick of Saxe-Coburg, from male to male, by order of primogeniture, and to the perpetual exclusion of the females of their line. The prince who marries without the consent of the King or of those who, in his absence, exercise his powers, in the cases provided for by the Constitution, shall forfeit his rights. Nevertheless he can be restored to his rights by the King or by those who, in his absence, exercise his authority in the cases provided for by the Constitution, with the consent of both Chambers.

ARTICLE 61. In default of male descendants of his Majesty Leopold-George-Christian-Frederick of Saxe-Coburg, the King can name his successor, with the assent of the Chambers, expressed in the manner prescribed by the following article. If no nomination has been made according to the proceeding here stated, the throne will be vacant.

ARTICLE 62. The King cannot be, at the same time, the chief of another State, without the consent of both Chambers. Neither of the two Chambers can deliberate on this subject if two-thirds at least of the members who compose it are not present, and the resolution is adopted only if it receives two-thirds at least of the votes cast.

ARTICLE 63. The person of the King is inviolable; his ministers are responsible.

ARTICLE 64. No act of the King can have effect if it is not countersigned by a minister, who, thereby, makes himself responsible.

ARTICLE 65. The King appoints and dismisses his ministers.

ARTICLE 66. He confers the grades in the army. He appoints to the offices of general administration and of foreign relations, with the exceptions determined by law. He appoints to other offices only by virtue of express provisions of a law.

ARTICLE 67. He makes the regulations and decrees necessary to the execution of the laws, without power to suspend the laws themselves, nor to exempt from their execution.

ARTICLE 68. The King commands the land and naval forces, declares war, makes treaties of peace, of alliance, and of commerce. He announces them to the Chambers as soon as the interest and the safety of the State admit of it, adding to them appropriate communications. Treaties of commerce and those which might burden the State or bind Belgians individually become effective only after having received the approval of the Chambers. No cession, nor exchange, nor addition of territory can take place without authority of a law. In no case can the secret articles of a treaty be destructive to the open articles.

ARTICLE 69. The King sanctions and promulgates the laws.

ARTICLE 70. The Chambers meet by right every year, on the 2d Tuesday in November, unless previously summoned by the King. The Chambers must remain in session at least 40 days in each year. The King declares the closing of the session. The King has the right to call extra sessions of the Chambers.

ARTICLE 71. The King has the right to dissolve the Chambers, either simultaneously or separately; the act of dissolution to contain a convocation of the electors within forty days and of the Chambers within two months.

ARTICLE 72. The King may adjourn the Chambers. The adjournment, however, cannot exceed the term of one month, nor be renewed in the same session, without the consent of the Chambers.

ARTICLE 73. He has the right to remit or to reduce penalties pronounced by the judges, except those which are enacted concerning the ministers.

ARTICLE 74. He has the right to coin money, in execution of the law.

ARTICLE 75. He has the right to confer titles of nobility, without power to attach any privilege to them.

ARTICLE 76. He confers the military orders, observing in that regard what the law prescribes.

ARTICLE 77. The law fixes the civil list for the duration of each reign.

ARTICLE 78. The King has no other powers than those formally conferred on him by the Consti-

stitution, and by laws enacted pursuant to the Constitution.

ARTICLE 79. On the death of the King, the Chambers meet without convocation, not later than the tenth day after that of his decease. If the Chambers had been previously dissolved, and if the convocation had been fixed in the act of dissolution for a later date than the tenth day, the old Chambers resume their functions until the meeting of those which are to take their place. If one Chamber only had been dissolved, the same rule is followed with regard to that Chamber. From the death of the King and until his successor on the throne or the regent has taken the oath, the constitutional powers of the King are exercised, in the name of the Belgian nation, by the ministers assembled in council and under their responsibility.

ARTICLE 80. The King is of age when he has completed his 18th year. He takes possession of the throne only after having solemnly taken, in the midst of the Chambers assembled together, the following oath: "I swear to observe the Constitution and the laws of the Belgian people, to maintain the national independence and to preserve the integrity of the territory."

ARTICLE 81. If, on the death of the King, his successor is a minor, both Chambers meet in one body for the purpose of providing for the regency and the guardianship.

ARTICLE 82. If it is impossible for the King to reign, the ministers, after having caused that inability to be established, convoke the Chambers immediately. Guardianship and regency are to be provided for by the Chambers convened.

ARTICLE 83. The regency can be conferred on one person only. The regent enters upon his duties only after he has taken the oath prescribed by Article 80.

ARTICLE 84. No change can be made in the Constitution during a regency.

ARTICLE 85. In case of a vacancy on the throne, the Chambers deliberating together, arrange provisionally for the regency until the meeting of new Chambers, that meeting to take place within two months, at the latest. The new Chambers deliberating together provide definitely for the vacancy.

Section II.—Of the Ministers

ARTICLE 86. No person can be a minister who is not a Belgian by birth, or who has not received the "grande naturalization."

ARTICLE 87. No member of the royal family can be a minister.

ARTICLE 88. Ministers have a deliberative voice in either Chamber only when they are members of it. They have free admission into each Chamber and must have a hearing when they ask for it. The Chambers may require the presence of ministers.

ARTICLE 89. In no case, can the order of the King, verbal or written, relieve a minister of responsibility.

ARTICLE 90. The Chamber of Representatives has the right to accuse ministers and to arraign them before the Court of Cassation [Appeal], which alone has the right to judge them, the united Chambers reserving what may be enacted by law concerning civil action by a party wronged, and as to crimes and misdemeanors which ministers may have committed outside of the performance of their duties. A law shall determine the cases of responsibility, the penalties to be inflicted on the ministers, and the manner of proceeding against them, either upon the accusation admitted by the

Chamber of Representatives, or upon prosecution by parties wronged.

ARTICLE 91. The King may pardon a minister sentenced by the Court of Cassation only upon the request of one of the two Chambers.

Chapter III.—Of the Judiciary Power

ARTICLE 92. Contests concerning civil rights are exclusively within the jurisdiction of the tribunals.

ARTICLE 93. Contests concerning political rights are within the jurisdiction of the tribunals, with exceptions determined by law.

ARTICLE 94. No tribunal can be established otherwise than by law. Neither commissions nor extraordinary tribunals, under any denomination whatever, can be created.

ARTICLE 95. There is for the whole of Belgium one Court of Cassation. This Court does not consider the ground of causes, except in the judgment of ministers.

ARTICLE 96. Sittings of the tribunals are public, unless such publicity be dangerous to order or morals, and in that case the tribunal declares it by a judgment. In the matter of political or press offenses, the exclusion of the public must be voted unanimously.

ARTICLE 97. The ground of every judgment is to be stated. It is pronounced in public sitting.

ARTICLE 98. The jury is established in all criminal cases, and for political and press offenses.

ARTICLE 99. The judges of the peace and judges of the tribunals are appointed directly by the King. Councillors of the Courts of appeal and presidents and vice-presidents of the courts of original jurisdiction are appointed by the King, from two double lists, presented, one by those courts and the other by the provincial Councils. Councillors of the Court of Cassation are appointed by the King from two double lists, one presented by the Senate and the other by the Court of Cassation. In these two cases the candidates whose names are on one list may also be inscribed on the other. All presentations are made public at least fifteen days before the appointment. The courts choose their presidents and vice-presidents from among their members.

ARTICLE 100. Judges are appointed for life. No judge can be deprived of his position or suspended, except by a judgment. The displacement of a judge can take place only through a new appointment and with his consent.

ARTICLE 101. The King appoints and dismisses the public prosecutors to the courts and tribunals.

ARTICLE 102. The salaries of the members of the judicial order are fixed by law.

ARTICLE 103. No judge may accept salaried offices from the government unless he exercises them gratuitously, and excluding the cases of incompatibility defined by law.

ARTICLE 104. There are three courts of appeal in Belgium. The law determines their jurisdiction and the places in which they shall be established.

ARTICLE 105. Special enactments regulate the organization of military courts, their powers, the rights and obligations of the members of such courts, and the duration of their functions. There are tribunals of commerce in the places determined by law, which regulate their organization, their powers, the mode of appointment of their members and the term of the latter's duties.

ARTICLE 106. Conflicts of jurisdiction are settled by the Court of Cassation, according to proceedings regulated by law.

ARTICLE 107. Courts and tribunals shall apply general, provincial and local decisions and regu-

lations only so far as they are conformable to the laws.

Chapter IV.—Of Provincial and Communal Institutions

ARTICLE 108. Provincial and communal institutions are regulated by the laws. These laws sanction the application of the following principles: 1. Direct election, with the exceptions which the law may establish in regard to the chiefs of communal administration and the government commissioners to the provincial councils; 2. The assigning to provincial and communal councils of all which is of provincial and communal interest without prejudice to the approval of their acts in the cases and according to the proceedings which law determines; 3. The publicity of the sittings of the provincial and communal councils within the limits established by law; 4. The publicity of budgets and accounts; 5. The intervention of the King or of the legislative power to prevent the provincial and communal councils from going beyond their powers and injuring the general welfare.

ARTICLE 109. The drawing up of certificates of birth, marriage and death, and the keeping of the registers, are the exclusive prerogatives of communal authorities.

Title IV

Of the Finances

ARTICLE 110. No tax for the profit of the State can be imposed otherwise than by a law. No charge or provincial assessment can be imposed without the consent of the provincial council. No charge or communal assessment can be imposed, without the consent of the communal council. The law must determine those exceptions of which experience will show the necessity in the matter of provincial and communal impositions.

ARTICLE 111. Taxes for the profit of the State are voted annually. The laws which impose them are valid for one year only, unless renewed.

ARTICLE 112. There can be no creation of privilege in the matter of taxes. No exemption from nor diminution of taxes can be established otherwise than by a law.

ARTICLE 113. Beyond the cases expressly excepted by law, no payment can be exacted from citizens, otherwise than in taxes levied for the profit of the State, of the province, or of the commune. No innovation is made on the actually existing system of the polders and the wateringens, which remains subject to the ordinary legislation.

ARTICLE 114. No pension, nor gratuity at the expense of the public treasury can be granted without authority of law.

ARTICLE 115. Each year, the Chambers determine the law of accounts and vote the budget. All the receipts and expenditures of the State must be entered in the budget and in the accounts.

ARTICLE 116. The members of the court of accounts are appointed by the Chamber of Representatives and for the term fixed by law. That court is intrusted with the examination and the settlement of the accounts of the general administration and of all the accountants for the public treasury. It sees that no article of the expenses of the budget has been exceeded and that no transfer has taken place. It determines the accounts of the different administrations of the State and is required for that purpose to gather all information, and all documents that may be necessary. The general account of the State is sub-

mitted to the Chambers with the observations of the court of accounts. This court is organized by law.

ARTICLE 117. The salaries and pensions of the ministers of religion are paid by the State; the sums required to meet these expenses are entered annually in the budget.

Title V

Of the Army

ARTICLE 118. The mode of recruiting the army is determined by law. The law also regulates promotions, and the rights and obligations of the military.

ARTICLE 119. The contingent of the army is voted annually. The law that fixes it is of force for one year only, unless renewed.

ARTICLE 120. The organization and the powers of the gendarmerie are the subject of a law.

ARTICLE 121. No foreign troops can be admitted to the service of the State, nor to occupy or pass through its territory, except by provision of law.

ARTICLE 122. There is a civic guard; its organization is regulated by law. The officers of all ranks, up to that of captain at least, are appointed by the guards with exceptions judged necessary for the accountants.

ARTICLE 123. The mobilization of the civic guard can occur only by direction of law.

ARTICLE 124. Military men can be deprived of their grades, honors, and pensions only in the manner determined by law.

Title VI

General Provisions

ARTICLE 125. The Belgian nation adopts the colors red, yellow and black, and for the arms of the kingdom the Belgic lion with the motto: "L'Union fait la Force" ["Union is Strength"].

ARTICLE 126. The city of Brussels is the capital of Belgium and the seat of its government.

ARTICLE 127. No oath can be imposed except by law. The law also determines its formula.

ARTICLE 128. Any foreigner who is within the territory of Belgium enjoys the protection accorded to persons and goods, with the exceptions defined by law.

ARTICLE 129. No law, decree, or administrative regulation, general, provincial, or communal, is obligatory until it has been published in the form prescribed by law.

ARTICLE 130. The Constitution cannot be suspended, either wholly or in part.

Title VII

Of the Revision of the Constitution

ARTICLE 131. The legislative power has the right to declare that there is occasion for revising such constitutional provision as it designates. After such declaration, the two Chambers are dissolved. Two new Chambers shall then be convoked, in conformity with Article 71. These Chambers act, in concurrence with the King, on the points submitted for revision. In such case, the Chambers cannot deliberate unless two-thirds at least of the members composing each one of them are present, and no change which does not receive at least two-thirds of the votes in its favor shall be adopted.

[The remaining Articles—132-130—are "Temporary Provisions" and "Supplementary Provisions," the latter specifying certain subjects on which it is declared to be "necessary to provide

by separate laws and with the least possible delay.]"

BELGRADE, formerly the capital of Serbia; since Nov. 24, 1918, the capital of Jugo- (or Yugo-) Slavia. Population in 1919 about 120,000. In Roman days it was known as Singidunum, a fortification at the confluence of the Danube and the Save. During the attacks of the Avars upon the territory of the Eastern Empire, in the last years of the sixth century, the city was taken and totally destroyed. The advantageous site of the extinct town soon attracted a colony of Slavonians, who raised out of the ruins a new and strongly fortified city—the Belgrade, or the White City of later times. "The Slavonic name of Belgrade is mentioned in the 10th century by Constantine Porphyrogenitus: the Latin appellation of Alba Græca is used by the Franks in the beginning of the 9th."—E. Gibbon, *Decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 46, note.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map.

1425.—Acquired by Hungary and fortified against Turks. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1442.—First repulse of the Turks. See TURKEY: 1402-1451.

1456.—Second repulse of the Turks. See HUNGARY: 1442-1458; and TURKEY: 1451-1481.

1521.—Siege and capture by Solyman the Magnificent. See HUNGARY: 1487-1526.

1688-1690.—Taken by Austrians and recovered by Turks. See HUNGARY: 1683-1699.

1717.—Recovery from Turks. See HUNGARY: 1699-1718.

1739.—Restored to Turks. See RUSSIA: 1725-1739.

1789-1791.—Taken by Austrians and restored to Turks. See TURKEY: 1776-1792.

1806.—Surprised and taken by Serbians. See SERBIA: 1804-1817.

1903.—Murder of King Alexander.—On June 15, 1903, King Alexander and Queen Draga were murdered by military conspirators. See SERBIA: 1885-1903.

1914-1918.—Strategic position of Belgrade.—Austrian occupation.—The capital of Serbia commands the Danube River at the Austro-Serbian frontier. It was shelled by the Austrians as early as July 29, 1914, withstanding, however, all attacks until December 1, when the Serbians evacuated the city. The Austrians entered on December 2, being forced to conduct the bombardment from across the Danube, and reduce the city to ruins. The rally of the Serbians on December 5 enabled them to reoccupy Belgrade, December 13, 1914. The final fall of Belgrade took place on October 9, 1915. (See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: a, 1.) The Austrian occupation was maintained until November 3, 1918, when the Serbians reoccupied their capital under the command of Franchet d'Esperey, the allied generalissimo in the Balkans. (See WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: a.) The significance of Belgrade during the World War as well as in the diplomatic struggle which preceded it was due not only to its military strength but also to its strategic position on the great natural highway between Austro-Hungary and Constantinople.—See also SERBIA: 1914-1918; and WORLD WAR, 1914: III. Balkans: a, 1.

BELGRADE, Peace of. See RUSSIA: 1734-1740.

BELGRANO, Manuel (1770-1820), Argentine general. Joined the movement of independence; went with an army to free Paraguay (1810) but was unsuccessful; led an army against the Spaniards in upper Peru; defeated them at Tucumán (1812), Salta (1813). He was defeated by the

Spaniards at Vilcapujio and Ayouma (1813); was superseded by San Martin; restored to his command (1815) but took little part in later movements.

BELIK, a branch of the Euphrates river, where the battle of Carrhæ was fought in 53 B.C. See **ROME: Republic: B.C. 57-52.**

BELINSKY, Vissarion Gregorievitch (1815-1848), Russian author and critic. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1820-1848.**

BELISARIUS, (c. 505-565), Byzantine general, commanded the armies of the Emperor Justinian. See **BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 527-553; MILAN: 539; ROME: Medieval city: 527-565; VANDALS: 533-534.**

BELIZE, or **British Honduras**. See **HONDURAS, BRITISH.**

BELL, Alexander Graham (1847-1922), American inventor and scientist, born in Scotland, especially noted for his invention of the telephone, for which he received a patent on February 14, 1876; also invented the photophone, used for the transmission and reproduction of sounds by means of waves of light, and the graphophone, an instrument which mechanically reproduces human speech by means of a vibrating diaphragm which first aids in recording the sound, and later is one of the factors in its reproduction. He has been much interested in aviation and contributed much toward making experimentation possible; he is also the founder of the Volta bureau which conducts research among the deaf; he received the Volta prize from the French government in 1881; in 1883 was elected to the National Academy of Sciences; served as president of the American association to promote teaching of speech to the deaf; as president of the National Geographic Society, and as regent of the Smithsonian Institution. —See also **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telephone: 1875-1893.**

BELL, Charles Henry, governor of New Hampshire, 1881-1883. See **NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1876-1884.**

BELL, Sir Francis Henry Dillon (1851-), New Zealand statesman. See **CENSORSHIP: World War.**

BELL, Johannes, German representative at peace conference. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.**

BELL, John (1707-1869), American statesman. Member Tennessee senate, 1817; member house of representatives, 1827-1841; speaker of the house, 1834-1835; secretary of war, 1841; member United States senate, 1847-1859; candidate for president on the Constitutional Union party ticket, 1860.

BELL TELEPHONE, Invention of. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telephone: 1875-1893.**

BELLA COOLA INDIANS. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.**

BELLAMY, Edward (1850-1898), American economist and author, leader in Nationalist movement. See **SOCIALISM: 1887-1891.**

BELLEAU, Rémy (c. 1527-1577), French poet and translator of the classics. See **FRENCH LITERATURE: 1540-1580.**

BELLEAU, village of France near Châteaun-Thiery, taken by French in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 11.**

BELLEAU WOOD (Bois de Belleau), region of dense wood in the vicinity of Châteaun-Thiery, France, where American marines fought in 1918. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 1; g, 3; g, 4 (i).**

BELLE-ISLE, Charles Louis Auguste Fouquet, Duc de, (1684-1761), French general who, with the Comte de Broglie, commanded the French

armies of the War of the Austrian Succession. Minister of war under Louis XV, 1756-1761. See **AUSTRIA: 1741 (April-May), (May-June); 1742 (June-December); FRANCE: 1733-1735.**

BELLE-ISLE PRISON, situated on a small island of same name in the James river, Virginia. See **PRISONS AND PRISON-PENS, CONFEDERATE.**

BELLENGLISE, a village of northeastern France between Cambrai and St. Quentin, captured in the Allied counter-offensive of 1918, the Scheldt canal being crossed by means of rafts and life belts. See **WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: o, 2.**

BELLECOURT, a village in northeastern France, near Cambrai, taken by the Allies in 1918.

BELLIGERENCY.—"Internal dissensions in a state, affecting the government, will tend to disturb the international relations of the state since the government is the organ for those relations. Among autocratic governments any revolt is suppressed with an iron hand and is generally an attempt to subvert the existing dynasty and establish a new one. Controversies of this kind were frequent in western Europe, and the neighboring potentates, when such a revolt arose, took such attitude as best suited their own interests, rendering assistance to the usurper or recognizing him accordingly. A revolt among the people in establishment of popular rights was regarded as being especially dangerous and common cause was generally made in such a case. With the rise of democracies and limited governments, the voice of the people was heard with different effect, the stigma of treason became less applicable, and the power of the people to govern themselves and choose their own government could not be denied. A body of people revolting from the parent state became of importance in international relations and consequently presented a state of facts of which account must be taken by neighboring independent states. The principle was not realized until the opening of the nineteenth century. The revolts in western Europe, of the Swiss Cantons, and the United Provinces, while having all the elements of a popular uprising, do not seem to have presented any question of belligerency. The revolt of the thirteen British Colonies in North America, followed by the revolt of the Spanish Colonies in South America, of Greece, Belgium, and others since, have presented facts which call for a new vocabulary in the science of international law. The term 'belligerent' had long been used in international law to describe independent states engaged in war, and such states were engaged in international violence which was more or less regulated by certain principles called the laws of war. The revolting community, by making itself felt in international life, acquired the status of an independent state engaged in war, and therefore was described as a belligerent state or community. The international status of the community is only for the war and does not necessarily extend to other international functions which only attach when the revolution is successful. The recognition of such a body as a belligerent will bring it within the international horizon, and accordingly subject to the external factors determining independent state conduct. The recognizing state may therefore expect such a body to conduct itself accordingly, and the desire of the latter for independent state life will powerfully impel a recognition of those factors. If they are regarded only as traitors the outside independent state will, as to interests within the political control of the revolting body, be compelled to look to the parent state, which will in fact be unable to fulfill its international obligations as to the interests existing

within that territory."—R. R. Foulke, *International law*, v. 1, pp. 71-73.—See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Convention with respect to the laws and customs of war on land.—"The recognition by England of the Confederate States as belligerents in 1861 affords an example of the recognition of belligerent character, interesting both because the case presents a strongly marked instance of the circumstances which compel recognition on the part of a foreign power, and because of the controversy which arose between the governments of the United States and of Great Britain with reference to the propriety and opportuneness of recognition on the occasion in question."—W. E. Hall, *International law*, p. 39.—In addition to its international significance, the status of belligerency is important in that it assures to members of the belligerent forces treatment as prisoners of war, not as traitors, in case of capture.—See also BLOCKADE: Meaning; CONTRABAND: Origin; INSURGENCY; INTERNATIONAL LAW; NEUTRALITY.

BELLINGSHAUSEN, Fabian Gottlieb von (Russian, Faddei Fadeyevitch), (1778-1852), Russian explorer. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1838; and PACIFIC OCEAN: 1764-1850.

BELLINI, Jacopo, Gentile, and Giovanni, a famous family of Venetian painters consisting of a father and two sons. (I) The father, Jacopo (1400-1470), was an important Renaissance painter and draughtsman; student of antique, perspective and physiognomy. Had a strong influence on the development of Venetian art both through his own work and through that of his two sons and son-in-law (Mantegna), pupil of Gentile da Fabriano; active as a painter in Verona, Padua, and Venice; principal works have been lost, but among those extant are: "Crucifixion" in the Verona Gallery, "Madonnas" at the Louvre, "Annunciation" in Sant' Alessandro, Venice. (II) Gentile (c. 1428-1507), painted much in his father's manner; 1466, commissioned to decorate the doors of the great organ at Venice; 1474, contracted with the Senate to restore decorations on the walls of the Hall of the Great Council in the ducal palace; 1479, at request of the Sultan for an excellent painter the Venetian government sent him to Constantinople where he gave marked satisfaction; spent the next 30 years on historic decorations for the ducal palace; greatest surviving works are: three drawings in Venetian Academy of miracles wrought by a relic of the cross. (III) Giovanni (1430-1516), the younger son of Jacopo was the most important Venetian painter of the fifteenth century. Became a more celebrated portrait painter than his brother and gave the beautiful color to Venetian painting. Worked on the paintings in the ducal palace; acquired great skill in art of oil painting introduced in 1473 by Antonella da Messina; principal works of his later period are: "Baptism of Christ," at Santa Corona, Vicenza, altar pieces of San Zaccaria, and "Madonna and Child" at Brera. Among his famous pupils who surpassed him were Giorgione and Titian.

BELLINI, Vincenzo (1801-1835), Italian operatic composer; one of the lights of Italian opera whose operas, "Il Pirata," "La Sonnambula," "Norma," "I Puritani," have raised him to the position of one of the favorite composers of the day. See MUSIC: Modern: 1818-1868.

BELLOVACI, Gallic tribe of the Belgian confederation. See BELGAE.

BELLOWS-SYSTEM, player machine. See INVENTIONS: 20th century player piano.

BELLOY, a village in northeastern France south of the Somme, captured by the French in the

allied counter-offensive of 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: Western front: c, 2.

BELLUNO, Claude Perrin Victor, Duke of (1764-1841), French marshal. Gained notice of Napoleon at siege of Toulon 1793; served in Italy, distinguished himself at Marengo; fought against Prussia; commanded a corps in Spain, where after some successes he was defeated at Talavera by Wellington; fought in Russia at the passage of the Beresina; later accepted office under the Bourbons; minister of war, 1821-1823.—See also SPAIN: 1808-1809 (December-March); and 1809 (February-July).

BELLUNO, city of northern Italy on the Piave, occupied by Italians in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: c, 9.

BELLVILLE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July: Kentucky).

BELMONT, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1861 (September-November; On the Mississippi).

BELMONT, Battle of. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December).

BELOW, Fritz von, German general in the World War. Took part in the Picardy offensive and in the attack on Chemin des Dames (1918). See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 6.

BELOW, Otto von, German general in the World War. Held important commands in battle of the Somme (1916) and at Caporetto (1917). See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 2; d, 4; e, 2; 1918: II. Western front: b, 1; d, 1-3.

BELSHAZZAR (d. 538 B.C.) Babylonian general and co-regent of Babylonia. According to the Book of Daniel, he was the son of Nebuchadnezzar (Nebuchadrezzar) and the last of the Babylonian kings, who was warned of his doom by a handwriting on the wall which was interpreted by Daniel. Since the decipherment of cuneiform inscriptions found at Babylon, it has been discovered that he was not the king of Babylon but governor of south Babylonia and the eldest son of Nabonidos, king of Babylonia who owed his accession to a revolution and was not related to the family of Nebuchadnezzar. Belshazzar was more powerful than his father, with whom he was co-regent, and was chief of the army of Babylon. When Nabonidos was defeated by Cyrus and fled, Belshazzar assumed full command and was finally killed in the sacking of the city.—See also BABYLONIA: Invasion of Cyrus the Persian.

BELUS, ancient king of Babylon, gave name to Baluchistan. See BALUCHISTAN: Origin of name.

BELVEDERE COURT. See VATICAN MUSEUMS.

BEM, Joseph (1795-1850), Polish patriot. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; and HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

BEMA, a platform for orators at the foot of the Acropolis in Athens. See PNYX.

BEMINI, or **Bimini**, small group of the Bahamas. See AMERICA: 1512.

BEMIS HEIGHTS, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

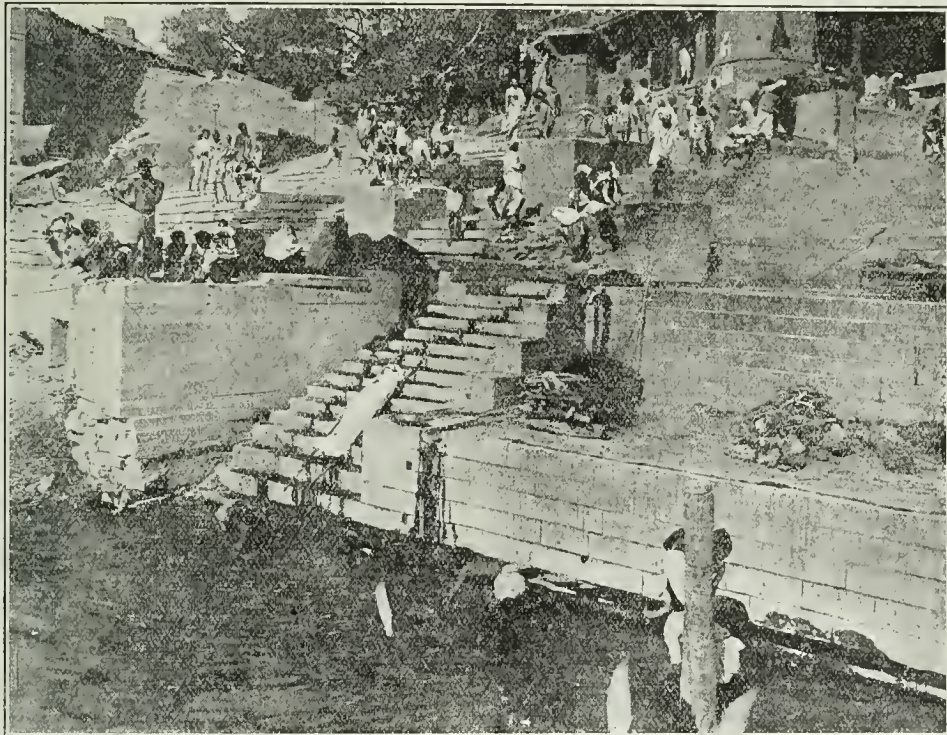
BENARES.—This city with a population of 203,604, in the United Provinces, is located on the Ganges River, 300 miles northwest of Calcutta. "It is the great holy city of India and the chief center of Brahmanical learning. Enormous numbers of wealthy pilgrims come here every year to bathe in and drink of the waters of the 'Holy Mother Ganges.' Many die here and have their ashes thrown into the river."—H. D. Baker, *British India*, pp. 53-54.—Benares "may even date from the time when the Aryan race first spread itself over Northern India. . . . It is certain that the city is regarded by all Hindus as coeval

with the birth of Hinduism, a notion derived both from tradition and from their own writings. Allusions to Benares are exceedingly abundant in ancient Sanskrit literature; and perhaps there is no city in all Hindustan more frequently referred to. By reason of some subtle and mysterious charm, it has linked itself with the religious sympathies of the Hindus through every century of its existence. For the sanctity of its inhabitants—of its temples and reservoirs—of its wells and streams—of the very soil that is trodden—of the very air that is breathed—and of everything in and around it, Benares has been famed for thousands of years. . . . Previously to the introduction of the Buddhist faith into India, she was already the sacred city of the land,—the centre of Hinduism, and chief seat of its authority. Judg-

BENCKENDORFF, Alexandre, Count (1849-1917), Russian Ambassador in London. See **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 20.

BENCOOLEN, capital city of Sumatra. It was settled by the British about 1685 and ruled by them until 1825 when it was ceded to the Dutch in exchange for control on the Malay peninsula. See **STRAITS SETTLEMENTS**: Conquest and settlement.

BENDER, or Bendery, a town in Bessarabia (q. v.) now belonging to Rumania. Situated on the Dniester, the town is an important commercial center. After his defeat at Poltava, Charles XII established his troops here in a camp called New Stockholm, remaining from 1709 to 1713. Bender was long a bone of contention between Turkey and Russia, the latter capturing it in 1770,



THE BURNING GHATS ON THE GANGES RIVER AT BENARES

The bodies of the dead are dipped into the sacred Ganges, and then burned on pires

ing from the strong feelings of veneration and affection with which the native community regard her in the present day, and bearing in mind that the founder of Buddhism commenced his ministry at this spot, it seems indisputable that, in those early times preceding the Buddhist reformation, the city must have exerted a powerful and widespread religious influence over the land. Throughout the Buddhist period in India—a period extending from 700 to 1,000 years—she gave the same support to Buddhism which she had previously given to the Hindu faith. Buddhist works of that era . . . clearly establish the fact that the Buddhists of those days regarded the city with much the same kind of veneration as the Hindu does now.”—M. A. Sherring, *Sacred city of the Hindus*, ch. 1.—For an account of the English annexation of Benares during the Mahratta War, see **INDIA**: 1773-1785.

1789, 1806 and 1811 and obtaining it permanently in 1812. As a result of the World War, it has passed with all Bessarabia to Rumania.

BENDER, Siege of (1737). See **RUSSIA**: 1734-1740.

BENECKENDORFF UND VON HINDENBURG, Paul von. See **HINDENBURG**, PAUL VON **BENECKENDORFF UND VON**.

BENEDEK, Ludwig, Ritter von (1804-1881), Austrian general. Distinguished himself as a colonel in Galicia (1846), and the next year in Italy; was often promoted and showed great skill at Solferino (1859); unjustly blamed for Austrian disaster in the Seven Weeks' War with Prussia; after Königgrätz or Sadowa in 1866 lived in retirement. See **AUSTRIA**: 1862-1866; and **GERMANY**: 1866.

BENEDETTI, Count Vincent (1817-1900), French diplomat. Was minister to Prussia, 1864-

1870, and had the famous Ems interviews with William I, which were followed by the Franco-Prussian war of 1870-1871. See GERMANY: 1866-1870.

BENEDICT, Saint, of Aniane (c. 750-821), French monk, canonized on his death; reformer of monastic discipline. See MONASTICISM: 9th-13th centuries.

BENEDICT, Saint, of Nursia (c. 480-c. 544), Italian monk who founded the order of the Benedictines and thereby monasticism in the West. See ABBOT; BENEDICTINE ORDERS; MONASTICISM: 6th century.

BENEDICT, I, pope, 573-578.

Benedict II, pope, 684-685.

Benedict III, pope, 855-858.

Benedict IV, pope, 900-903.

Benedict V, pope, 964-965.

Benedict VI, pope, 972-974.

Benedict VII, pope, 975-984.

Benedict VIII, pope, 1012-1024.

Benedict IX, pope, 1033-1044, 1047-1048. See PAPACY: 887-1076.

Benedict X, antipope, 1058-1059.

Benedict XI, pope, 1303-1304. See FRANCE: 1285-1314.

Benedict XII, pope, 1334-1342.

Benedict XIII, pope, 1394-1423 (at Avignon). See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

Benedict XIII, pope, 1724-1730.

Benedict XIV, pope, 1740-1758. See VATICAN: 1744.

Benedict XV, (1854-1922), pope, 1914, successor of Pius X; maintained a neutral attitude in World War and urged peace terms. See ITALY: 1914: Death of pope; PAPACY: 1914; 1915-1917; 1917-1918; 1920; 1920; SCHISM IN CZECHOSLOVAKIA; WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: g; U. S. A.: 1919 (August).

BENEDICTINE AGE.—Learning confined to church. See EUROPE: Middle Ages: Roman civilization inherited in part by Christian church.

BENEDICTINE ORDERS.—Rule of St. Benedict.—“There were many monasteries in the West before the time of St. Benedict of Nursia (A. D. 480); but he has been rightly considered the father of Western monasticism; for he not only founded an order to which many religious houses became attached, but he established a rule for their government which, in its main features, was adopted as the rule of monastic life by all the orders for more than five centuries, or until the time of St. Dominic and St. Francis of Assisi. Benedict was first a hermit, living in the mountains of Southern Italy, and in that region he afterwards established in succession twelve monasteries, each with twelve monks and a superior. In the year 520 he founded the great monastery of Monte Casino as the mother-house of his order, a house which became the most celebrated and powerful monastery, according to Montalembert, in the Catholic universe, celebrated especially because there Benedict prepared his rule and formed the type which was to serve as a model to the innumerable communities submitting to that sovereign code. . . . Neither in the East nor in the West were the monks originally ecclesiastics; and it was not until the eighth century that they became priests, called regulars, in contrast with the ordinary parish clergy, who were called seculars. . . . As missionaries, they proved the most powerful instruments in extending the authority and the boundaries of the church. The monk had no individual property: even his dress belonged to the monastery. . . . To enable him to work efficiently, it was necessary to feed

him well; and such was the injunction of Benedict, as opposed to the former practice of strict asceticism.”—C. J. Stillé, *Studies in mediæval history*, ch. 12.—“Benedict would not have the monks limit themselves to spiritual labour, to the action of the soul upon itself; he made external labour, manual or literary, a strict obligation of his rule. . . . In order to banish indolence, which he called the enemy of the soul, he regulated minutely the employment of every hour of the day according to the seasons, and ordained that, after having celebrated the praises of God seven times a-day, seven hours a-day should be given to manual labour, and two hours to reading. . . . Those who are skilled in the practice of an art or trade, could only exercise it by the permission of the abbot, in all humility; and if any one prided himself on his talent, or the profit which resulted from it to the house, he was to have his occupation changed until he had humbled himself. . . . Obedience is also to his eyes a work, obedientiam laborem, the most meritorious and essential of all. A monk entered into monastic life only to make the sacrifice of self. This sacrifice implied especially that of the will. . . . Thus the rule pursued pride into its most secret hiding-place. Submission had to be prompt, perfect, and absolute. The monk must obey always, without reserve, and without murmur, even in those things which seemed impossible and above his strength, trusting in the succour of God, if a humble and reasonable remonstrance, the only thing permitted to him, was not accepted by his superiors.”—Count de Montalembert, *Monks of the west*, bk. 4, sect. 2, v. 2.—See also CAPUCHINS; CARTHUSIAN ORDER; EINSIEDELN, ABBEY OF; HISTORY: 24; LINDISFARNE: 7th-10th centuries; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 10th-12th centuries; MONASTICISM: 6th century; 9th-13th centuries.

Benedictines in Lindisfarne. (11th century). See LINDISFARNE: 7th-19th centuries.

Forbidden to teach in France. See FRANCE: 1900-1904.

ALSO IN: E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the Middle Ages*, ch. 2.—S. R. Maitland, *Dark Ages*, no. 10.—J. H. Newman, *Mission of St. Benedict* (*Historical Sketches*, v. 2).—P. Schaff, *History of the Christian church*, v. 2, ch. 4, sect. 43-45.—E. F. Henderson, *Select Historical Documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 3, no. 1.

BENEFICE. See BENEFICIUM; FEUDALISM.

BENEFICIUM and COMMENDATION.—Feudalism “had grown up from two great sources—the beneficium, and the practice of commendation, and had been specially fostered on Gallic soil by the existence of a subject population which admitted of any amount of extension in the methods of dependence. The beneficiary system originated partly in gifts of land made by the kings out of their own estates to their kinsmen and servants, with a special undertaking to be faithful; partly in the surrender by landowners of their estates to churches or powerful men, to be received back again and held by them as tenants for rent or service. By the latter arrangement the weaker man obtained the protection of the stronger, and he who felt himself insecure placed his title under the defence of the Church. By the practice of commendation, on the other hand, the inferior put himself under the personal care of a lord, but without altering his title or divesting himself of his right to his estate; he became a vassal and did homage. The placing of his hands between those of his lord was the typical act by which the connexion was formed.”—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, ch. 9, sect. 93.—See also BEL-

GIUM: Ancient and medieval history; SCOTLAND: 10th-11th centuries.

ALSO IN: H. Hallam, *View of the state of Europe during the middle ages*, ch. 2, pt. 1.

BENEFIT OF CLERGY.—"Among the most important and dearly-prized privileges of the church was that which conferred on its members immunity from the operation of secular law, and relieved them from the jurisdiction of secular tribunals. . . . So priceless a prerogative was not obtained without a long and resolute struggle. . . . To ask that a monk or priest guilty of crime should not be subject to the ordinary tribunals, and that civil suits between laymen and ecclesiastics should be referred exclusively to courts composed of the latter, was a claim too repugnant to the common sense of mankind to be lightly accorded. . . . The persistence of the church, backed up by the unflinching resource of excommunication, finally triumphed, and the sacred immunity of the priesthood was acknowledged, sooner or later, in the laws of every nation of Europe." In England, when Henry II. in 1164, "endeavored, in the Constitutions of Clarendon, to set bounds to the privileges of the church, he therefore especially attacked the benefit of clergy. . . . The disastrous result of the quarrel between the King and the archbishop [Becket] rendered it necessary to abandon all such schemes of reform. . . . As time passed on, the benefit of clergy gradually extended itself. That the laity were illiterate and the clergy educated was taken for granted, and the test of churchmanship came to be the ability to read, so that the privilege became in fact a free pardon on a first offence for all who knew their letters. . . . Under Elizabeth, certain heinous offences were declared felonies without benefit of clergy. . . . Much legislation ensued from time to time, effecting the limitation of the privilege in various offences. . . . Early in the reign of Anne the benefit of clergy was extended to all malefactors by abrogating the reading test, thus placing the unlettered felon on a par with his better educated fellows, and it was not until the present century was well advanced that this remnant of mediæval ecclesiastical prerogative was abolished by 7 and 8 Geo. iv. c. 28."—H. C. Lea, *Studies in church history*, pt. 2. —See also ENGLAND: 1162-1170; ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 1285-1660.

ALSO IN: W. Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, sect. 722-725 (ch. 10, v. 3).

BENEMUND DE VICCI, gave an estimate of Scottish ecclesiastical property in 1275. See BAGIMONT'S ROLL.

BENĚS, Eduard (1888-), Czecho-Slovakian representative at Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BENEVENTO, or **Grandella**, Battle of (1266). See ITALY (SOUTHERN): 1250-1268.

BENEVENTUM: **Lombard duchy**. — The duchy of Beneventum was a Lombard fief of the eighth and ninth centuries, in southern Italy, which survived the fall of the Lombard kingdom in northern Italy. It covered nearly the territory of the modern kingdom of Naples. Charlemagne reduced the duchy to submission with considerable difficulty, after he had extinguished the Lombard kingdom. It was afterwards divided into the minor principalities of Benevento, Salerno and Capua, and became part of the Norman conquest. See ITALY (SOUTHERN): 800-1016.

BENEVENTUM, Battle of (275 B.C.). See ROME: Republic: B. C. 281-272.

BENEVOLENCES.—"The collection of benevolences, regarded even at the time [England,

reign of Edward IV.] as an innovation, was perhaps a resuscitated form of some of the worst measures of Edward II. and Richard II., but the attention which it aroused under Edward IV. shows how strange it had become under the intervening kings. . . . Such evidence as exists shows us Edward IV. canvassing by word of mouth or by letter for direct gifts of money from his subjects. Henry III. had thus begged for new year's gifts. Edward IV. requested and extorted 'free-will offerings' from every one who could not say no to the pleadings of such a king."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional History of England*, ch. 18, sect. 696. See ENGLAND: 1628.

BENEVOLENT ASSOCIATIONS AND SOCIETIES. See AMERICANIZATION: Early work for immigrants; and CHARITIES.

BENEVOLENT DESPOT. See ABSOLUTISM; AUSTRIA: 1765-1790; EUROPE: Modern: Era of the benevolent despots.

BENGAL.—"Bengal [India] lies to the east of Behar and Choto Nagpur, and stretches from the Himalaya mountains to the sea. The inhabitants are partly Mahomedans and partly Hindus, and speak the Bengali language. . . . It will appear from the figures given above that the Province of Bengal contains, according to the census of 1901, a population of nearly 80 millions of inhabitants. But, in ancient times, the country was mostly covered with swamps and jungles. Cultivation was little known, and the population was small. . . . When the Aryan Hindus came from the west, some three thousand years ago, they settled in different parts of this Province, and introduced cultivation and the arts of civilized life. . . . In ancient times, Western Bengal was known as *Anga*, Eastern Bengal was known as *Vanga*, and South-Bengal and Orissa were known as *Kalinga*. When the Greeks visited Bengal in the fourth century before Christ, the Kalingas were a powerful nation with a great capital at Parthalis. And their king had 60,000 foot soldiers, 1,000 horse, and 700 elephants. Another race, called the Madhya-Kalingas, lived on an island in the Ganges. A third race whom the Greeks called the Gangerides or the Ganetic Race, lived near the mouths of that river. Various other races peopled different parts of Bengal in that age, and had separate kings and kingdoms of their own. In the third century before Christ, Asoka the Great of Magadha conquered a part of Bengal, and introduced Buddhism into that province. Buddhism flourished side by side with Hinduism in Bengal for over a thousand years. . . . After the decay of the ancient races, the Rajputs, a modern race, became masters of all parts of India. A race of Rajputs conquered Bengal, and founded the Pala dynasty in the ninth century after Christ. . . . The Musalmans under Muhammad Ghori conquered Northern India in 1194. Muhammad Ghori was succeeded by Kutbuddin as king of Delhi; and his lieutenant Bakhtiyar Khilji conquered Bengal about 1200. The feeble old king Lakshmaneya fled from Navadwip as the Musalmans entered and took possession of it [see also INDIA: 1200-1308]. Northern and Western Bengal thus passed under the rule of the Mahomedans. The Hindus remained independent at Saptagram in South Bengal, and at Suvarnagram in East Bengal, for a century longer. After that, they too were conquered by the Mahomedans. . . . When the Afghan chiefs conquered Bengal in the thirteenth century, they divided the country among themselves for the support of their troops. Bakhtiyar Khilji and his successors made a choice of some districts as their own domains, and the other districts were assigned to the inferior chiefs. These

chiefs and Jaigirdars again subdivided the lands among petty commanders, each of whom maintained a certain number of soldiers, and was bound to serve his chief and the Ruler of Bengal. Under this system of Feudal Government, the Afghan conquerors retained in their hands the military power in the country. . . . Towards the close of the sixteenth century, Bengal was wrested from the Afghans by the Moguls. The administration of these new conquerors was more thorough than that of their predecessors. Mogul Jaigirdars were moved about from place to place, and this policy led to a great rebellion in 1580, as we have seen before. Shortly after 1700, almost all the Jaigirdars of Bengal lost their Jaigirs, and were allowed to have such grants in the unsettled province of Orissa. . . . We should not forget, however, that local wars and invasions sometimes desolated portions of this delightful country. . . . In spite of these occasional disturbances, however, the Mogul Rule of nearly two centuries may be said to be a period of general peace and prosperity."—R. C. Dutt, *Brief history of ancient and modern Bengal*, pp. 2-4; 18-20; 21; 64-70.

1757-1765.—English acquisition of Bengal. See INDIA: 1755-1757; 1757; 1757-1772; and 1785-1793.

1905.—Partition of the Province. See INDIA: 1905-1910.

1911.—Reversal of old partition and new one made. See INDIA: 1911.

BENGALIS. See INDIA: People; PHILOLOGY: 16.

BENGUELA CURRENT. See AFRICA. Geographic description.

BENGUELA RAILWAY. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation; Modern railway and industrial development.

BENQUET. See BAGUIS.

BENI HASSAN: Rock-cut-tombs. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental; Egypt.

BENIN, capital of the state of Benin, now part of Nigeria Protectorate. Here a peaceful British mission sent to the King of Benin was murdered, January, 1897. See NIGERIA: 1897.

BENJAMIN, Judah Philip (1811-1884), American lawyer and statesman. Member of the Senate, 1853-1861; entered President Davis' Confederate cabinet, 1861, serving in turn as attorney-general, secretary of war and secretary of state.

BENJAMITES, a tribe of Israel. See JERUSALEM: B.C. 1400-700; JEWS: Conquest of Canaan; and Kingdoms of Israel and Judah.

BENNETT, (Enoch) Arnold (1867-), English novelist. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

BENNETT, James Gordon (1794-1872), American journalist. See HERALD, THE NEW YORK.

BENNETT, James Gordon (1841-1918), American newspaper proprietor, son of the foregoing.

BENNIGSEN, Levin August, Count von (1745-1826), Russian general. A native of Hanover; in 1773 he entered the Russian service and fought in Turkish, Polish and Persian wars. In 1807 at Eylau he inflicted on Napoleon the first reverse the latter had suffered, but later in that year Bennigsen was crushingly defeated at Friedland. In 1812 he returned to active service, participating in several battles including Leipzig. (1813).—See also GERMANY: 1806-1807; 1807 (February-June).

BENNINGTON, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

BENOIT, Peter Leonard Leopold (1834-1901),

Flemish musical composer. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism; The Netherlands; Belgium.

BENSON, Allan L. (1871-), United States socialist nominee for president in 1916. See U. S. A.: 1916 (February-November).

BENSON, William Shepherd (1855-), American naval officer. Appointed chief of naval operations, 1915; on naval missions abroad in 1917 and 1918, acting as naval advisor at the Peace Conference, 1919; was rear-admiral from 1915 to 1919, when he was retired; U. S. A.: 1917 (November); WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war; a, 1.

BENTHAM, Jeremy (1748-1832), English philosopher and jurist. His chief work is *The Principles of Morals and Legislation*. He is considered the leading English exponent of the utilitarian philosophy, and was the first to popularize, although not first to use, the maxim that the aim of society should be to promote "the greatest happiness of the greatest number." He was a prolific writer and his works were published by Bowring in eleven volumes, while a mass of unpublished manuscript is in the London libraries.—See also CHARITIES: England: 1782-1834. COMMON LAW: 1851; INTERNATIONAL LAW: 1856-1909; and LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Former projects.

ALSO IN: C. B. R. Kent, *English radicals*.—W. Graham, *English political philosophy from Hobbes to Maine*.—J. S. Mill, Bentham (*London and Westminster Review*, August, 1838).—L. Stephen, *English Utilitarians*.—J. H. Burton, *Benthamiana*.—E. Albee, *History of English Utilitarianism*.

BENTINCK, Count Goddard, host of the former German kaiser William II, at Amerongen, Holland, for many months following William's abdication.

BENTINCK, Lord William Charles Cavendish (1774-1839), British army officer and administrator; served in Flanders, Italy and Egypt; governor of Madras (1803-1808); served in peninsular campaign under Sir John Moore; 1813, active in Catalonia; 1814, active in Italy; 1827, governor-general of India. See INDIA: 1823-1833.

BENTINCK, Lord William George Frederick Cavendish (1802-1848), English political figure and parliamentary leader; private secretary to Canning; 1826, entered parliament; 1845, leader of protectionists against Peel's free trade measures; contributed largely to Peel's downfall; supporter of religious liberty; master of figures, detail and logic.

BENTON, Thomas Hart (1782-1858), American legislator. Member Tennessee legislature, 1809; served in the War of 1812; United States senator from Missouri, 1820-1851; member of the national house of representatives, 1853-1855. See also MISSOURI: 1821-1846; U. S. A.: 1853-1854.

BENTON, Fort, on the Missouri river. Great Northern supply post during period of westward expansion. See U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

BENTONSVILLE, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March; The Carolinas).

BENT'S FORT, on the Arkansas river, a supply post during westward expansion. See U. S. A.: 1865-1885.

BENZ, Carl (1844-), German engineer, inventor of motor-run tricycle. See AUTOMOBILES: 1885-1894.

BEOTHUKAN FAMILY.—The Beothuk were a tribe of Indians, now extinct, which is believed to have occupied the whole of Newfoundland at the time of its discovery. What is known of the language of the Beothuk indicates no relationship to any other American tongue.—J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report of the Bureau of ethnology*, p. 57.

BEOWULF, the hero of the one famous Old English epic. The poem, written not later than the eighth century, is represented by a single tenth century manuscript in the British Museum. The hero, a prince of the Geats in south Sweden, performs great deeds of valor in battle, as well as in slaying huge monsters, and finally perishes in the act of killing a fiery dragon. At least a portion of the epic is founded on historic facts.—See also **BALLAD**: Development; **ENGLAND**: 825-880; and **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 6th-11th centuries.

BEQUESTS. See **GIFTS AND BEQUESTS**.

BERBERS, a branch of the Libyan race of northwest Africa. See **AFRICA**: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples, and Modern peoples; **EGYPT**: Origin of the ancient people; **HAMITES**; **LIBYANS**; **MOROCCO**: 647-1860; **NUMIDIANS AND MAURI**; **SUDAN, OR SOUDAN**: Development of Sudanese empire.

BERCEO, Gonzalo de (c. 1198-c. 1264), earliest known Castilian poet. See **SPANISH LITERATURE**: 1200-1500.

BERCHTOLD, Count Leopold (1863-), Austro-Hungarian foreign minister, succeeding to that office on the death of Baron Aehrenthal in 1912. He had served in the diplomatic service in Paris, London and St. Petersburg, and was Austro-Hungarian ambassador to Russia in 1906. On August 16, 1912, during the Balkan crisis, he invited the Great Powers to engage in "conversations" with a view to "co-ordinating their several efforts in the interest of Balkan peace." (See **BALKAN STATES**: 1912: Balkan League.) Nothing came of this so-called "Berchtold proposal," and the first Balkan War broke out in October. To Count Berchtold belongs the unenviable distinction of being the actual instigator of the World War by his unacceptable ultimatum to Serbia on July 23, 1914. He resigned in January, 1915.—See also **WORLD WAR**: Diplomatic background: 8, 13, 14, 28, 32, 33, 68.

BERENGAR (c. 1000-1088), medieval theologian. Opposed transubstantiation, but recanted several times, under pressure.

BERENGAR I (d. 924), king of Lombardy and Roman Emperor. See **HUNGARY**: 934-955; and **ITALY**: 843-951.

BERENICE, Cities of.—There were three cities of this name (given in honor of Berenice, mother of the second of the Ptolemies) on the Egyptian coast of the Red Sea, and a fourth in Cyrenaica.

BERESFORD, Charles William de la Poer Beresford, Baron (1846-1919), British admiral. Distinguished himself in the bombardment of Alexandria, 1882, and the ensuing Nile campaign; was commander-in-chief, respectively of the Channel, Mediterranean and Home Fleets. Served twenty years in parliament and was a strenuous advocate of British naval supremacy. See **WAR, PREPARATION FOR**: 1906-1909.

BERESFORD, William Carr Beresford, Viscount (1768-1854), British general. After service in several countries, he successfully reorganized the Portuguese army, and showed bravery in the Peninsular war, but was less successful as a tactician.

BERESINA, Passage of the.—The Beresina is a branch of the Dnieper river, Russia, over which Napoleon's army passed on the retreat from Moscow, Nov. 26-29, 1812. Many of his army were slain and taken prisoners. See **RUSSIA**: 1812 (October-December).

BERESTECZKO, Battle of (1651). See **POLAND**: 1648-1654.

BERG, Friedrich Wilhelm Rembert (Feodor Feodorovitch) (1793-1874), Russian general, lieu-

tenant-general of Poland, 1863-1874. See **POLAND**: 1865-1869.

BERG, formerly a duchy in the Westphalian district of the old German empire, situated on the right bank of the Rhine, now a part of the Prussian province of the Rhine in the administrative districts of Düsseldorf and Cologne. From 1108 it was a countship and in 1380 it became a duchy. With the extinction of the male lines of the houses of Jülich-Berg-Ravenberg and Cleves, into whose possession it had successively passed, it was joined to Neuburg by the treaty of Dortmund, in 1666. In 1742, it became the possession of the Sultzbach branch of the house of Wittelsbach, and upon the extinction of this line, it passed over to Maximilian Joseph of Zweibrücken (Maximilian I of Bavaria), who ceded it to Napoleon in 1806. Napoleon made it a grand-duchy (see **GERMANY**: 1813: October-December), and bestowed it upon Joachim Murat. From him it went to the son of the king of Holland, and in 1815 it was definitely transferred to Prussia by the Congress of Vienna (q. v.).

BERGAMO (ancient Bergomum) city of Lombardy, Italy, which became part of Venetian republic early in the 15th century. See **VENICE**: 1406-1447.

BERGEN, Battles of (1759 and 1799). See **GERMANY**: 1759 (April-August); **FRANCE**: 1799 (September-October).

BERGENDAL FARM, Battle of. See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1000 (June-December).

BERGEN-OP-ZOOM, a town in the Netherlands, province of North Brabant, near Antwerp. 1588.—Unsuccessfully besieged by Duke of Parma. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1588-1593.

1622.—Unsuccessful siege by the Spaniards. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1603-1625.

1914.—Received exiles from Belgium. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: f, 1.

BERGER. See **BIRGER**.

BERGER, Victor L. (1860-) American Socialist leader and editor. Editor of several Milwaukee Socialist newspapers from 1892 to early in the twentieth century; member of Congress, 1911-1913; indicted on the charge of obstructing the draft 1918, sentenced to twenty years in prison, 1919; elected to Congress 1918, but he was refused his seat; ran for Congress in 1920, defeated; 1921, United States Supreme Court reversed his conviction on the grounds that Judge Kenesaw Mountain Landis did not retire from the case after Berger had attacked him in an affidavit as prejudiced.

BERGERAC, Cyrano de, Savinien (1620-1655), French dramatist and novelist. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1600-1630.

BERGERAC, Peace of. See **FRANCE**: 1577-1578.

BERGMAN, Torbern Olof (1735-1784), Swedish chemist, experimented with carbon compounds. See **CHEMISTRY**: Analytical; **CHEMISTRY**: Organic: Defined.

BERING, Vitus (1680-1741), Danish navigator. See **ARCTIC EXPLORATION**: Chronological summary: 1728; **OREGON**: 1741-1836.

BERING SEA QUESTION.—A controversy arose in 1886 through the seizure by United States vessels of Canadian vessels engaged in the taking of seals in waters not far distant from the Aleutian islands. The claim of the United States was that it had acquired from Russia exclusive rights in Bering sea, at least with regard to seal fishing. The British government representing the Canadians denied that there could be any exclusive rights outside three miles off shore. By an agreement of February 29, 1892, the question has been sub-

mitted to arbitration, the arbitrators to give "a distinct decision" upon each of the following five points: "(1) What exclusive jurisdiction in the sea now known as the Behring's Sea, and what exclusive rights in the seal fisheries therein, did Russia assert and exercise prior and up to the time of the cession of Alaska to the United States? (2) How far were these claims of jurisdiction as to the seal fisheries recognized and conceded by Great Britain? (3) Was the body of water now known as the Behring's Sea included in the phrase 'Pacific Ocean,' as used in the treaty of 1825 between Great Britain and Russia, and what rights, if any, in the Behring's Sea, were held and exclusively exercised by Russia after said treaty? (4) Did not all the rights of Russia as to the jurisdiction and as to the seal fisheries in Behring's Sea east of the water boundary, in the treaty between the United States and Russia of the 30th of March, 1867, pass unimpaired to the United States under that treaty? (5) Has the United States any right, and if so, what right, of protection or property in the fur-seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Behring's Sea, when such seals are found outside the ordinary three-mile limit?"—*American history leaflets, no. 6.*—The arbitrators to whom these points of the question were submitted under the treaty were seven in number, as follows: Justice John M. Harlan, of the Supreme Court of the United States, and Senator John T. Morgan, of Alabama, appointed by the United States; Rt. Hon. Lord Hannan, and Sir John S. D. Thompson, prime minister of Canada, appointed by Great Britain; Senator Baron Alphonse de Courcelles, formerly French ambassador at Berlin, appointed by the French government; Senator Marquis E. Visconti Venosta, appointed by the Italian government; and Judge Mons. Gregers Gram, minister of state, appointed by the government of Sweden. The court of arbitration met at Paris, beginning its sessions on March 23, 1893. The award of the tribunal, signed on August 15, 1893, decided the five points submitted to it, as follows: (1) That Russia did not, after 1825, assert or exercise any exclusive jurisdiction in Bering sea, or any exclusive rights in the seal fisheries; (2) that no such claims on the part of Russia were recognized or conceded by England; (3) that the body of water now known as Bering sea was included in the phrase "Pacific ocean," as used in the treaty of 1825 between Great Britain and Russia, and that no exclusive rights of jurisdiction in Bering sea or as to the seal fisheries there were held or exercised by Russia after the treaty of 1825; (4) that all the rights of Russia as to jurisdiction and the seal fisheries in Bering sea east of the water boundary did pass unimpaired to the United States under the treaty of March 30, 1867; (5) that the United States has not any right of protection or property in the fur seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Bering sea, when such seals are found outside the ordinary three-mile limit. Mr. Morgan alone dissented from the decision rendered on the first and second points, and on the second division of the third point. Justice Harlan and Mr. Morgan both dissented on the fifth point. On the fourth point, and on the first division of the third, the decision was unanimous. These points of controversy disposed of, the arbitrators proceeded to prescribe the regulations which the governments of the United States and Great Britain shall enforce for the preservation of the fur seal. The regulations prescribed prohibit the killing, capture or pursuit of fur seals, at any time or in any manner, within a zone of sixty miles around the

Pribilov islands (q.v.); prohibit the same from May 1 to July 31 in all the part of the Pacific ocean, inclusive of Bering sea, which is north of 35° north latitude and eastward of the 180th degree of longitude from Greenwich till it strikes the water boundary described in article one of the treaty of 1867 between the United States and Russia; and following that line up to Bering straits; allow only sailing vessels, with licenses, to take part in fur seal fishing operations, and forbid the use of nets, firearms and explosives, except as to shot guns outside of Bering sea. As promulgated, the award bore the signatures of all the arbitrators.—*Behring sea arbitration: Letters, Times* (London).—"Several vexatious questions were left undetermined by the . . . Bering Sea Arbitration Tribunal. [See U. S. A.: 1886-1893; 1889-1892]. The application of the principles laid down by that august body has not been followed by the results they were intended to accomplish, either because the principles themselves lacked in breadth and definiteness or because their execution has been more or less imperfect. Much correspondence has been exchanged between the two Governments [of Great Britain and the United States] on the subject of preventing the exterminating slaughter of seals. The insufficiency of the British patrol of Bering Sea under the regulations agreed on by the two Governments has been pointed out, and yet only two British ships have been on police duty during this season in those waters. The need of a more effective enforcement of existing regulations as well as the adoption of such additional regulations as experience has shown to be absolutely necessary to carry out the intent of the award have been earnestly urged upon the British Government, but thus far without effective results. In the meantime the depletion of the seal herds by means of pelagic hunting [that is, in the open sea] has so alarmingly progressed that unless their slaughter is at once effectively checked their extinction within a few years seems to be a matter of absolute certainty. The understanding by which the United States was to pay and Great Britain to receive a lump sum of \$425,000 in full settlement of all British claims for damages arising from our seizure of British sealing vessels unauthorized under the award of the Paris Tribunal of Arbitration was not confirmed by the last Congress, which declined to make the necessary appropriation. I am still of the opinion that this arrangement was a judicious and advantageous one for the Government, and I earnestly recommend that it be again considered and sanctioned. If, however, this does not meet with the favor of Congress, it certainly will hardly dissent from the proposition that the Government is bound by every consideration of honor and good faith to provide for the speedy adjustment of these claims by arbitration as the only other alternative. A treaty of arbitration has therefore been agreed upon, and will be immediately laid before the Senate, so that in one of the modes suggested a final settlement may be reached."—*Message of the President of the United States to congress, Dec., 1895.*

The treaty thus referred to by the president was signed at Washington, February 8, 1896, and ratifications were exchanged at London on June 3 following. Its preamble set forth that, whereas the two governments had submitted certain questions to a tribunal of arbitration, and "whereas the High Contracting Parties having found themselves unable to agree upon a reference which should include the question of the liability of each for the injuries alleged to have been sustained by the other, or by its citizens, in connection with the

claims presented and urged by it, did, by Article VIII of the said Treaty, agree that either party might submit to the Arbitrators any questions of fact involved in said claims, and ask for a finding thereon, the question of the liability of either Government on the facts found to be the subject of further negotiation: And whereas the Agent of Great Britain did, in accordance with the provisions of said Article VIII, submit to the Tribunal of Arbitration certain findings of fact which were agreed to as proved by the Agent of the United States, and the Arbitrators did unanimously find the facts so set forth to be true, as appears by the Award of the Tribunal rendered on the 15th day of August, 1893: And whereas, in view of the said findings of fact and of the decision of the Tribunal of Arbitration concerning the jurisdictional rights of the United States in Behring Sea, and the right of protection of property of the United States in the fur-seals frequenting the islands of the United States in Behring Sea, the Government of the United States is desirous that, in so far as its liability is not already fixed and determined by the findings of fact and the decision of said Tribunal of Arbitration, the question of such liability should be definitely and fully settled and determined, and compensation made, for any injuries for which, in the contemplation of the Treaty aforesaid, and the Award and findings of the Tribunal of Arbitration, compensation may be due to Great Britain from the United States: And whereas it is claimed by Great Britain, though not admitted by the United States, that prior to the said Award certain other claims against the United States accrued in favour of Great Britain on account of seizures of or interference with the following named British sealing-vessels, to wit: the *Wanderer*, the *Winifred*, the *Henrietta*, and the *Oscar* and *Hattie*, and it is for the mutual interest and convenience of both the High Contracting Parties that the liability of the United States, if any, and the amount of compensation to be paid, if any, in respect to such claims, and each of them should also be determined under the provisions of this Convention—all claims by Great Britain under Article V of the *modus vivendi* of the 18th April, 1892, for the abstention from fishing of British sealers during the pendency of said arbitration having been definitely waived before the Tribunal of Arbitration"—therefore the two nations have concluded the convention referred to, which provides that "all claims on account of injuries sustained by persons in whose behalf Great Britain is entitled to claim compensation from the United States, and arising by virtue of the Treaty aforesaid, the Award and the findings of the said Tribunal of Arbitration, as also the additional claims specified in the 5th paragraph of the preamble hereto, shall be referred to two Commissioners, one of whom shall be appointed by Her Britannic Majesty, and the other by the President of the United States, and each of whom shall be learned in the law."—*Great Britain, parliamentary publications (papers by command: treaty series, No. 10, 1896)*.

Judges William L. Putnam, of the United States, and George E. King, of Canada, were subsequently appointed to be the two commissioners provided for in the treaty. Meantime each government had appointed a number of men of science to investigate the condition of the herds of fur-seals on Pribilof islands, President David S. Jordan, of Leland Stanford Junior University, being director of the American investigation and Professor D'Arcy W. Thompson having charge of the British. The two bodies of investigators

reached quite different conclusions. Professor Jordan, in a preliminary statement, announced: "There is still a vast body of fur seals on the islands, more than the commissioners were at first led to expect, but the number is steadily declining. The only cause of this decline is the killing of females through pelagic sealing. The females are never molested on the islands, but three-fourths of those killed in Bering sea are nursing females. The death of the mother causes the death of the young on shore, so that for every four fur seals killed at sea three pups starve to death on shore. As each of those females is also pregnant, a like number of unborn pups is likewise destroyed." His formal report, made in January, 1897, was to the same effect, and led to the following conclusion: "The ultimate end in view should be an international arrangement whereby all skins of female fur seals should be seized and destroyed by the customs authorities of civilized nations, whether taken on land or sea, from the Pribilof herd, the Asiatic herds, or in the lawless raiding of the Antarctic rookeries. In the destruction of the fur seal rookeries of the Antarctic, as well as those of the Japanese islands and of Bering sea, American enterprise has taken a leading part. It would be well for America to lead the way in stopping pelagic sealing by restraining her own citizens without waiting for the other nations. We can ask for protection with better grace when we have accorded, unasked, protection to others." The report of Professor Thompson, made three months later, agreed but partially with that of the American experts. He admitted the extensive starving of the young seals, caused by the killing of the mothers, but contended that the herd was diminishing slightly, if at all, and he did not favor drastic measures for the suppression of pelagic sealing.

The government of the United States adopted measures in accordance with the views of Professor Jordan, looking to an international regulation of the killing of seals. Hon. John W. Foster was appointed a special ambassador to negotiate arrangements to that effect. Through the efforts of Mr. Foster, an international conference on the subject was agreed to on the part of Russia and Japan, but Great Britain declined to take part. While these arrangements were pending, the American secretary of state, Mr. Sherman, addressed a letter to the American ambassador at London, Mr. Hay, criticising the conduct of the British government and its agents in terms that are not usual among diplomats, and which excited much feeling when the latter was published in July. This called out a reply from the British colonial secretary, Mr. Chamberlain, in which he wrote: "When Her Majesty's government sent their agents to inquire into the actual facts in 1896, it was found that, in spite of the large catch of 1895, the herd actually numbered more than twice as many cows as it had been officially asserted to contain in 1895. The result of these investigations, as pointed out in Lord Salisbury's dispatch of May 7, has further been to show that pelagic sealing is much less injurious than the practice pursued by the United States' lessees of killing on land every male whose skin was worth taking. If the seal herd to-day is, as Professor Jordan estimates, but one-fifth of what it was in 1872-74, that result must be, in great measure, due to the fact that, while the islands were under the control of Russia, that power was satisfied with an average catch of 33,000 seals; subsequently under the United States' control more than three times that number have been taken every year, until the

catch was, perforce, reduced because that number of males could no longer be found.

"Last year, while the United States government were pressing Her Majesty's government to place further restrictions on pelagic sealing, they found it possible to kill 30,000 seals on the islands, of which Professor Jordan says (in one place in his report) 22,000 were, to the best of his information, three-year-olds, though (in another place) he estimated the total number of three-year-old males on the islands as 15,000 to 20,000. If such exhaustive slaughter is continued, it will, in the light of the past history of the herd, very quickly bring about the commercial extermination which has been declared in the United States to be imminent every year for the last twelve years. Enough has perhaps been said to justify the refusal of Her Majesty's government to enter on a precipitate revision of the regulations." The two countries were thus being carried into serious opposition, on a matter that looks contemptible when compared with the great common interests which ought to bind them in firm friendship together. But, while the government of Great Britain declined to enter into conference with those of Russia, Japan and the United States, on general questions relating to the seals, it assented at length to a new conference with the United States and Canada, relative to the carrying out of the regulations prescribed by the Paris tribunal of 1893. Both conferences were held at Washington in October and November of 1897. The first resulted in a treaty (November 6) between Russia, Japan, and the United States, providing for a suspension of pelagic sealing during such time as might be determined by experts. The other conference led, after some interval, to the creation of a joint high commission for the settlement of all questions in dispute between the United States and Canada, the sealing question included. See CANADA: 1898-1899.

So far as concerned its own citizens, the American government adopted vigorous measures for the suppression of pelagic sealing. An act of Congress, approved by the President on December 29, 1897, forbade the killing of seals, by any citizen of the United States, in any part of the Pacific ocean north of 35 degrees north latitude. The same act prohibited the importation into the United States of sealskins taken elsewhere than in the Pribilof islands, and very strict regulations for its enforcement were issued by the treasury department. No sealskins, either in the raw or the manufactured state, might be admitted to the country, even among the personal effects of a traveller, unless accompanied by an invoice, signed by an United States consul, certifying that they were not from seals killed at sea. Skins not thus certified were seized and destroyed.

In his annual report for 1898, the United States secretary of the treasury stated that no pelagic sealing whatever had been carried on by citizens of the United States during the season past; but that thirty British vessels had been engaged in the work, against thirty-two in the previous year, and that their total catch had been 10,581, against 6,100 taken by the same fleet in 1897. The number of seals found on the islands was reported to be greatly reduced. Between 1901 and 1902 matters came to such a pass that Congress even discussed killing the entire herd at once, and thus ending the controversy. Ten years later, however, (December, 1911) a convention was held between United States, Great Britain, Russia and Japan prohibiting pelagic sealing north of thirty degrees north latitude for fifteen years.—See also FISH-

ERIES: 1910-1911; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS: 1815-1914.

BERKELEY, George (1685-1753), Irish bishop and philosopher. He is chiefly famous on account of his treatise, *Principles of Human Knowledge*, in which he expounded the subjective nature of all existence and of all seemingly external phenomena. He was appointed bishop of Cloyne in 1734.

BERKELEY, John, 1st baron of Stratton (d. 1678), British soldier and courtier granted proprietary rights in New Jersey and the Carolinas. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667; NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670; U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

BERKELEY, Sir William (c. 1608-1677), English courtier, an original member of the London Company of 1606, one of the royal commissioners of Canada. Appointed governor of Virginia in 1642 and continued in that office until 1677 except for an interval under Cromwell. Punished the leaders of Bacon's rebellion with great cruelty. Recalled in 1677. See VIRGINIA: 1650-1660; 1660-1677; NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

BERKELEY, California, city in Alameda county near the bay of San Francisco, the seat of the University of California. In 1909 it adopted the commission plan of government. In 1911, the socialist party was in administrative control. See SOCIALISM: 1901-1913.

BERKMAN, Alexander, Russian radical agitator in the United States, deported to Russia, 1919. See U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Effect of the war; 1919 (September-December).

BERLANGA, Thomas de, third bishop of Panama, first European to sight the islands of Galápagos. See GALÁPAGOS ISLANDS.

BERLIN.—The capital city of Prussia; capital of the German empire from 1871 to 1918; of the German republic since Nov. 9, 1918. Some historians derive the name *Berlin* from Wehr (dam), others from a Wend word, meaning *free or open space*, and still others from the Celtic roots *ber* (small or short) and *lyn* (lake).—"Berlin . . . is the center of a late-developed, naturally unattractive plain, poor alike in material and spiritual inheritance. The forested swamp of the North German Plain fell without the sphere of Roman influence, bounded effectively by the line of the Rhine-Danube, a line roughly coincident with the southern limits of a frozen January. . . . From Holland at the western edge of the plain came important influences working in a variety of ways; from the introduction of personal factors—notably the alliance of the Electorate of Brandenburg with the House of Orange—to Dutch help in the construction of canals. To the latter is directly due the rise of Berlin: the city is essentially a route center of the plain."—*Geographical Review*, May, 1917.—"On the whole Berlin is less representative of Germany than are most capitals of their respective countries. . . . One sees here the worst results of the demoralization caused by prosperity. . . . To some extent Berlin is also representative of the best in Germany, though less so than some other capitals . . . it absorbs less of the intellectual life of the nation than they do, and it has no traditions; neither is it the seat of such a strenuous commercial activity as great sea-ports, like New York and London. But it does represent the most complete application of science, order and method—preeminently German qualities—to public life. It is a marvel of civic administration, the most modern and the most perfectly organized city that there is."—A. Shadwell, *Industrial efficiency*, pp. 158-159.

General survey.—Area.—Population.—Industries.—Commercial equipment.—Terminals.—Industrial schools.—Berlin occupies an area of about 29 square miles, and in 1919 had a population of 1,902,509. "The city is thoroughly modern and cosmopolitan. Over half of her population are engaged in industries embracing almost all branches. Among these the metal-working industries are very important, especially the manufacture of machinery and electrical goods. The breweries rival those of Munich in extent."—*United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 19, 1913, p. 96.*—"Terminal arrangements at Berlin are magnificent; and the whole movement of traffic, both freight and passenger, is facilitated to a remarkable degree by the *stadtbahn* or municipal railroad, crossing the city from east to west, and the *ringbahn*, an encircling railway operated in conjunction with the *stadtbahn*. These connect with all the lines that come to Berlin, and assist in the collection, distribution, and transfer of freightage. . . . At Berlin, the most casual observer can hardly fail to notice the marvelous use that is made for purposes of commercial navigation of the narrow river Spree. It has been well dredged out, is held in a controllable channel by magnificent stone embankments extending for a number of miles on both sides of the river, and has, below the high quays, broad and convenient stone landings all along the water-edge. The quantity of freight barged at cheap rates from point to point in the city by means of the Spree is enormous; and the city streets are thus greatly relieved. Moreover, the Spree connects with a system of canals penetrating the country in every direction, and carrying enormous quantities of heavy ware such as building materials."—A. Shaw, *Municipal government in continental Europe* (1903), pp. 303-304.—"The city possesses an elaborate system of industrial schools, many of them having attained their present form in comparatively recent years. In 1905 the administration of all the industrial and improvement schools was placed under a newly established commission for the city trade and improvement schools. The city system of industrial schools includes: (1) Voluntary improvement schools (chiefly commercial); (2) compulsory improvement schools; (3) trade schools for apprentices; and (4) middle (*höhere*) trade schools. The great Royal Technical High School is located in Charlottenburg, a suburb contiguous with Berlin. This great institution, specializing in research in applied science, and attended in 1909-10 by some 5,300 students from all parts of the civilized world, represents, with its fellows in other parts of Germany, the pinnacle of German industrial education. . . . The voluntary improvement schools, of which there were 33 in 1909-10, are open, some to boys, some to girls, and some to those of both sexes. They are chiefly commercial in nature, and some wholly so. A few have industrial and housekeeping courses for girls, such as design drawing for tailors and for lingerie sewing, repairing, ironing, machine sewing and machine embroidery, tailoring, and millinery. Attendance on these voluntary improvement schools does not free from the obligation to attend a compulsory improvement school, where such obligation exists. The compulsory improvement schools (*Pflichtfortbildungsschulen*) are 10 in number and have their headquarters in as many chief buildings scattered through the city, though spreading over freely into the common school and other buildings where necessary. . . . The subjects of instruction are three: German, arithmetic, and drawing. There are no

workshops in these schools. The pupils, all of whom are apprentices or unskilled boy workers, are grouped in classes according to their trades. . . . As a concession or adaptation to practical needs, the German and arithmetic were specialized, and applied to industrial needs, and drawing was introduced. . . . More closely adapted to specific industrial needs in different trades is a large group of trade schools for apprentices. These schools are quite various in their nature and the sources from which they are supported. Eight of those existing in 1909-10 were supported by the city, the State, and by guilds, associations, and others interested. . . . The largest of these apprentice trade schools is the Trade School for Book Printers (*Die Fachschule für Buchdrucker*), founded in 1875. . . . Another group of trade schools are the higher trade schools with classes for both journeymen and apprentices. These include: the Hall of Industries (*Der Gewerbesaal*) and the Second Handworkers' School (*Die Zweite Handwerkerschule*), supported wholly by the city; the First Handworkers' School (*Die Erste Handwerkerschule*), and the Building Trades School (*Die Baugewerkschule*), supported by the city and State jointly; the City Higher Textile School (*Die Städtische Höhere Webeschule*), supported by city, State, guilds, associations, and interested individuals; and the Berlin Cabinetmakers' School (*Die Berliner Tischlerschule*), supported by the city and by two guilds. Of these schools, two, the Hall of Industries and the Berlin Cabinetmakers' School, have, besides day classes for journeymen, seven branch Sunday and evening schools each throughout the city. . . . The chamber of industry has established a number of both theoretical and practical master courses for its district of Berlin and environs. Twenty-four bookkeeping courses were held in 1900-10, of 30 hours total length each. A course was opened whenever 20 participants offered themselves; masters and journeymen and also wives and daughters of masters were admitted. . . . Looking over the Berlin industrial schools as a whole, we see that here, as elsewhere in Germany, industrial education does not shorten the period of apprenticeship, except in so far as (chiefly from the standpoint of the employer) the taking out of time for the school work may be said to do so. Generally speaking, the schools increase the interest of the pupils in their work, but this does not apply to all pupils, for in the compulsory-improvement schools many of the pupils are not there from choice and are lazy and indifferent."—*United States Bureau of Education Bulletin, No. 19 (1913), pp. 96-106.*—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments; Vocational education: Trade school development in Europe.

13th-16th centuries.—Origin and early history.—The time of Berlin's foundation has not been definitely established. The predominant opinion seems to be that its existence dates from the days of Otto III and John I. Originally it consisted of two towns, Kölln and Berlin, which are first mentioned in documents of the thirteenth century. After two unsuccessful attempts, one in 1307 and another in 1432, the two towns were definitely united in 1448 into one city, which became the residence of the ruling margraves of Brandenburg. Since the year 1530, the history of Berlin is bound up with that of the house of Hohenzollern.

1631.—Forcible entry of Gustavus Adolphus. See GERMANY: 1630-1631.

1675.—Threatened by the Swedes. See BRANDENBURG: 1630-1688.

1693-1699.—Public charities. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1693-1699.

1757-1806.—Austrian and Russian attacks.—French occupation.—During the Seven Years' War Berlin was attacked and plundered by the Austrians in 1757, and by the Russians in 1760, and in both cases it had to pay a heavy ransom. After the battle of Jena in 1806, when the whole of the Brandenburg possessions were conquered by Napoleon, Berlin was occupied by the French.—See also GERMANY: 1757 (July-December; 1760); and 1806 (October).

1848.—Disorders during the reform movement.—The reform movement which swept over Germany led to a riot in Berlin, which lasted a week, and was finally suppressed by troops on March 15. Three days later, when the cheers of the people, responding to the announcement of the demanded reforms, were mistaken for rioting, another encounter between the people and soldiers took place. The disorders still continued during the election of the Prussian National Assembly, which was dissolved on December 15.—See also GERMANY: 1848 (March); 1848-1850.

1861-1903.—Municipal progress under Emperor William I.—Expansion after 1870.—Municipal improvements.—The foreign attacks and invasions retarded considerably the growth of Berlin. Its "new era of municipal progress may be said to date from 1861. In that year it annexed considerable suburban territory. The old city walls were torn down to give free communication with the new quarters. The Emperor William [I] came to the Prussian throne in 1861, and his accession marked the beginning of a liberal policy on the part of the State toward the city of Berlin. The new *Rathhaus* (City Hall) was begun in that year. . . . The successive wars and Prussian victories of 1864, 1866, and 1870-71, ending with the formation of the German Empire and the designation of Berlin as its capital, enormously stimulated the municipal life. A policy of bold initiative was entered upon. Boulevards were constructed, and the new suburbs were handsomely laid out. . . . The . . . municipality acquired from the general government in 1874 the control of the streets, and set about reforming them. It entered upon projects of widening and straightening lines of main thoroughfare, and of laying good pavements. The process has gone on steadily to this day, with magnificent results. The city acquired control of the shallow and sluggish Spree, embanked it with massive walls, flanked it with broad stone quays, dredged it for heavy traffic, and replaced its old wooden bridges with modern structures of stone and steel. In 1873 the municipality had acquired control of the water-supply, and had at once proceeded to create a new and improved system. It . . . also proceeded in the interest of public health to create a great series of sanitary institutions, including municipal slaughter-houses and market halls, hospitals for infectious diseases, unified arrangements for public and private cleansing, and systematic inspection of food, houses, and all conditions affecting the public health (q.v.) The beginning of the municipal gas manufacture had dated from about 1870, and the success of the experiment had led to very great enlargements in 1875. Meanwhile, education had been municipalized with an energy and thoroughness perhaps unprecedented anywhere. Manufactures and railways had been encouraged, and technical and practical education had been so arranged as to promote Berlin's development as a center of industry. Parks, recreation-grounds, and gymnastic establishments were provided for the people. Housing was at length brought under municipal regulations of a very strict character,

in the interest of the working masses; and an excellent and comprehensive system of street-railways was devised,—under municipal inspiration, though under private management,—for the better facilitation of local transit and the wider distribution of the rapidly growing population. . . . When the Berlin authorities decided to establish a metropolitan water-supply, they also determined upon another and still greater undertaking. . . . Good drainage was as necessary as good water, and the discharge of unpurified sewage into the Spree as a permanent system was out of the question. . . . Berlin wisely adopted the better plan of natural purification by the irrigating of land. Immense research was bestowed upon the subject, with the result that the Berlin drainage is the most perfect in the world and is unquestionably that city's most notable achievement in municipal housekeeping, so far as physical forms and conditions are concerned. . . . Excepting for some thinly populated outskirts . . . all the houses of Berlin are now connected with the new drainage-works, which are carrying annually from 60,000,000 to 70,000,000 cubic meters of sewage to be distributed by scientific irrigation over the surface of the municipal farms having an aggregate extent of more than twenty thousand acres, or upwards of thirty square miles. Additional land has been bought from time to time."—A. Shaw, *Municipal government in continental Europe* (1903), excerpts from pp. 333-338.—See also CITY PLANNING; and MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: German municipal ownership.

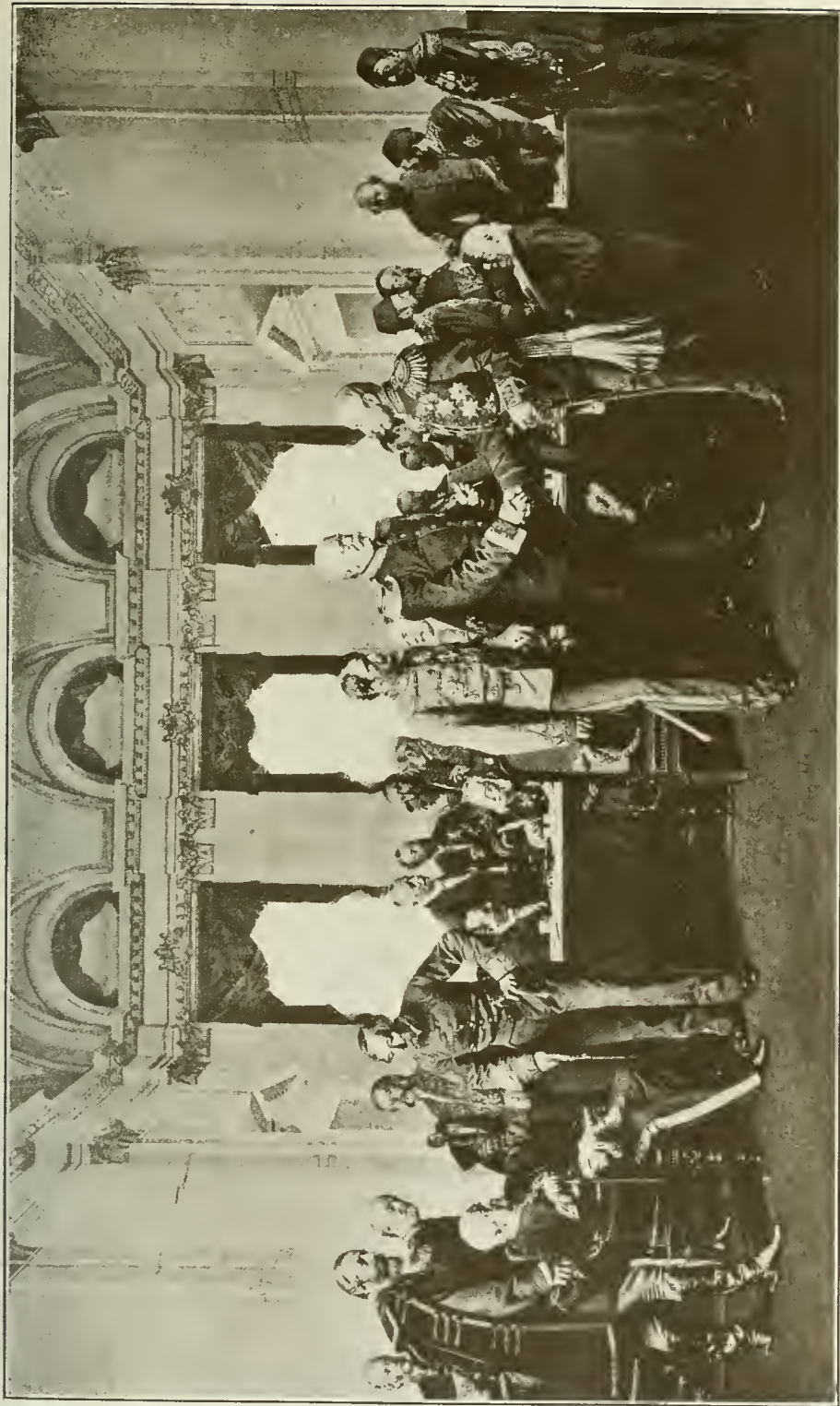
1870-1919.—Growth shown by the census of 1871, 1895, 1900, 1905 and 1912.—Decline during the World War.—"One hundred years ago, Berlin had 160,000 inhabitants. . . . The first census taken under the Empire, December 1, 1871, found Berlin with 825,380 inhabitants." . . . In 1900 its population amounted to 1,884,345; "so that its increase during the past thirty years has been 1,058,956, or considerably more than 100 per cent." The figures for 1900 do not include the population of the suburbs, which "are inhabited by people who do business exclusively in Berlin. Including these suburbs, Berlin would have a population of more than 2,500,000 souls," as against 1,677,304 in 1895.—Based upon *Consular Reports*, No. 246, Mar., 1901.—In 1905, Berlin had "a population of about two millions, which in 1912 had been increased by the annexation of suburbs to three and one-half millions."—*United States Bureau of Education Bulletin*, No. 10, 1913.—The official figures for the population of Berlin in 1919, given as 1,902,509 as against 2,071,257 in 1910, show a decline during the World War.

1884.—Conference of Great Powers over affairs in Africa. See BERLIN ACT.

1896.—Industrial exposition.—An exposition of German industries and products was opened at Berlin, May 1, 1896, which excited wide interest and had an important stimulating effect in Germany.

1901.—The Berlin and Stettin Ship Canal. See GERMANY: 1001 (January).

1910-1912.—International exhibition.—Museum of German industry.—In connection with Berlin's studies of city housing, in 1910 an international exhibition took place, at which architects, artists, and city experts of a number of countries presented plans for a comprehensive street and building system. In 1912, a museum of German industry was founded in Berlin for the purpose of keeping the general public informed of the trend and achievements of engineering. By means of photographs, cinematograph films, and artistic reproductions, various phases of modern industry, such as operations in ship-yards, textile mills,



CONGRESS OF BERLIN, 1878

(From a painting by Anton von Werner)

The above figures, from left to right, are: Baron Haymerle, Count Karolyi, Count Launay, Prince Gortschakoff, Waddington, Lord Beaconsfield, von Radowitz, Prince Hohenlohe, Count Corti, Count Mouy, Count St. Vallier, Baron Ouhri, Desprez, Count Andrassy, Lothar Buchar, Prince Bismarck, von Holstein, Dr. Busch, Count Herbert Bismarck, Count Schawaloff, Sadullah Bey, Lord Odo Russell, von Bulow, Lord Salisbury, Karatheodori Pasha, Mehemet Ali Pasha. The dominating figures were Beaconsfield and Salisbury (British), Bismarck, Hohenlohe, and von Bulow (German), Andrassy and Karolyi (Austrian), Gortschakoff (Russian), St. Vallier (French), and Mehemet Ali Pasha (Turkish).



ceramic and metallurgical works, or the latest mechanical installations on farms, are exhibited.

1910-1917.—**Housing conditions.**—"Despite the proclamations issued on this side of the Atlantic that German cities have no slums, German cities apparently do have slums, or slum conditions, such as lack of light and air, overcrowding and utterly inadequate toilet facilities. A committee of the Berlin Sick Insurance Fund for 'merchants, tradesmen and pharmacists' publishes reports which give a distressing picture of the housing of what is far from being the poorest or worst-paid class of Berlin's population. . . . In 1910, the committee reports . . . , 115 persons of both sexes lived in rooms which had no window, 443 lived in damp rooms, and 1,452 had to share their conveniences with more than fifteen persons in each case."—J. Ihlder, *Slums in Berlin (Survey, Dec. 17, 1910)*.—"The report on the investigations for 1917 . . . gives a number of statistics, showing clearly the congested state of living conditions in Berlin, the consequent increase in deaths from tuberculosis, the inadequate sanitary conditions, and the lack of beds, it having been found that in many cases sick people were obliged to share a bed with others."—*Vorwärts*, Sept. 11, 1918 (quoted by the *Economic Supplement to the Review of the Foreign Press*, Oct. 15, 1918).—According to the *Sociale Praxis* of March 28, 1918, Dr. Kuczynski, director of the statistical office at Schöneberg, expected a shortage of at least 60,000 houses during the first peace years.—See also HOUSING: Germany.

1914.—**Effect of British declaration of war.** See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 64.

1915.—**Municipalization of the Berlin electric works.**—"On April 18th of this year the city council of Berlin voted a sum of not to exceed one hundred and thirty million marks for the purchase of the Berlin Electric Works. . . . According to the franchise under which the electric company operated, the city was empowered to purchase the plant on October 15th of the present year. . . . During the thirty years of private operation . . . no fewer than four important franchise changes were made. Yet in spite of all the concessions granted by the company the conviction constantly gained ground at the Rathaus that only by municipal ownership and operation could the best results for the city be secured." For the management of the acquired electric works "the usual *deputation* is provided, consisting in this case of four members of the *magistrat*, six councilmen, and two citizen deputies. It is to have supervision over the operations of a *direktion* [management], but the latter, which is composed of experts, is to have full administration power over the plant under all ordinary conditions. . . . As an administrative proposition the whole matter resolves itself into this, that in undertaking the operation of its new property the city of Berlin has decided to entrust an unusual amount of power to an expert organ, and to curtail accordingly the powers of local self-governing organs. Owing to this novel method of control, the financial and technical magnitude of the experiment . . . the future experience of Berlin as a producer and seller of electricity should be of unusual interest."—*Quarterly Journal of Economics*, Nov., 1915, pp. 188-194.

1916.—**Construction of a new subway.**—To relieve traffic congestion on the Friedrichstrasse, a north-to-south subway transit line is under construction. The length of the main road, which will extend from the Müllerstrasse, at the intersection of the Ungarnstrasse, to the Gneisenaustrasse, will be about four and three-quarters miles. It will

run underground for its entire length, passing through a tunnel under the Spree river and the Landwehr canal. By a later project, the line is to be extended another mile and three-quarters in a southerly direction. It will further be connected with the underground railway to be constructed in Neuköln, a suburb south of Berlin.

1919.—**Labor unrest.— Strikes.— Unemployment.—Government relief measures.**—The year was marked by general labor unrest. On April 2, a strike of about 30,000 mechanics and clerks in a number of works connected with the metal industry, was announced. On April 9, the employees of all the Berlin banks, except two, went on strike. On June 27, 3000 or 4000 railway workers of the Grünewald workshops quit work. It was also a time of unemployment. Due to the shortage of coal and general unfavorable conditions, factories closed down, and the number of persons out of work in greater Berlin was estimated at nearly 400,000. To ameliorate conditions the Berlin city council made an appropriation of 160,000,000 marks and was spending about 1,000,000 marks a day. ". . . The Ministry of Agriculture . . . created a Labour Exchange for the Board of Agriculture, which will deal with the absorption of this superfluous labour in agriculture and forestry without undue delay, and under suitable conditions."—*Kölnische Zeitung*, Dec. 27, 1918 (quoted by *Economic Supplement to the Review of the Foreign Press*, Jan. 29, 1919).

1919 (January).—Spartacist movement. See GERMANY: 1918-1919 (December-January).

1919 (February).—Parliament moved from Berlin to Weimar. See GERMANY: 1919 (January-June).

1920 (January).—Under martial law. See GERMANY: 1920 (January).

1920 (April).—**Communal revolt.**—During the communal revolt, an attempt was made to blow up public buildings, factories, banks in Berlin and the Victory Column. On the night of March 31 an effort to destroy the bridges was frustrated by the police.—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1920.

1921 (July).—**Electricians' strike.**—Complete suspension of street car and electric light service was caused on July 12 by a strike of electricians, which was settled the following day.

Royal Academy of Fine Arts.—See EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: Germany.

Royal library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Germany.

School of music. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1900.

University. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1906.

BERLIN, Congress of.—Held June 13, 1878.—Treaty signed July 13.—"The Congress of Berlin was called to regulate the thorniest and most dangerous question in the whole range of European politics—the Eastern Question; and that at the end of the worst cataclysm which that question had yet produced. Its task was the more delicate because, unlike the preceding congresses, it was not convoked at the close of a general European war, which left one or more of the great Powers defeated and begging for peace, and the rest of them exhausted by their exertions and therefore inclined to compromise. In 1878 the only one of the great Powers that had just been at war, emerged from the contest flushed with triumph; the other great Powers appeared at the Congress with their strength fresh and unimpaired, and several of them were armed and in no mood for tame submission. The Congress of Berlin was called,

therefore, not so much to end one war as to avert another. Its office was to dictate terms to the victors rather than to the vanquished. It is notable as the only occasion in the nineteenth century when the Concert of the Powers has been strong enough to bring a victorious belligerent to the bar of Europe and oblige him to submit the results of his victory to the judgment and revision of a congress [see also CONCERT OF EUROPE]. As an affirmation of the solidarity of Europe, of the principle that important changes in Europe are matters of European concern and not to be effected without the sanction of Europe, the Congress of Berlin is a unique and striking phenomenon. But as a demonstration that the councils of united Europe are inspired with wisdom, justice, or even common sense, the events of 1878 are not so gratifying. Even more than its predecessors, the Congress of Berlin has left a dubious reputation. On the one hand, its work has been lauded as the wisest diplomatic transaction of modern times; but, on the other hand, it has been said that 'no diplomatic performance has ever resulted in such general dissatisfaction. . . .' Even before the Treaty of San Stefano—before the outbreak of the war, in fact—Russia had repeatedly promised that the definitive settlement of all questions of general European interest arising out of the war should be effected with the participation of all the Powers. When Austria, in February, 1878, proposed that this participation should take the form of a conference, the Tsar readily assented. Soon afterwards it was agreed that in order to lend greater solemnity to the proceedings, the assembly should be raised to the dignity of a congress; all the Powers were to be represented by their leading ministers; and the place of meeting was fixed at Berlin, as the seat of a government assumed to be disinterested and impartial. But it was impossible to go into the Congress without a preliminary agreement among the Powers as to the basis and nature of the work to be done there. . . . In 1878 the meeting of the Congress was very nearly prevented by the difficulties that arose in the way of such a preliminary understanding. The fundamental question was whether the task of the future Congress should be to confirm and complete the solution of the Eastern Question outlined at San Stefano, or whether it should undertake to tear up that treaty and to 'annihilate the results of the war.' The latter course would doubtless have suited the wishes of England and Austria. For, unfortunately, the British government was still obsessed with the traditional chimæra of maintaining the independence and integrity of Turkey, not, indeed, for love of the Turks, but because the vital needs of the British empire were supposed to require it. The court of Vienna was eager to make acquisitions without having done anything to deserve them, and also ambitious to substitute itself for Russia as the dominant Power in the Balkans. Hence for three months the meeting of the Congress was postponed, and the peace of Europe seemed to tremble in the balance, while England, Austria, and Russia were diplomatically fencing, trying each other out to see how far each would go in defence of his particular standpoint. How serious the danger of war was, it is difficult to estimate, for undoubtedly there was a good deal of 'bluffing' on all sides. At any rate, it was Russia who first showed signs of weakening. Exhausted by the unexpectedly arduous struggle she had just undergone, ill-prepared to risk a new war in which she would presumably have found England, Austria, Turkey, and Rumania arrayed against her, disappointed, too, in the hope of re-

ceiving any effective support from Germany—despite the assurances of undying gratitude and unstinted devotion which Bismarck and his master had so often lavished upon the Tsar—Russia at length turned to her principal opponent, England, with the offer to sacrifice a large part of the Treaty of San Stefano. The outcome of the negotiation was the three secret Anglo-Russian conventions, signed at London on May 30, which contained the most important features of the latter Treaty of Berlin. It was to the credit of both sides that each had made large concessions; it was not so creditable, however, that they sought to keep their agreements from the knowledge of the other cabinets (save Germany). If it was essential to the success of the Congress that the two states principally interested should come to a working agreement in advance, it was at least highly desirable that the discussions of the Congress should not be turned into a farce, and the other Powers led into grave miscalculations or suspicions, by sham debates over questions already clandestinely decided. But this did not exhaust the precautions of Lord Beaconsfield's secret diplomacy. As a corrective to the concessions just made to Russia, the London cabinet pushed through the secret convention of Constantinople (June 4), which provided for a perpetual Anglo-Turkish alliance for the defence of the Asiatic possessions of the Porte, assigned to England the island of Cyprus as an immediate reward for her future services, and bound the Sultan, in agreement with England, to make the necessary reforms in his Asiatic provinces. On June 6 another secret convention was concluded between Great Britain and Austria, by which the latter promised to support England at the Congress in the Bulgarian question, while England, in return, agreed to uphold any proposition Austria might make with regard to Bosnia and the Herzegovina. The court of Vienna had also taken its precautions in other quarters. It had made sure that neither France nor Russia would oppose its designs upon these two provinces; and as for Bismarck, if he did not originally suggest this acquisition to Austria, at least, for two years back, he had never ceased to urge her to seize these provinces without ceremony.

"The main obstacles having been cleared away by this extraordinary series of ententes and conventions, early in June Bismarck sent out to the Powers who had signed the Treaty of Paris the invitation to meet in congress to submit the work of San Stefano to free discussion and the necessary revision. France had already laid down the condition, which had been accepted by the other Powers, that the Congress should take up only those questions which arose directly and naturally out of the late war. The object of this reservation, of course, was to exclude from discussion questions regarding certain outlying provinces of Turkey, such as Egypt, Syria, or Tunis, whose status France did not desire to see altered at that time. The Congress met at Berlin on June 13. None of its predecessors, not even the Congress of Vienna, had brought together a more illustrious company of statesmen. Turkey, indeed, was unfortunate in her spokesmen—a Greek, a renegade, and an imbecile,' Bismarck rudely characterized them—but it made little difference, for they had been summoned to the Congress only to sign away provinces. M. Waddington and Count Corti, the first plenipotentiaries of France and Italy respectively, earned general respect and confidence by their reasonableness, tact, and a perhaps undiplomatic honesty. A much more important rôle was reserved for Count Andrassy, the Austrian foreign

minister; a striking figure and a master of the more occult arts of diplomacy. The leading antagonists in the impending battles, however, were the representatives of Russia and England. The first plenipotentiary of Russia was the octogenarian chancellor, Prince Gorchakov. . . . The hardest part of the work of the Russian mission naturally devolved upon the second plenipotentiary, Count Shuvalov, a handsome, brilliant, and immensely active diplomatist, whose conciliatory spirit and readiness to make concessions were largely responsible for the success of the Congress. On the English side, Lord Salisbury played much the same rôle as Shuvalov: Lord Beaconsfield was the worthy counterpart of Gorchakov. . . . But the dominating figure at the Congress was Bismarck, its president. . . . He drove the Congress along by strokes of the whip, as the brow-beaten Turks related. Doubtless a slower procedure would have led to a less superficial settlement. . . . The assembly of 1878 passed off almost unnoticed by the Berliners; and the only visitors who came, apart from the tribe of 'special correspondents,' were the representatives of the downtrodden or the newly emancipated races of the East and the agents of various other deserving 'causes.' Among the latter one may note the delegates of the *Alliance israélite*, who had come to plead the cause of their oppressed kinsmen in the Balkans, and to whose exertions the so-called 'Liberty of Conscience' articles in the Treaty of Berlin were largely due. A committee of the Peace Society also appeared to lay before the Congress the question of international arbitration. Bismarck decorously promised to bring their petition to the attention of the high assembly—and, of course, nothing more was heard of the matter. . . . Although the most elementary rules of justice would seem to have required that the representatives of those Christian states whose vital interests were at stake should participate in the Congress with at least deliberative voice, nevertheless that privilege was denied to them. The delegates of Serbia and Montenegro were not even allowed to enter the assembly to state their case. The Greek and Rumanian envoys were privileged to set forth their national aspirations briefly before the Congress; but it was understood that they were to be 'entendus, mais pas écoutés,' and it is recorded that while the Greeks were pleading the cause of their country, 'Beaconsfield, Salisbury, and Waddington slept the sleep of the just.' . . . The Treaty of San Stefano served as the basis of the discussions. All the more contentious questions were settled outside the Congress at private meetings—usually meetings between the plenipotentiaries of England, Russia, and Austria, with whom Bismarck kept in close touch. Ordinarily the formal sessions of the Congress served chiefly to register and sanction what had been decided upon outside. . . . Most of the Powers were sincerely anxious for peace. Europe was wearied of the incessant wars of the past generation, and in this respect, if in no other, the assembly admirably reflected the wishes of the public. But keeping peace meant that the Congress had to proceed by what the newspapers called 'courageous compromises,' i. e., bargains in which the rights of the various races of the East were regularly sacrificed to the ambitions or the alleged interests of the great Powers. In the midst of these sordid transactions, considerations of principle, justice, and consistency were lost from sight. Although the expediency of reconstructing the map of the Balkans along national lines was admitted by everyone when it suited his purpose, still that principle had to give way whenever 'po-

litical' or 'strategic' or 'commercial' interests of the great Powers could be adduced against it. Lord Beaconsfield and Count Andrassy insisted on splitting the Bulgarian nation into three parts in order to ensure the existence of a strong Turkey. The same statesmen then tore away from the Porte three provinces (Cyprus, Bosnia, and the Herzegovina) which the Peace of San Stefano had left to it, with the brazen explanation that they hoped thereby to strengthen Turkey by assisting her to 'concentrate and condense' her resources. But when the Greeks presented themselves with the request that they too might be allowed to help in this new method of invigorating Turkey, Lord Beaconsfield informed them that they had utterly mistaken the purpose of the Congress: they seemed to imagine that it was to partition the Ottoman empire, while nothing was further from the thoughts of the high assembly. In short, the principles invoked varied incessantly with the needs of the moment. At this Congress, as at earlier ones, it was the interests of the great Powers that took precedence over every other consideration. . . . The treaty which crowned the labors of the Congress was signed on July 13. . . . In the numerous and sometimes extravagant eulogies that have been showered upon this assembly, its claims to the gratitude of the world are usually based upon the following arguments. (1) The Congress averted a disastrous European war. (2) By sanctioning the independence of Rumania, Serbia, and Montenegro, and the autonomy of Bulgaria, and by according appropriate extensions of territory to all the Christian Balkan states, the Congress gave recognition to the principle of nationality as none of its predecessors had done; it satisfied the essential interests of all the states and races of the peninsula, and opened up a bright new era in their history. (3) Forsaking the traditions of most previous treaties, the Congress embodied in the public law of Europe the principle that the Sultan was under pledge to the great Powers in respect to the good government of all the dominions that remained to him. (4) By imposing the principle of complete religious freedom and religious equality upon the Balkan states, the assembly performed a great act of justice, and earned the title of 'the Liberty of Conscience Congress.' All of this is in a measure true, but for a correct appreciation of the Congress it is necessary to point out that nearly all the commendable provisions of the Treaty of Berlin come straight from the Treaty of San Stefano. The diplomats at Berlin improved upon the Russian treaty in only two important respects: (1) in securing for all the Powers, instead of for Russia alone, the right of watching over, and assisting in, the execution of the new arrangements in the Balkans; (2) in imposing, with greater emphasis and with stronger guarantees, the principle of religious liberty."—R. H. Lord, *Congress of Berlin*, pp. 47-64.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1866-1914; BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA: 1878; BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties promoting expansion: 1878; BULGARIA: 1875-1878; 1878-1886; CRETE: 10th-20th centuries; EUROPE: Modern Period: Wars of the Great Powers: (1848-1876); GREECE: 1862-1881; JUGOSLAVIA: 1868-1917; RUMANIA: 1866-1914; 1875-1881; SERBIA: 1875-1878; TURKEY: 1878.

BERLIN ACT.—International Conference at Berlin (1884-1885).—General Act signed Feb. 26, 1885.—"The Berlin Act was drawn up by the International Conference which met at Berlin under the presidency of Prince Bismarck, November 15, 1884. What then was the genesis of the Conference and its object? Its object is

clearly set out in the invitations sent out by Germany and France to the other Powers—to discuss (1) freedom of commerce in the basin and mouths of the Congo; (2) the application to the Congo and the Niger of the principles adopted by the Congress of Vienna with a view to preserving freedom of navigation on certain international rivers, principles applied later to the Danube; and (3) a definition of the formalities necessary to be observed so that new occupations on the African coast should be deemed effective. The summoning of the Conference was due to the jealousies and disputes among the Powers interested in the development and colonization of the vast regions in Central Africa, and notably in the immense basin watered by the Congo and its affluents, which recent geographical discoveries had made known to the world. By far the largest part of these discoveries had been made by British explorers. Baker, Burton, Speke, Grant and Livingstone, were the discoverers of the Great Lakes; Livingstone, Cameron, and the Anglo-American Stanley, of the basin of the Congo. The estuary and lower reaches of the Congo had previously been surveyed and explored by British naval officers under instructions from the Admiralty. On the ground of discovery Great Britain, therefore, had the first claim to territorial occupation of the Congo basin. But the British Government turned a deaf ear to Stanley's letters urging the importance of the Congo, politically and commercially, as the future highway of trade in West Central Africa. The British Government had no desire for further territorial expansions in the tropics at a time when it had to deal with a succession of troublesome questions in the Near East, in Egypt and in Afghanistan. The international situation in Europe was far too critical for running any risk of West African entanglements. It was in these circumstances that Stanley entered the service of the King of the Belgians, whose cherished ambition for some colonial aggrandisement saw a prospect of realization in the Congo basin. He had to step warily, but his cleverness, tact and shrewdness were more than equal to the task, which he had set before him of outwitting the ablest and most astute statesmen of Europe. Dr. Keith has given an admirable and unprejudiced narrative of the tortuous diplomacy by which, under the cover of humanitarian sentiments and enlightened philanthropy, Leopold II. achieved his purpose. Dr. Keith does not believe it possible that he should have had the prescience to foresee from the beginning the ultimate results of his daring policy of African adventure; but he is probably right in his deliberate opinion that personal ambition, not necessarily an unworthy one, to play a more leading part in the politics of the world than was possible for the constitutional Sovereign of a small neutralized State, dominated the King's actions from the time of the formation of the African International Association, at Brussels, in 1876, under his presidency, until the meeting of the Berlin Conference in November, 1884. Twelve European States sent representatives to the Conference, as did also the United States of America. The result of the Conference was the drawing up of the General Act [Feb. 26, 1885], which Dr. Keith wishes to see revised, and the recognition by the signatory Powers of the formation of a Congo Independent State under the flag of the Association. The King, on his part, notified the accession of the Association to the Act, acting in his personal capacity as founder of the Association. The United States, it should be noted, though its representatives took a leading part in drawing up the Berlin Act, did not ratify it. Dr. Keith

rightly points out, however, that the new State did not obtain in law its sovereign position by international agreement at Berlin, but that its juristic existence was due to the subsequent separate recognition accorded by each of the Powers, including America. Great Britain made the special reservation in its recognition of the Association that British Consular Officers should be entitled to hold Consular Courts and to exercise civil and criminal jurisdiction over British subjects in the Congo according to English law. By the most-favoured-nation clause all the other States acquired the same privilege of jurisdiction over their nationals.

"The Berlin Act has practically been a dead letter from 1885 to the present day. This is clearly brought out in Dr. Keith's narrative. The Association is never mentioned after the assumption by the King of absolute sovereignty in his own person of the Congo territory, covering 900,000 square miles. Free trade was never established; no International Commission to watch over the execution of the provisions of the Act was ever appointed; the neutralization of the State never took place; monopolies in matters of trade were freely granted to concessionary companies; Protestant missions were not placed on a footing of equality with Catholic missions; large areas, under the names of *domaine privé* and *domaine de la Couronne*, were closed to foreigners. One of the chief objects for which the Congo Independent State was founded—(Berlin Act, Art. VI.) 'to watch over the preservation of the native tribes and to care for the improvement of their moral and material well-being'—was not merely neglected, but was replaced by a deliberate policy of exploitation of the natives in the interests of commercial gain. The missionary and explorer, George Grenfell, and the findings of the Belgian Committee appointed by the King himself to investigate the truth of the accusations that were made against the character of his administration of the vast territory over which he exercised arbitrary rule substantiated the accusations in many respects. Such being the history of the foundation and early development of the Congo State, according to the clear and admirable account given by Dr. Keith in this volume, it seems idle to suggest that the Berlin Act is still alive or capable of amendment. The greater part of the provisions of that Act were actually still-born, and others such as Article XXV, which declares—'the provisions of the present Act of Navigation shall remain in force in time of war. Consequently all nations, whether neutral or belligerent, shall be always free, for the purposes of trade, to navigate the Congo, its branches, affluents, &c.,' are, on the face of them, unrealizable and impossible. It must be said, however, for Dr. Keith that, although his preface is dated September, 1918, he has written about the future of Central Africa from a point of view that is already obsolete. In his introduction he is still doubtful, as to whether Germany will not issue victoriously from the war and still ignorant as to whether her former colonial possessions will not be restored to German rule. He has confessed this for he has added a note, page 301, in which he says, 'Since this work was written the Peace Conference has decided upon the application of the system of mandate to the territorial possessions of Germany outside Europe, but the fundamental question of the revision and extension of the Berlin Act remains untouched, and its solution will be one of the most pressing duties of any League of Nations!' Ought it not rather to be said that a new set of regulations for

the government and administration of native races in Central Africa and other tropical and sub-tropical colonies should be drawn up by the general assent of the Powers who form the League of Nations, but that in doing so the Berlin Act should be regarded, not as a model, but rather as a conspicuous example of the futility of provisions which, however irreproachable in sentiment, cannot be enforced in practice? Dr. Keith, in his strong condemnation of the abuses of King Leopold's autocratic rule, has not failed to do full justice to that monarch's extraordinary energy and strength of will, versatile capacity for affairs, and financial skill. Explorations have been pressed forward, communications opened out, and the necessary funds provided for carrying them out. Perhaps the most striking proof of the King's remarkable personal influence has been shown in his success in converting Belgian indifference to his colonial enterprise into active interest and financial support. The Belgians had never been a maritime people, had never possessed a colony and had no colonizing instincts; and yet we find them accepting willingly the King's bequest of the great Congo dominion which he had created, and whose administrative reform and material development, as a Belgian colony, have been since 1908 carried on with notable ardour and no small measure of success. Whether legally the King had any right to hand over the Congo to Belgium is very doubtful. But as Dr. Keith remarks, "amid grave error and crime there is a record of achievement which vindicates the right of Belgium to claim that the transformation of the Congo territory into a Belgian colony is morally justifiable."—*Times Literary Supplement*, July, 1910.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; and BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890.

BERLIN CONFERENCE (1884-1885). See **BERLIN ACT**.

BERLIN DECREE, The. See **CONTINENTAL SYSTEM**; FRANCE: 1806-1810; U. S. A.: 1804-1809; 1810-1812.

BERLIN-TO-BAGDAD RAILROAD. See **BAGDAD RAILWAY**; TURKEY: 1914.

BERLIN TREATY OF 1878. See **BERLIN, CONGRESS OF**.

BERLIN TREATY OF 1881.—Thessaly restored to Greece. See **THESSALY**.

BERLIOZ, Hector (1803-1869), French composer and one of the greatest masters of the orchestra that ever lived. As a man of literature, a critic, and poet he had few equals; a marked individuality, original, puissant, bizarre, violently one-sided; if he had been as great in musical invention as he was in conception and construction he would have ranked as one of the world's greatest masters; subsequent progress in the art of instrumentation made by Liszt, Wagner, and Richard Strauss has been entirely on the foundation laid by Berlioz.—See also **MUSIC**: Modern: 1830-1921.

BERMONDT CONSPIRACY, 1919. See **BALTIC STATES**; Estonia: 1919-1920.

BERMUDA HUNDRED, a settlement in Virginia situated on the James river near City Point. See **HUNDRED**.

Butler's army at. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May: Virginia): Army of the James.

BERMUDAS, or **Somers islands**, group of small islands, situated in the western Atlantic belonging to Great Britain. "Seven hundred miles southeast of New York but only 600 east of Charleston, lies the group or rather cluster of isles and islets known as the Bermudas. . . . To many they are as little known as in the time of Shakespeare who took the motif of his play *The Tem-*

pest from the name the Spaniards gave them: Los Diablos, or the 'Isles of Devils'. . . . There are about half a dozen of good size; but in aggregate, big and little—islets, cays and rocks—they number more than 300, the total area of which is only 20 square miles."—F. A. Ober, *Guide to the West Indies and Bermudas*, p. 21.—Although only 20 of these are inhabited, their position is on the route from Europe to the West Indies, and of great strategic importance. They are strongly fortified and are the winter naval station of the British North Atlantic and West Indies Squadron. Their total area equals 12,360 acres. With a mild temperature, luxuriant vegetation and beautiful scenery they are a favorite summer and winter resort for Americans. Their chief products are sweet potatoes, onions, bananas, arrowroot, corn and lily bulbs. Bermudas are governed by a governor and two councils appointed by the crown, by an assembly elected by the inhabitants. The total population in 1920 was 21,987.—See also **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Extent.

1515.—Juan Bermudez on a voyage from Spain to Cuba with a cargo of hogs discovered this group of islands.

1543.—In this year Ferdinand Camelo, a Portuguese mariner, touched the "Bermoothes."

1593.—The ship of Captain Henry May was wrecked here, while on its way to England from a piratical expedition to the East and West Indies. The crew remained on the islands five months.

1609.—"The next visit to the islands had its origin in an expedition sent out from England to the Jamestown settlement in Virginia. One of the ships, the *Sea Venture*, containing 150 mariners and passengers, including . . . Sir George Somers, . . . sprang a leak not far from the Bermudas and was run ashore in order to save her. They arrived the last week in July, 1609. . . . The next May . . . having constructed two vessels from cedar, they set sail for Jamestown which was safely reached on the 23rd of that month. As the settlement was in a destitute condition, Sir George Somers volunteered to return to the Bermudas for supplies, and set out in his cedar vessel. The voyage was protracted by storms and the aged leader succumbed soon after reaching the islands."—*Ibid.*, pp. 39-40.—See also **VIRGINIA**: 1600-1616.

1612-1620.—First colonization from England.—Rigorous rule of Governor Tucker.—"The first ship load of colonists were sent out [from England] in April 1612. They found on arrival there three men who had been left two years before. . . . A settlement was commenced at the present port of St. George's (named in honor of Sir George Somers, as the islands had also been called after him, the 'Somers Island') and before the end of 1615 at least six vessels had arrived bringing more than 300 colonists. About this time an official survey was made of the islands by one Richard Norwood, and the lands divided into 'tribes' or parishes. 'These shires form the foundation of the land tenure of the islands even to this day, the divisional lines in many cases yet remaining intact.' Under Governor Daniel Tucker, who had been sent out by the chartered company the laws were rigorously enforced . . . and a local currency was provided by stamping pieces of brass with the figure of a wild hog ["hog money"]. . . . Governor Tucker introduced the first tropical fruits. . . . Tobacco came later but was abandoned early in the eighteenth century. The potato was probably introduced about this time, as it was then well known in England. . . . Slaves too from the West Indies began to come

in, brought by the buccaneering craft sent out from the Bermudas; and, in fact, under stern Governor Tucker the colonists themselves were little better than slaves for he maltreated many and hanged not a few."—*Ibid.*, pp. 40-41.

1620-1700.—General assembly.—Progress of colony.—Piratical ventures from the Bermudas.—"The first general assembly convened in 1620 and during the next decade many forts, bridges, private and public buildings were constructed, as shown in Captain John Smith's wonderful map published in his *General Historie of Virginia, New England and the Summer Iles*, 1624.—At this time while the English were struggling for a foothold on the North American coast . . . the Bermudas were exceedingly flourishing. Then settlers, however, seem to have obtained more from the sea than from the land, not only by fishing and wrecking, but by piracy which they conveniently called privateering. In 1665, for example Captain Wentworth, of the Bermudas, descended suddenly upon Tortola of the Virgin Islands, and stole ninety negroes belonging to the governor. He claimed that he held a commission from the governor and council of the Bermudas. In fact a certain governor himself in the last decade of that century, earned the reputation of being a 'pirate at sea and brigand on land' from the free-and-easy manner in which he deprived other people of their properties."—*Ibid.*, p. 41.

1710-1783.—Relations with the pirates of the Bahamas.—Sympathy with the American colonists in the war of the Revolution.—"While wreckers and privateers swarmed in Bermudian waters, those rival coral islands the Bahamas from their greater extent and opportunities (being as they were in the track of Spanish treasure-ships homeward bound from Peru and Panama) became the haunts of such real pirates as the redoubtable Blackbeard [see BAHAMA ISLANDS]. In 1701 the governor of the Bermudas sent an armed sloop against them and induced more than a hundred of the 'Sea Brothers' to settle within his dominions. The 'Mudians' were a warlike people . . . and 1710 attacked and captured a band of Spaniards who had invaded Turk Island in the Bahamas, where they had settled for the purpose of gathering salt. The Bermudas possessed, towards the end of the eighteenth century a composite population. Its basis was English, but during the years of its existence it had drawn to itself diverse elements, especially seafarers from all quarters of the Western Hemisphere. When therefore the quarrel broke out between Great Britain and her colonies in America it is not strange that the 'Mudians' should feel inclined to side with the colonists. Though the American patriots had intended to secure the Bermudas for their own . . . yet the distance separating the islands from the main was too great as well as British men-of-war too formidable, to give promise of success."—*Ibid.*, pp. 41-42.

1861-1865.—Effect of the Civil War in the United States on Bermuda.—Influx of tourists.—"Isolated in their vast immensity of ocean, they were rarely disturbed by doings in the outside world; but when the American States were rent by civil war—1861-64—the 'Mudians' found their opportunity. It was in gathering the golden harvest, brought to their harbors as to a granary, by the blockade-runners. The ports of St. George's and Hamilton woke from their century-long quiescence, and there was once more wealth for everybody, as in the golden days of buccaneer and wrecker. The advent of the winter tourist was, we may say, coincident with the advent of a

profitable market in the States for Bermudian products. The great Hamilton Hotel was erected in 1852 and with that as a landmark we trace the extension of tourist travel thitherward."—*Ibid.*, p. 42-43.

1890-1902.—Laying of the submarine cable.—Floating dock.—"Next to laying of the submarine cable in 1890 probably no event has moved the Bermudians as the arrival of the great floating dock [for the naval station] . . . in the early summer of 1902."—*Ibid.*, p. 43.

1901-1902.—Exile Boers.—"The Bermudas had received many an immigrant with a welcome, but it is doubtful if they altogether approved of the sending thither of the exiled Boers in 1901. The first shipments arrived the last of June that year and were disposed on various islands in Great Sound, as Darrell's, Morgan's, and Tucker's, where, to the number of 4000, toward the last, they encamped until the close of the war."—*Ibid.*

1914-1918.—World War.—During the World War "Bermuda renewed her importance as a naval base. From Bermuda to Halifax cruisers maintained . . . till the armistice a vigilant control of the West Atlantic upon the entry of the United States. Bermuda was selected as a station for overseas-bound submarine chasers. . . . [The United States had an oil and coal depot for homeward bound transports, on islands in the Great Sound, while a detention camp for Germans] was maintained."—F. A. Ober, *Guide to the West Indies, Bermuda and Panama*, p. 44.

1919.—Prohibition of motor cars.—The legislation again refused to permit use of motor cars. "In the early days one was imported, but the Legislature declared it to be dangerous . . . passed a law forbidding the importation of any more, bought the machine . . . and deported it."—*New York Times, Current History, June, 1919*, p. 541.

1921.—Law against smuggling liquor.—On July 12, 1921, the government passed a law prohibiting the smuggling of liquor into the United States.

BERN, Dietrich of. See DIETRICH OF BERN.

BERN (French, Berne), a canton and city of Switzerland. The canton is situated in the north-western part of the country and has a population (1920) of 669,966 to an area of 2,657 square miles. Its capital is the city of the same name, about eighty miles northeast of Geneva. The city was founded as a military post in 1191 by Berthold V, duke of Zähringen, in a district which a century before had become part of the German empire. By a charter granted by Frederick II, German emperor, it was made a free imperial city in 1218. Bern joined the Swiss Confederacy or Old League of High Germany in 1353. (See SWITZERLAND: 1332-1460.) "The Canton of Berne, which included the Pays de Vaud, was second in rank among the 13 composing the Helvetic body. This canton occupied 1/3 of what was then Switzerland; it was great, rich and powerful. Its northern portion was called the German country, because that language was spoken there. This included 300 parishes and extended from Morat to the Rhine. In the southern part, called the Roman country, or Pays de Vaud which stretched from Morat to Geneva and contained more than 150 parishes—the French language prevailed."—M. Read, *Historical studies in Vaud, Berne, and Savoy*, v. 1, p. 287. The early government was democratic, vesting the legislative and executive authority in councils, elected by the burghers, but the wealth of the aristocratic families and the privileges exacted by the prosperous guilds gradually evolved an aristocratic domination. By 1528 "the Reformation had

penetrated into Berne, and at the close of a public discussion, the Council of the Two Hundred, inspired by the reformer Haller, abolished mass, adopted the reform, and seized the property of the clergy. But Lucerne, Uri, Schwytz, Unterwald, and Zug remained faithful to the Roman Church and hastened to take up arms. At Cappel they encountered the Protestant forces of Zurich and Berne, to which Lausanne, though still Catholic, had contributed a corps of arquebusiers in virtue of its treaty with Berne. The shock was terrific. Zurich lost her best warriors. Zwinglius fell pierced with mortal wounds, and the Protestants were put to flight. Nevertheless the Catholic Cantons after their victory offered terms of peace which were quickly accepted, and the Protestants and Catholics retained their faiths and preserved their respective rights."—*Ibid.*, v. 1, p. 112 [see SWITZERLAND: 1528-1531].—After two centuries of domination the Bernese aristocracy fell before the advance of Napoleon in the invasion and occupation of 1798. "The French invasion of 1798 had been directed simply against the treasury of Berne. Napoleon had projected a descent upon England, but as France had no money, and likewise lacked credit, Bonaparte thought that by taking advantage of the discontent of the Swiss, who were under the domination of Berne, and who, though well governed, were galled by their subject position, he might secure money from the Bernese Treasury. The idea was, no doubt, in part suggested to him by the visit to Paris of M. de la Harpe, who prayed the Directory to liberate the Pays de Vaud."—*Ibid.*, v. 1, p. 287.—The amount received from the Bernese treasury was said, upon the investigation of a commission, to equal thirty-two million francs. [See SWITZERLAND: 1792-1798.] The early nineteenth century saw the usual European struggle between Liberal and Conservative from which the Liberals emerged victorious, limiting the power of church and aristocracy by the constitution of 1848 [see also SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Switzerland: 1830-1848.] The city of Bern, head of the canton of Bern, was made the capital of the Swiss Confederacy in 1848. The university of Bern was founded in 1834. The headquarters of numerous international associations and the presence of the embassies augment Bern's political importance, while there is markedly little industrial activity. During the World War much political intrigue and many delicate diplomatic maneuverings developed and centered in Bern, due to the peculiarity of its position as a neutral almost submerged in the surrounding war elements.

Bern conferences.—The international Telegraphic union opened headquarters January 1, 1869, and as a result of the postal congress held at Bern on September 15, 1874, headquarters for the international postal union of sixty nations were established. A convention met in 1883 to standardize the patent laws and in 1887 twenty nations agreed in conference to practically uniform copyright laws. Headquarters have been established for the international bureau for the protection of artistic and literary property, formed January 1, 1888, and the international transport, opened January 1, 1893. In 1906 the international conference on labor regulation met at Bern. "In the summer of 1914 a national exposition was held . . . to celebrate and exploit the progress of the nation. An important feature of the exposition was the educational exhibit which set forth in a very striking manner the chief elements of national strength in the confederation. Deprived of great natural resources, this country has succeeded by

its determination and ingenuity in creating national industries which have secured for it an important place in the world's trade. These industries have been fostered and developed by the aid of industrial and technical schools. More important yet are the social institutions for mutual aid and succor and the labor legislation and bureaus which are worthy of imitation by all other countries. In few countries of the world is public education so highly developed, but the dangers of official routine have been avoided by the encouragement everywhere given to private initiative."—*Report of Commissioner of Education, United States Government, 1916, p. 703.*—See also SWITZERLAND: 1909-1913.—Concurrent conferences of Socialists and trade unionists were held in Bern opening February 2, 1919, delegates representing twenty-seven countries, and including the Central and several neutral powers as well as most of the Allied nations. The labor conference drafted a plan for international labor standards, called the labor charter, which was later accepted by the Socialists and which was offered to the framers of the peace treaty.—See also INTERNATIONAL: 1919 (February).—In May, 1919, the international conference of women was held. The world Socialists were invited to meet in Bern in 1921 to consider the Socialist movement with respect to international affiliation.

BERNADOTTE, the family name of the royal house of Sweden, from General Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte, one of Napoleon's marshals, 1763 (1764?)-1844, who was elected crown prince of Sweden in 1810 taking the name of Charles John, and succeeded Charles XIII in 1818, under the name of Charles XIV. See SWEDEN: 1810; FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April); 1806 (January-October); 1814 (January-March); GERMANY: 1806-1807; 1812-1813; 1813 (August-October); (October-December). For genealogical table, see SWEDEN: 1720-1792.

BERNAFAY WOOD, a small forest in France, northwest of Peronne, occupied by the Allies in the Somme counter-offensive of 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: cl, 5.

BERNARD, Saint, Abbot of Clairvaux, (1000-1153), most famous preacher and monk of the Middle Ages, who preached a second crusade. See CLAIRVAUX, MONASTERY OF; CRUSADES. 1147-1149; FRANCE: 1108-1180; MONASTICISM: 11th-13th centuries.

BERNARD I (d. 1397) Margrave of Baden. BERNARD, Claude (1813-1878), French physiologist, discoverer of the digestive function of the pancreas. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Endocrinology; Revolutionary experiments and discoveries.

BERNARD, Sir Francis (1714-1770), Governor of Massachusetts. See BOSTON: 1768: quartering, etc.; U. S. A.: 1761.

BERNARD, Sir Thomas (1750-1818), English philanthropist. See CHARITIES: England: 1706.

BERNARD PASSES. See ALPS: As barriers; GREAT ST. BERNARD PASS; LITTLE ST. BERNARD PASS.

BERNE. See BERN.

BERNHARD OF SAXE-WEIMAR, Duke (1604-1639), German general in the Thirty Years' War. See GERMANY: 1632-1634; 1634-1639.

BERNHARDI, Friedrich Adam Julius von (1849-), German general. Achieved world-wide prominence because of his book "Germany and the Next War" published in 1911, in which he forecast accurately the methods to be used by Germany; the book frankly upholding disregard of treaties, frightfulness and the necessity of German "world

power or downfall."—See also PAN-GERMANISM: German presentation of Pan-Germanism; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: h, 1.

BERNICIA, a kingdom of the Angles, founded by Ida in the sixth century. It was united with Deira in the seventh century, thus forming the kingdom of Northumbria. See CATRALL; England: 547-633; Scotland: 7th century.

BERNO, Count (fl. c. 910), influential abbot. See CLUNY, MONASTERY OF.

BERNSTEIN, Eduard (1850-), one of the leaders of the Minority Socialists of Germany; leader of the Revisionalists; prominent in the years following the World War. See SOCIALISM: 1860-1912.

BERNSTORFF, Andreas Peter, Count von (1735-1797), Danish statesman, Minister of foreign affairs, 1772-1780 and 1784-1797.

BERNSTORFF, Christian Günther, Count von (1769-1835), Danish statesman, later in the service of Prussia. Ambassador at Stockholm, 1794-1797; succeeded his father as secretary of state in 1797; Danish representative at the Congress of Vienna; appointed ambassador at Berlin in 1817 and at the request of Prince Hardenberg entered into the service of Prussia. In 1818 he acted as Prussian representative at the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle and in the same year became minister of state at Berlin. He held this post until ill health forced him to resign in 1832.

BERNSTORFF, Johann Hartwig Ernst, Count von (1712-1772), Danish statesman, called the "Oracle of Denmark" by Frederick the Great. He was minister of foreign affairs from 1751 to 1770.

BERNSTORFF, Count Johann Heinrich von (1862-), German ambassador to the United States, 1908-1917. On February 3, 1917, after diplomatic relations were broken between United States and Germany, he was handed his passports. He was later appointed ambassador to Turkey. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917; 1915 (June): Protests by Central Powers against trade with allies, 1917 (January): Germany declares unrestricted submarine warfare; 1917 (February-April); VIII. United States and the war: a, 1.

BERNY-EN-SANTERRE, France, near Peronne. Captured by French in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c. 3.

BEROSSUS, Babylonian priest and historian. Translated into Greek the authoritative Babylonian books on astronomy and astrology, and wrote a history of his country (published about 250 B. C.). Only a few parts of this work are extant, containing the cosmology and antediluvian kings of Babylon, and exactly reproducing the Chaldean story of the flood. See BABYLONIA: Historical sources. See HISTORY: 14.

BERRANGE, Christian Anthony Lawson (1864-), British South African general. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: a, 1; b, 1; 1916: VII. African theater: a, 13; a, 7.

BERRI, Duke de, granted duchy of Normandy by Louis XI; grant cancelled by states-general. See FRANCE: 1461-1468.

BERRY, Charles Ferdinand de Bourbon, Duc de (1778-1820), second son of the Comte d'Artois (later Charles X of France). An emigré of 1780, he served with Condé, 1792-1797, and later in the Russian army; general in command of the army at Paris upon Napoleon's return from Elba; married Princess Caroline of Naples and their son, the Comte de Chambord (q. v.), became the Bourbon heir to the throne.—See also BOURBONS, HOUSE OF.

BERRY, Jean de France, Duc de (1340-1416),

third son of John II of France. He fought in the Hundred Years' War and was held in England, 1360-1367, as hostage for the fulfilment of the treaty of Bretigny. His reputation for extreme cruelty was gained while governor of Languedoc, 1380-1388. The peasants of Poitou and Aquitaine revolted and upon investigation by his nephew, Charles VI, Berry was recalled.

BERRY-AU-BAC, a village in France east of Soissons on the Aisne. Falling into German hands early in the World War, it was not until 1918 that this river crossing was recaptured by the French under General Berthelot in the last counter-offensive. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g. 6.

BERSAGLIERI, Italian sharpshooters. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: e, 6.

BERSERKER, **BÆRSÆRK**.—"The word *Bærsærk* is variously spelt, and stated to be derived from 'bar' and 'særk,' or 'bareshirt.' The men to whom the title was applied [among the Northmen] . . . were stated to be in the habit of fighting without armour, and wearing only a shirt of skins, or at times naked. In Iceland they were sometimes called *Ulfhrædin*, i. e., wolfskin. The derivation of *Bærsærk* has been questioned, as in philology is not uncommon. The habit of their wearing bear (*björn*) skins, is said to afford the meaning of the word. In philology, to agree to differ is best. The *Bærsærks*, according to the sagas, appear to have been men of unusual physical development and savagery. They were, moreover, liable to what was called *Bærsærkegang*, or a state of excitement in which they exhibited superhuman strength, and then spared neither friend nor foe. . . . After an attack of *Bærsærk* frenzy, it was believed that the superhuman influence or spirit left the *Bærsærk's* body as a 'ham,' or cast-off shape or form, with the result that the *Bærsærk* suffered great exhaustion, his natural forces being used up."—J. F. Vicary, *Saga time*, ch. 3.—"The aim of every champion was to become a 'Berserk' (so called, probably, because they fought without serk [shirt]), who was regarded as the bravest of men. When within sight of their foe Berserks wrought themselves into such a state of frenzy, that they bit their shields and rushed forward to the attack, throwing away their arms of defence, reckless of every danger, sometimes having nothing but a club, which carried with it death and destruction. . . . The Berserk-fury was not only utilised in war, but for the performance of hard feats which were held to be out of the power of ordinary people. In some cases this fury seems to have come over the Berserks apparently without cause, when they trembled and gnashed their teeth. 'The Berserk Arngrim of Bólm had twelve sons; . . . they were all great Berserks. They went on warfare when they were quite young and ravaged far and wide, but met with no equal in strength and courage; thereby they got renown and victory. The twelve brothers went together on one ship with no others; but they often had more ships. . . . It was their custom if they were only with their own men when they found the *berserks-gang* (berserk-fury) coming over them, to go ashore and wrestle with large stones or trees, otherwise they would have slain their friends in their rage. Never did they engage in battle without gaining the victory; therefore great sayings were told of them. There was no king who would not give them what they wanted rather than suffer their overbearing. They were on warfare during the summer, but during the winter they remained at home in Bólmey with their father,' (*Hervarar*

Saga, c. 3).”—P. B. Du Chaillu, *Viking age*, pp. 423-424.

ALSO IN: M. W. Williams, *Social Scandinavia in the Viking age*, pp. 253-254.

BERTHELOT, Henri, French general. In July, 1918, with the aid of British and Italian divisions resisted the last German offensive at Vrigny, southwest of Rheims; on July 25 drove the Germans from the forest of Fère and from Oulchy on the north of Ourcq; on Gouraud's left, pressing north from Rheims, Berthelot, at the end of September, captured several villages and forced the passages of the Suippe and of the Aisne at Berry-au-Bac.

BERTHELOT, Marcellin Pierre Eugène (1827-1907), French chemist. One of the pioneers of organic synthesis; elected to Academy of Sciences in 1873, and in 1876 appointed minister of higher education; made life member of Senate in 1881; minister of public instruction, 1886-87, and in 1895-06 minister of foreign affairs. His experiments on explosives and dyestuffs are the foundations of the modern industries, while his experimental data concerning the heat phenomena accompanying chemical reactions form the basis of modern thermo-chemistry.—See also CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Drugs.

BERTHIER, Alexandre (1753-1815), prince of Neufchâtel and Wagram, duc de Valengin, French general. Fought as colonel in the American revolution. Appointed chief of staff to the army of Italy, 1796; proclaimed and organized the republic of Rome, 1798 (see FRANCE: 1797-1798: December-May). Acted in the successive campaigns as Bonaparte's chief of staff and was made marshal of the empire in 1804 (see also FRANCE: 1800-1801: May-February). Won favor of Louis XVIII in 1814 and upon Napoleon's return from Elba, retired to Bavaria.

BERTHOLLET, Count Claude Louis (1748-1822), noted French chemist; physician to the duke of Orleans; admitted to Academy of Sciences, 1780; was adherent of Lavoisierian school but did not accept their view that oxygen was the acidifying principle; also participated in the reform of chemical nomenclature carried out by Lavoisier and his associates in 1787; investigated composition of ammonia and prussic acid, while his work with chlorine led to its advocacy as a bleaching agent; prepared potassium chlorate which he attempted to use in manufacturing gun powder as a saltpetre substitute; also introduced improvements in smelting process and conversion of iron into steel. In 1701 appeared his "Éléments de l'art de la teinture," a systematic exposition of the principles of dyeing; was the first to introduce the idea of equilibrium into chemical thought, i. e., that the relative masses of the reacting substances and of the products of reactions determine a reaction. The development of this idea forms the basis of modern chemical theory and has thrown much light on chemical combination. His chief work was his *Essai de statique chimique* which appeared in 1803.—See also CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Explosives: Gunpowder.

BERTIE OF THAME, Francis Leveson Bertie, 1st viscount (1844-1919), British diplomat. As ambassador at Paris, 1905-1918, Lord Bertie held an important post during the troubled period culminating in the World War. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 56.

BERTILLON, Alphonse (1853-1914), French criminologist and student of anthropology; worked out methods of identification and became the head of that department of the Prefecture of Police at Paris. In 1880 he founded the famous Ber-

tillon system of mensuration. See CRIME AND CRIMINOLOGY: Methods of identifying criminals.

BERTRAND, Don Francisco, President of Honduras, 1916-1920. See HONDURAS: 1910-1920.

BERTRAND, Henri Gratien, Comte (1773-1844), French general, aide-de-camp of Napoleon during the Egyptian campaign, accompanying him on all later campaigns; grand marshal of the palace, 1813. He was Napoleon's companion at Elba and St. Helena, where he wrote, under dictation, the memoirs of Napoleon. After Napoleon's death he returned to France where he was restored to his rank by Louis XVIII.

BERUKIN, place in Palestine, taken by British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 8.

BERWICK, James Fitz-James (1670-1734), natural son of James II of England. Educated in France as a Catholic. Fleeing the English revolution he fought for France in Flanders and against the Camisards. In 1706 he was created Marshal of France and in 1707 established the throne of Philip V of Spain by the victory of Almansa.—See also FRANCE: 1733-1735; SPAIN: 1706; 1707.

BERWICK, Pacification of, or Treaty of (signed June 18, 1639). See SCOTLAND: 1638-1640.

BERWICK, Treaty of (January, 1500). See SCOTLAND: 1558-1560.

BERWICK-UPON-TWEED: 1293-1333.—**Conquest by the English.**—At the beginning, in 1293, of the struggle of the Scottish nation to cast off the feudal yoke which Edward I had laid upon it, the English king, marching angrily northwards, made his first assault upon Berwick. The citizens, whose only rampart was a wooden stockade, foolishly aggravated his wrath by gibes and taunts. "The stockade was stormed with the loss of a single knight, and nearly 8,000 of the citizens were mown down in a ruthless carnage, while a handful of Flemish traders who held the town-hall stoutly against all assailants were burned alive in it. . . . The town was ruined forever, and the great merchant city of the North sank from that time into a petty seaport." Subsequently recovered by the Scotch, Berwick was held by them in 1333 when Edward III attempted to seat Edward Balliol, as his vassal, on the Scottish throne. The English laid siege to the place, and an army under the regent Douglas came to its relief. The battle of Halidon Hill, in which the Scotch were utterly routed, decided the fate of Berwick. "From that time the town remained the one part of Edward's conquest which was preserved by the English crown. Fragment as it was, it was viewed as legally representing the realm of which it had once formed a part. As Scotland, it had its chancellor, chamberlain, and other officers of state; and the peculiar heading of acts of Parliament enacted for England 'and the town of Berwick-upon-Tweed' still preserves the memory of its peculiar position."—J. R. Green, *Short history of the English people*, ch. 4, sect. 3 and 6.—See also SCOTLAND: 1290-1305; 1332-1333.

ALSO IN: J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland*, ch. 17.

BERYTUS.—The colony of Berytus (modern Beirut) was founded by Agrippa, 15 B. C., and made a station for two legions.—See also BEIRUT.

551.—Its schools.—Its destruction by earthquake.—The city of Berytus, modern Beirut, was destroyed by earthquake on July 9, 551. "That city, on the coast of Phœnicia, was illustrated by the study of the civil law, which opened the surest

road to wealth and dignity: the schools of Berytus were filled with the rising spirits of the age, and many a youth was lost in the earthquake who might have lived to be the scourge or the guardian of his country."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 43.

1111.—Taken by the Crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1104-1111.

BERZELIUS, Jöns Jakob, Baron (1779-1848) Swedish chemist; became secretary of Academy of Sciences at Stockholm in 1818, and was created baron in 1835; introduced a new chemical nomenclature; discovered selenium, thorium, and cerium; first exhibited borium, calcium, Columbium, strontium, sibiolum and zirconium as elements; aided in perfection of atomic theory, making determinations of atomic weights. See CHEMISTRY: Modern: Lavoisier; also Organic: Defined.

BERZY-LE-SEC, in France near Soissons; taken by allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 9, ii; g, 11.

BESANÇON, city of eastern France; is an important fortress and military post.

Origin. See VESONTIO.

10th century.—In kingdom of Arles. See BURGUNDY: 843-933.

1152-1648.—Free city of the empire. See FRANCIE COMTÉ.

1674.—Siege and capture by Vauban. See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

1814.—It was besieged by the Austrians.

BESANT, Annie (1847-), British author and lecturer. See THEOSOPHY; INDIA: 1918-1920.

BESLER, General Ivan von, German commander in the World War. First prominent on the western front where he captured Antwerp; repeated his successes in the east, where with his giant howitzers he reduced strong Russian fortresses such as Novo Georgievsk, Ossowic and Brest-Litovsk and compelled the evacuation of others; became governor-general of Poland.—See also BELGIUM: 1914-1918; POLAND: 1915-1918.

BESINVAL DE BRONSTATT, Pierre Victor, Baron de (1722-1794), French soldier, in command of the troops at Paris in 1789. He withdrew his forces while the Bastille was stormed, after which he attempted flight, was tried by the tribunal of Châtelet and declared innocent. He is most famous for his memoirs published by the vicomte de Ségur, 1805-1807, their authenticity and accuracy being less assured than the spicy interest of the accounts.

BESKID, Carpathian mountain pass, scene of battle during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Eastern front: f, 6.

BESNARD, Paul Albert (1849-), French mural painter. See PAINTING: Europe: 19th century.

BESSARABIA, government of southwest Russia, lying northwest of the Black Sea. The Pruth and Dniester form its southwestern and northeastern boundaries respectively. The northern section is mountainous, but the valleys are fertile and the chief occupation is agriculture. The principal products are: wheat, maize, barley, flax, tobacco, melons, fruit; and the supply of salt-petre and marble are plentiful. In the south, stock-breeding and wool-raising are predominant industries. It has an area of 17,143 square miles, and in 1915 the population was 2,686,000, consisting of various races. Nearly one half the people were Moldavians, the rest were Little Russians, Jews, Bulgarians, Germans, Greeks, Armenians, Gipsies, Tartars and Abanians.

Original inhabitants and important position.—The original inhabitants of Bessarabia were

Cimmerians, who were gradually driven out by the Scythians. As the Byzantine empire grew in importance, Bessarabia held a strategic position as an approach to the Eastern Roman dominions and was consequently continuously overrun by warlike nations.

4th and 5th centuries.—It was conquered successively by Goths, Huns, Avars and Bulgarians.

7th century.—It was settled by the Bessi, a Thracian tribe from whom it derived its name.

9th century.—The Ugrians appeared who were the ancestors of the Magyars of Hungary.

10th-11th centuries.—The Petchenegs and Kumans, Turkish tribes, poured into the land.

13th century.—The Mongols under Batu descended upon the people of Bessarabia. During the same century the Genoese founded trading companies in the valley of the Dniester.

1367.—The ruling prince of Moldavia conquered and annexed it.

16th century.—Turks and Crimean Tatars contended for its possession.

1648.—Union with Cossacks against Poles. See POLAND: 1648-1654.

1711-1812.—During this period the Turks and Russians fought tenaciously for the land which passed into Russian hands in 1812.

1856.—By the treaty of Paris after the Crimean war certain districts were ceded by the Russians to Moldavia.

1878.—By the treaty of Berlin, however, Russia received these districts back. See also BALKAN STATES: 1878; and 1878-1891.

1914-1921.—The eagerness of Rumania to possess Bessarabia and Russia's purpose to frustrate this ambition was probably the cause of Rumania's early collapse during the World War. As a result of the Peace treaties, Bessarabia is definitely a part of Rumania. See BALKAN STATES: 1921: Rumania; RUMANIA: 1919; WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater; b.

BESSEMER, Sir Henry (1813-1898), an English inventor who originated and developed the process for the manufacture of steel known by his name; knighted in 1879; received the Telford medal of the Institute of Engineers in 1859 and in 1872 received the Albert medal of the Society of Arts; made fellow of the Royal Society in 1879. For Bessemer Process see EUROPE: Modern period: Mechanical revolution.

BESSI, an ancient Thracian tribe who occupied the mountain range of Hæmus (the Balkan) and the upper valley of the Hebrus. They were subdued by Lucullus, brother of the conqueror of Mithradates.—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, ch. 18, sect. 6.—See also BESSARABIA: 7th century.

BESSIERES, Jean Baptiste, Duke of Istria (1768-1813), one of Napoleon's marshals, who early distinguished himself in the battles of Roveredo and Rivoli. He played a prominent part at Saint Jean d'Acre and Abukir in Egypt, at Marango, Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, Eckmühl, Aspern and Wagram. He performed invaluable service in the retreat from Moscow, and Napoleon suffered a serious loss when he was killed at Lützen.

BESSIN, the district of Bayeux. See SAXONS OF BAYEUX.

BEST-EVIDENCE RULE. See COMMON LAW: 1650-1700; 1702.

BETELGEUSE (meteor). See ASTRONOMY: Measuring the size of stars.

BETHEL (ancient Luz; modern Beitin), a town in Palestine situated about twelve miles north of Jerusalem. See JEWS: Conquest of Canaan.

BETHEL, town in Germany founded for the poor and unfortunate. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1872-1914.

BETHENCOURT, Jean de (d. 1425), French adventurer and conqueror of the Canary islands. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Beginning of European explorations.

BETH-HORON, Battles of, the victory of Joshua over "the five kings of the Amorites" who laid siege to Gibeon; the decisive battle of the Jewish conquest of Canaan. "The battle of Beth-horon or Gibeon is one of the most important in the history of the world; and yet so profound has been the indifference, first of the religious world and then (through their example or influence) of the common world, to the historical study of the Hebrew annals, that the very name of this great battle is far less known to most of us than that of Marathon or Cannæ."—Dean Stanley, *Lectures on the history of the Jewish church, lecture 11*.—In the Maccabean war, Beth-horon was the scene of two of the brilliant victories of Judas Maccabæus, in B. C. 167 and 162.—Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews*, bk. 12.—Later, at the time of the Jewish revolt against the Romans, it witnessed the disastrous retreat of the Roman general Cestius. See also JEWS: Conquest of Canaan.

BETHINCOURT, French village situated in the outer line of defense at Verdun in the World War; evacuated by the French April 7, 1916, after which the line ran just north of Mort Homme.

BETHLEHEM, a small town in Palestine, some five miles south of Jerusalem. The birthplace of Jesus of Nazareth; has a long history under Jews, Romans and Turks; captured by the Crusaders in the 11th century; taken in 1917 by the British general Allenby.—See also HOLY LAND; JESUS CHRIST: Chronology of birth.

BETHLEHEM, town in the Orange River Colony, South Africa. During the Boer War it was captured by the British. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (June-December).

BETHLEN, Gabriel (Gábor) (1580-1629), prince of Transylvania, King of Hungary who led revolts against the Emperor Ferdinand. See GERMANY: 1621-1623; HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

BETHMANN-HOLLWEG, Theobald Theodore Frederick Alfred von (1856-1921), German chancellor under William II, 1909-1917. Admitted Germany's invasion of Belgium to be a "wrong," but spoke of the treaty guaranteeing the neutrality of Belgium as a "scrap of paper"; was a liberal in politics; was defeated July, 1917, when the Socialists and the Catholic party combined in favor of a peace without annexations or indemnities.—See also GERMANY: 1908-1909; 1909 (October-December); ENGLAND: 1912-1913; 1917 (July-October); WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 16; 34; 38; 63; 76; 77; 1917: XII. Political conditions, etc.: b; e.

BETHSHEMESH, Battle of.—Fought by Joash, king of Israel, with Amaziah, king of Judah, defeating the latter and causing part of the walls of Jerusalem to be thrown down.—2 *Chronicles*, xxv.—See also ON.

BETHUNE, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of Pas-de-Calais in northern France. The town is situated in the center of the country's richest coal mines. Held by France since 1678 Bèthune was taken by the Allied armies in 1710 (see NETHERLANDS: 1710-1712) but restored once more by the Treaty of Utrecht. The town was the strategic defense the German General von Buelow aimed to break through in the fall of 1915 in order to drive the British army into the sea. It was also one of the objects of the last offensive

of the German armies (April 18, 1918). The attack was repulsed at Givenchy, five miles outside of Bethune. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 1; w, 2; 1918: II. Western front: d, 16.

BETH-ZACHARIAH, Battle of (B. C. 163), a defeat suffered 163 B. C. by the Jewish patriot, Judas Maccabæus, at the hands of the Syrian monarch Antiochus Eupator; the youngest of the Maccabees being slain.—Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews*, bk. 12, ch. 9.

BETHZUR, Battle of (B. C. 165), defeat of an army sent by Antiochus, against Judas Maccabæus, the Jewish patriot, 165 B. C.—Josephus, *Antiquities of the Jews*, bk. 12, ch. 7.

BETSILEOS, or Betsimisarakas, important tribe in Madagascar. See MADAGASCAR; Introduction; 1804-1809.

BETUWE, Germanic tribe, anciently termed Batavi. See BATAVIANS, OR BATAVI.

BEUGNOT, Jacques Claude, Comte (1761-1835), French administrator. Deputy to legislative assembly, 1791; imprisoned during the terror; after Napoleon's *coup d'état* in 1799, he became councillor of state, organized the new kingdom of Westphalia, 1807; administrator of grand duchy of Berg, 1808. Minister of the interior under the provisional government of 1814; minister of marine under Louis XVIII.

BEUGNY, town in France, northeast of Baume, which was attacked and captured by the Germans in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 12.

BEUST, Friedrich Ferdinand Freiherr von (1806-1896); Austrian Statesman, active in formation of Ausgleich. See AUSTRIA: 1866-1867; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1866; and HUNGARY: 1856-1868.

BEVERHOLT, Battle of (1381). See FLANDERS: 1370-1381.

BEVERIDGE, Albert Jeremiah (1862-), American politician. Member of the senate, 1899-1911; chairman Progressive national convention, 1912. See U. S. A.: 1912: Formation of Progressive party.

BEY, BEYLERBEY, PASHA, PADISHAH.—"The administration of the [Turkish] provinces was in the time of Mahomet II. [the Sultan, 1451-1481, whose legislation organized the Ottoman government] principally intrusted to the Beys and Beylerbeys. These were the natural chiefs of the class of feudatories [Spabis], whom their tenure of office obliged to serve on horseback in time of war. They mustered under the Sanjak, the banner of the chief of their district, and the districts themselves were thence called Sanjaks, and their rulers Sanjak-beys. The title of Pacha, so familiar to us when speaking of a Turkish provincial ruler, is not strictly a term implying territorial jurisdiction, or even military authority. It is a title of honour, meaning literally the Shah's or sovereign's foot, and implying that the person to whom that title was given was one whom the sovereign employed. . . . The title of Pacha was not at first applied among the Ottomans exclusively to those officers who commanded armies or ruled provinces or cities. Of the five first Pachas, that are mentioned by Ottoman writers, three were literary men. By degrees this honorary title was appropriated to those whom the Sultan employed in war and set over districts and important towns; so that the word Pacha became almost synonymous with the word governor. The title Padischah, which the Sultan himself bears, and which the Turkish diplomatists have been very jealous in allowing to Christian Sovereigns, is an entirely different word, and means the great, the imperial Schah or Sovereign. In the time of Mahomet II.

the Ottoman Empire contained in Europe alone thirty-six Sanjaks, or banners, around each of which assembled about 400 cavaliers."—Sir E. S. Creasy, *History of the Ottoman Turks*, ch. 6.

BEYERS, Christian Frederick (1869-1914); Boer general. In the Boer-British war of 1899-1902, he rose from private to assistant commandant-general, North District, Transvaal; captured British camp at Nooitgedacht; became after the war a brigadier-general of citizen forces; with De Wet rebelled against British rule at the outset of the World War; resigned, 1914.—See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1914; WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b, 1.

BEYLAN, Battle of (1832). See TURKEY: 1831-1840.

BEYLE, Marie Henri (Stendhal) (1783-1842), French novelist, famous for his character analysis. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1800-1921: Realistic school.

BEYLERBEY, Turkish chief. See BEY.

BEYROUT. See BEIRUT.

BEZANT, a Byzantine gold coin (whence its name), worth a little less than ten English shillings—\$2.50.

BEZETHA, Mount of. See JERUSALEM: A. D. 33; CHRISTIANITY: Map of Jerusalem.

BEZIERS, a city of southern France, situated at the confluence of the river Orb and the Canal du Midi. Historically memorable as the scene of a frightful massacre executed by Simon de Montfort in 1209 in his crusade against the Albigenses. See ALBIGENSES: 1209.

BEZONVAUX, a town in France, five miles northeast of Verdun. The French withdrew from the town February 25, 1916, to establish themselves more securely before Verdun where the German's July offensive was stopped. It was recaptured on the 15th of December when the French staged an attack extending from Vacherauville on the Meuse to Bezonvaux.

BEZUIDENHOUT AFFAIR. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

BEZZECA, town northwest of Riva in the Alps of Austria-Hungary. During 1915, in the World War, it was occupied by the Italians. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: d.

BHAGAVAD-GITA.—"The real author of this work is unknown. It was at an early date dignified by a place in the Mahabharata, in which poem it lies imbedded, or rather inlaid like a pearl, contributing with other numerous episodes to the mosaic-like character of that immense epic. The Bhagavadgita, however, is quite independent of the great epic; and it cannot be questioned that its proper place in any arrangement of Sanskrit literature framed with regard to the continuous development and progress of Hindu thought and knowledge should be at the close of the subject of philosophy. The author was probably a Brahman and nominally a Vaishnava, but really a philosopher whose mind was cast in a broad and comprehensive mould. He is supposed to have lived in India during the first or second century of our era. Finding no rest for his spirit in any one system of philosophy, as commonly taught in his own time, much less in the corrupt Brahmanism which surrounded him, he was led to make a selection from the various schools of rationalistic and dogmatic thought, so as to construct a composite theory of his own. This he did with great perspicuity and beauty of language, interweaving various opinions into one system of taking, so to speak, threads from the Sankhya, Yoga, and Vedanta, as well as from the later theory of Bhakti or 'faith in a supreme Being.' With these

threads he weaves, as it were, a woof of many coloured hues of thought, which are shot across a stiff warp of stern uncompromising pantheistic doctrines, worthy of the most decided adherent of the Vedanta school. The whole composition is skilfully thrown into the form of a dramatic poem or dialogue, something after the manner of the book of Job or a dialogue of Plato. The speakers are the two most important personages in the Mahabharata, Arjuna and Krisbna."—M. Williams, *Indian wisdom*, pp. 136-138.

BHARADARS, native council of India. See INDIA: 1805-1814.

BHONSLA RAJA (d. 1816), Indian ruler of Nagpur, instrumental in starting Mahratta wars with British. See INDIA: 1798-1805.

BHURTPORE, Siege of (1805). See INDIA: 1798-1805.

BHUTAN, an independent state in the eastern Himalayas, lying between Tibet and India. This rugged country, with extremes of temperature, is devoted to intensive agriculture, by means of terraces and irrigation channels. The people are largely of Tibetan origin, and primitive in religion and customs. With the British government of India, relations were formerly unfriendly, and even today little is known of the country. In 1865 certain boundary districts in dispute were ceded to India, which granted Bhutan an annual subsidy now amounting to £3333. Relations have been friendly since 1865.

BIACHE-ST. VAAST, town in France, southwest of Douai; taken by the allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: r, 1.

BIAC-NA-BATO, Treaty of. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1896-1898.

BIAFRA, Bight of, an inlet of the eastern part of the Gulf of Guinea. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

BIALA, a river in Galicia east of the Dunajec into which it flows just before the latter empties into the Vistula; the scene of Russian and Austro-German operations during the World War.

BIALYSTOK, or Byelostok, a city in Poland, fifty-three miles south-west of Grodno on the road to Warsaw. In August, 1915, was captured from the Russians by the Germans in their great offensive on the eastern front.

BIANCA NAZIONALE, Italy. See MONEY AND BANKING. Modern: 1806-1910.

BIANCHI (Whites), a fourteenth century political faction of Florence. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300, and 1301-1313.

BIANCHI, or White Penitents. See WHITE PENITENTS.

BIARRITZ,—a fashionable watering-place in the department of Basses-Pyrénées, France, situated on the Bay of Biscay, 5 miles southwest of Bayonne; first attracted Emperor Napoleon III and Eugénie by its situation and became their summer residence; has since been a fashionable resort both in summer and winter; the scene of a famous interview in 1865 between Napoleon III and Bismarck over the Schleswig-Holstein question, Bismarck being successful in obtaining the neutrality of France in the coming war between Prussia and Austria.

BIBARS I (d. 1277), one of the most competent of the Bahrimameluke sultans of Egypt. By his re-establishing in theory the Abbasid caliphate, he made Egypt the center of the Moslem World. Through his conquests he gained control over Syria and Armenia. See CALIPHATE: 1262-1543.

BIBERACH, Battles of (1706 and 1800). See FRANCE: 1706 (April-October); and 1800-1801 (May-February).

BIBESCU, George Demetrius (1804-1873), Prince of Wallachia, 1842-1848. See RUMANIA: 1828-1858.

BIBLE, English.—Sources.—Bible of the apostles.—Jewish scriptures.—Law, prophecy, philosophy and poetry.—Manuscripts of ancient Versions.—“So long have English-speaking peoples been accustomed to a Bible in a single volume, and to regard it as one book, made up of a series or more or less closely connected parts, following each other in an established order, that comparatively few persons realize that our Scriptures have ever existed in any other forms, or that our so-called Authorized Version is itself the result of a great number of previous revisions. In his recent work, the ‘Canon and Text of the New Testament,’ Professor Casper René Gregory, of the University of Leipzig, says: ‘As a general rule the mass of people take things as they are. They are also likely to think, or at least to go on the supposition, that things have always been as they are now. They can buy a New Testament, a nicely bound one, for a mere trifle. It rarely occurs to them that six centuries ago that would not have been possible. Perhaps there are men who would be surprised to learn that Paul, and even Peter and John and James, did not each carry a little New Testament in his girdle.’ And Bishop Wordsworth tells of the curate who, while public feeling was deeply stirred over a proposed revision, that of 1880, declared that ‘if the authorized version was good enough for St. Paul, it was good enough for him.’ But Jesus and his immediate followers knew no Bible literature save the Hebrew writings which constitute our Old Testament and the Apocrypha; and when the Master bade the Jews ‘Search the Scriptures,’ it was to those writings alone that He referred them. It is equally true, of course, that neither Paul nor Peter ever saw or heard of one of our gospels; and their own letters, with the Epistle of James, were the only books of our New Testament that had been written up to the time of their martyrdom. It was not until the fourth century after Christ that the books constituting our Old and New Testaments were brought together in one volume; and it was a thousand years later before such a combination of the Hebrew and Christian sacred books became common,—each of the individual books still circulating and being read, copied, and revised, independently of any of the others. The Old Testament was the ‘library’ of the Jews, as it, with the writings of the Apostles, became the ‘library’ of the early church and Christians,—a library consisting of separate books, or rolls, of history, law, prophecy, philosophy, and letters.

“We are prone to forget that Jesus and his disciples were Jews and remained to the end of their lives regular attendants upon the services of the Jewish, synagogues. Without exception, too, Paul on his missionary journeyings undertook first to preach his new Gospel of a Risen Christ to the Jews and in the Jewish synagogues of every place he visited; and it was only when he and his teachings were rejected by the Jews in their synagogues, that he established his separate Gentile and Christian churches. It is, then, to the Jewish synagogues that we naturally turn to learn of the form and character of the earliest books, upon which a large part of our Bible has been built up. The synagogue, as an important factor in Jewish life, only goes back to the destruction of the Temple, and the captivity in Babylon, in the sixth century before Christ. From that time on the Jews became more dispersed over the civilized world, and at the time of Christ there was

hardly a city or town of any size or importance where a synagogue would not be found. Separated as the people were from the fountain of their national life, and from their Temple worship, the local synagogue stood in the place of both, and was the center of all the religious, educational, and social life and activity of each exiled community. In those little Jerusalems the Jew was ever reminded of the greater city of his God; and here all the greater events of the Hebrew national life were rehearsed, the law studied and taught, and the prophets searched for the signs of His coming who should restore to the nation its former glory, and redeem its people. In those worshiping groups, far from their home-land, perhaps, and possibly few in numbers, we may almost hear the oft-repeated lament of their fathers in exile,—‘By the rivers of Babylon, there we sat down, yea we wept when we remembered Zion’; while the pious vow was oft repeated: ‘If I forget thee, O Jerusalem, let my right hand forget her cunning; if I do not remember thee, let the tongue cleave to the roof of my mouth; if I prefer not Jerusalem above my chief joy.’

“Each synagogue had a ruler who directed the general affairs of the religious body, and an attendant, or Chazzam, who looked after the church property and building, and had charge of its sacred books. These were kept in a ‘press,’ or chest, usually in a separate corner of the audience room, and the chest was generally hidden from public view by a curtain. It corresponded to the *Ark of the Covenant*, which contained the law in the great Temple at Jerusalem. When the service was opened, it was the duty of the ‘Chazzam’ to hand to the reader the roll containing the lessons of the day from the law and from the prophets; and after the reading of each, the leader handed back each roll to the ‘Chazzam,’ who, after rolling it up behind the curtain, returned it to its proper division in the chest library. In Luke iv: 16, and following verses, we read that Jesus ‘came to Nazareth, where he had been brought up, and, as his custom was, he went to the synagogue on the Sabbath Day, and stood up for to read. And there was delivered unto him (from the chest) the book of the prophet Esaias . . . and he closed the book and gave it again to the minister.’ Had we followed the minister as he went behind the curtain to return the roll to its proper place, and with his permission, perhaps, examined the chest, we should have found that it was separated into three main compartments,—one each for the law, for the historical books (among which were included some of the prophets), and for the ‘writings,’ as they were generally called, or *Hagiographa*, covering the poetical works, the wisdom books, and the remainder of the prophets. Examining any one of the rolls, we should have found it mounted at the end upon a wooden roller, or if the congregation was an important and wealthy one, upon two rollers, made probably of more costly material and, perhaps, with considerable ornamentation. Opening one of the rolls to examine it, we should see that the matter was written by hand upon a rather stiff and somewhat brittle material known as ‘papyrus.’ Printing and paper were yet centuries away. . . . The longest roll known is Egyptian, and measures one hundred and forty-four feet; but the usual extreme length of Greek rolls was about thirty feet. The height, or width, varied from five to fifteen inches. Of course this material was costly, and various economies, such as running words and sentences together and the contraction of words, were exercised in its use; and sometimes, though not often, the scribe would

write upon the reverse side as well as on the front, if his sheet was not long enough,—as is mentioned in Ezekiel xi: 10, where a 'roll of a book' was spread before the prophet '*written without and within.*' Having prepared his papyrus of the right dimensions the scribe would commence to write his matter on the extreme left of his long sheet,—unless it was Hebrew,—arranging it on the papyrus in columns of from two to three and a half inches in width, which was considered the best literary form, though of course if the matter was poetry the length of the line determined the width of the column. Reed pens were used, and ink, for the making of which there were several well-known formulæ. Having carefully written out the entire matter which he was copying, as for example, the roll of the prophet Isaiah, the scribe would attach the end section or right edge of his sheet to a roller, over which the whole manuscript would be wound. So that when Jesus, as referred to above, was handed the 'roll of the prophet Esaias,' he commenced unrolling from right to left until he came to the passage he wished to speak upon, or the lesson for the day. As the papyrus was easily broken, however, and became more brittle with age, the double roll became the more common; and in using it, the reader simply unrolled from the right roller on to the left as he went along. On the back of the roll a thin strip of papyrus was pasted which bore the title of the work. The older and original manuscripts of the Jewish sacred books were written in Hebrew; but in the greater number of the churches of the dispersion, that is, of the exiled Jews, the Septuagint translation of these books was used. This is one of the great basic versions for all later revisions, it being a complete translation of all the Jewish Scriptures into Greek, and derives its name from the fact that the translation was attributed to seventy of the most learned Jewish Rabbis. One of the most familiar legends regarding this translation is that Ptolemy Philadelphus sent to the Jews of Jerusalem for a Greek version of their Scriptures for his great library at Alexandria. Accordingly, seventy elders skilled in the Scriptures and in languages were sent to him, whom he separated in seventy different cells while they were prosecuting their work. When all had completed their translations and appeared before the King, 'God was glorified,' as the legend recites, 'for they all agreed exactly, word for word.' The generally accepted theory is that the work was done by learned Alexandrian Jews at different periods during the third and second centuries before Christ. This Septuagint version is of especial interest to us because it was the form of the Jewish Scriptures with which Jesus and the early Christians were familiar; and the slight difference between their quotations from those Scriptures and the form with which we are familiar in the authorized version is accounted for by the fact that the Old Testament of that version was another translation from the original Hebrew, and not from the Septuagint, which Jesus and his followers used.

"Within one hundred years after the Ascension of Christ the Christians throughout Western Asia and Southern Europe had separated themselves from the synagogue connection, and had organized their churches and erected their church buildings. If we could have visited one of their more influential churches, say that of Rome, or of Ephesus, or Alexandria, we should still have found, as one of the most important of the church furnishings, the 'chest' for the sacred books; and upon looking into it we should have discovered the same

rolls which we have described as constituting the library of the synagogues. But in addition to those works we should also have found rolls of nearly all, perhaps all, of the books which now make up our New Testament,—some originals, others copies from originals,—all of which had been written within the century that had passed since the Crucifixion. Not every church for another hundred years yet would have all these new rolls; but one would have one or two gospels, another a different one; nearly all would probably have Paul's four great Epistles,—to the Galatians, Romans, and Corinthians,—as well as the Acts; while some congregations cherished as priceless treasures the Apostle's personal letters to them individually. *But the important fact is that a search through the chests of all the churches at about this period would have revealed to us in the Christian libraries original manuscripts of all the books of our Bible; and that those early manuscripts constitute the only sources from which we have obtained that Bible.* These later manuscripts were all written out by hand in the same manner, and upon the same material, as those which made up the library of the synagogues, already described. If anyone of these collections had been preserved intact to modern times the work of revisers would be simple and easy; but, unfortunately, the libraries of the early churches—the Christian writings,—were more recklessly destroyed than were the Christians themselves during the persecutions of the first three centuries, with the result that not a single manuscript of any book of the Bible belonging to that period has been preserved. The question, therefore, how we get our Bible, and upon what basis the revisers and translators of different ages have worked, becomes an exceedingly important one.

"Taking the position of the learned revisers of 1880, we should have before us three classes of material to work upon, a very large proportion of which was unknown to the revisers who produced our Authorized Version, in 1611. This matter has been discovered from time to time, chiefly during the last five hundred years, often in the rubbish heaps of the old monasteries of Europe and Asia, and is now scattered among the great libraries of Europe,—those of the Vatican, of the British Museum, of St. Petersburg, and of Paris, especially, possessing documents of inestimable value. Of this material, the *first class* consists of *Manuscripts*, by which is technically meant copies in the original language of the different Scriptures. The *second class* is made up of a great number of ancient *Versions*, a version technically meaning a *translation of the Bible*, or any of its books, into the languages of early *Christendom*. Some of these, like the Syriac, Egyptian, Latin, and Gothic Versions, are very ancient and of supreme importance. The *third class* consists of the writings of the Early Church Fathers, which make an extensive library. These men were generally earnest controversialists, and quoted Scripture so freely that it has been said if all other sources of our Bible were lost, we could recover the greater part of it from their writings alone. The most important of these three sources is, of course, the Manuscripts, the copies of the *Scriptures* in the *original tongue*. Of these there are now a great number in existence, some of them having originally been translations of the whole Christian library, that is, of the entire Bible, others of single books or groups, as the Psalter, the Gospels, the Epistles, etc. The manuscripts vary greatly in age and so in value, as it is evident that the nearer in point of time a manu-

script belongs to the original text, the nearer will be its approach to a perfect copy. It must be remembered that all copies were made by hand from other copies; and when one considers how difficult it is even to transcribe a page of printed matter *exactly*, it is easy to see that errors must have crept into the successive copies as made, even though the most loving and conscientious effort was made to avoid any mistakes. Irenæus, Bishop of Lyons in the second century, wrote as follows on a copy he had made of one of the sacred books: 'Whosoever thou art who shalt transcribe this book, I charge thee with an oath by our Lord Jesus Christ, and by His glorious appearing, in which He cometh to judge the quick and the dead, that thou carefully compare what thou hast transcribed, and correct it according to this copy when thou hast transcribed it; and thou transcribe this oath in like manner and place it in thy copy.'

"Three of these manuscripts, which are nearly complete copies of the whole Bible, go back to the fourth and fifth centuries, and so are the most ancient of the sacred documents, as well as the most priceless treasures of the Christian church. Curiously one of them belongs to each branch of the church,—the Greek, Roman, and Reformed. All of them were before the revisers of 1880, though none of them were known to those of the Authorized Version. The most ancient of these is the *Vatican Manuscript*, which has lain in the Vatican library for several hundred years, but has been of no use to scholars, as access to it was forbidden until the latter part of the nineteenth century, when Pope Pius IX. allowed excellent facsimiles of it to be made, which can now be studied in all the larger libraries of the world. This manuscript is written on vellum, which began to take the place of papyrus for sacred writings about the end of the third century, and is in book form instead of on rollers, a change that was made about the same time, and partially because of the use of a different writing material. This 'Codex Vaticanus' as it is known among scholars ('codex' meaning simply the book form in distinction from the roll) has about seven hundred leaves of the finest vellum, is about a foot square, and bound. It lacks the first forty-six chapters of Genesis, Psalms 105 to 138, and all of the New Testament after the fourteenth verse of the ninth chapter of Hebrews. Each page has three columns, the writing is all in capital letters, and there is no spacing between the words nor any punctuation or division into sentences, all of which makes it very difficult to read. This form of writing was one of the economies practiced when writing material was very expensive. It is also one of the best proofs of the age of a manuscript, as a few centuries later modern forms of writing were adopted in copying. These old, capital-letter manuscripts are known as '*Uncials*,' in distinction from those written in the modern or running form, which are called '*Cursives*.' The value of a manuscript depends chiefly, as a general proposition, upon its age, which places the Uncials far above the Cursives in that regard. Yet it is quite possible that a Cursive of the fifteenth century should have been copied directly from an early Uncial, like the Codex Vaticanus of the fourth century, and so have a greater value than an Uncial of the eighth century; and several of such Cursives have been found which are highly esteemed."—F. Kirkland (pseud. for R. M. Devens) and C. W. Chase, *Glory of our youth*, ch. XLII, pp. 401-406.

Modern Biblical research.—Work of Tischendorf.—Ancient codex discovered.—"Foremost

among the distinguished group of scholars of the last century who devoted their time, energy, and study to the manuscripts and texts of the Bible books, was Dr. Constantin Tischendorf, Professor of Theology at the University of Leipzig from 1845 until the time of his death in 1874. For many years he made frequent visits to old Greek monasteries in southeastern Europe and western Asia, eagerly searching for new material. In 1844, when only twenty-nine years of age, he arrived at the ancient convent of St. Catherine, on the range of Mt. Sinai. While quietly conducting his investigations he came upon a large basket filled with worn and damaged manuscripts, which had been set aside to be burned, as two similar baskets-full had already been. Here he found a considerable number of vellum leaves of a Greek manuscript, which his practiced eye at once recognized as one of the oldest in existence. He obtained possession of forty-three sheets, about one-third of the number he had rescued, but was not permitted to take the remainder. Unfortunately his enthusiasm had betrayed the value of the treasures in the basket to the unconscious monks. For fifteen years he made repeated but unsuccessful attempts to get possession of the remaining sheets, working through various influential channels. In 1850 he determined again to visit the convent himself, and was happily able to go armed with a strong personal letter from the head of the Eastern Church, the Emperor Alexander II. of Russia. After five days of fruitless search through the library and among all the papers of the convent, he was about to take his departure. While walking with the steward the evening before he had planned to leave, their conversation turned upon the text of the Old Testament; and returning at twilight to the convent, he was invited by the steward to partake of a luncheon with him in his cell. While they were eating the host said that he had there a copy of that Septuagint, at the same time bringing from the corner of the room a large manuscript wrapped in a red cloth. Glancing at the pile of vellum, Tischendorf quickly recognized it as belonging to the same codex of which he had rescued some leaves from the waste basket fifteen years before. Concealing his emotion, he obtained the privilege of taking the manuscript to his chamber, where, to his unspeakable joy, he found it contained the New Testament entire. Then began the long and weary efforts to get possession of the entire manuscript, or proper conveniences for copying it; and, though these were eventually granted, the work could not be done under such circumstances as to guarantee the perfect accuracy which alone would satisfy Tischendorf. As a last resort he made the happy proposal that the monks should make a gift of the entire material to the great defender of their church, the Emperor Alexander; with the result that about eight months after reaching the convent, the precious treasure was placed in his hands to bear to the emperor at St. Petersburg. This codex is written upon vellum of extreme fineness and beauty, and has 346 leaves, of which 100 contain twenty-two books of the Old Testament, while the remaining 147 have the whole of the New Testament, the 'Epistle of Barnabas,' and part of the 'Shepherd of Hermas.' The whole work has many points of similarity with the Vatican Codex, though the latter has three columns on a page, while the former has four. This is known as the *Codex Sinaiticus*, and it is believed that it goes back to before 350 A. D. The early church historian, Eusebius, who was also secretary to the Emperor Constantine after his conversion, states that the Emperor ordered him to

have fifty of the most perfect and beautiful copies of the Bible made and delivered to him; and many learned scholars, including Tischendorf, are confident that the Sinaitic manuscript is one of those fifty copies. Facsimiles of this codex have also been made, and in this form it is accessible to all scholars.

"The third in antiquity of the great Uncial manuscripts of the Bible in the Greek language is the *Codex Alexandrinus*. This codex was presented to Charles I. of England, in 1628, only seventeen years after the revisers had completed their work on our Authorized Version, by Cyril Lucar, Patriarch of Alexandria, from whence he had brought the manuscript, which is named after the city of its origin. It is in quarto form, about thirteen inches high and ten wide, each page being divided into two columns of fifty lines each. Like the others it is written on thin, fine, and very beautiful vellum, with an elegant though simple Uncial, and without spacing the words. Ten leaves are missing from the Psalms, and the first twenty-four chapters of Matthew, the seventh and eighth chapters of St. John, and eight chapters of First Corinthians. But there is added to this the one genuine letter of Clement of Rome to the Corinthians. The trustees of the British Museum have published a beautiful photographic facsimile of this, one of the greatest treasures of their library. Another curious and valuable manuscript is in the National Library of France, and is known as the *Codex Ephraemi*. It was brought from the East by Andrew Lascar, a learned Greek patronized by Lorenzo de' Medici, and was carried to Paris by Catherine de' Medici when she became Queen of Henry II. of France. This codex illustrates a custom among the monks of the Middle Ages which is doubtless responsible for the loss of many valuable manuscripts. As vellum was very expensive, if a monk wished to transcribe any new matter he would often take an old book and clean its pages as far as possible of its written matter by rubbing them with pumice stone. As this could never be perfectly done, the old matter always appeared indistinctly under the new writing. Such manuscripts are called *Palimpsests*, and the *Codex Ephraemi* was one of them. During the seventeenth century a scholar discovered the importance of the first writing, and for two hundred years various attempts were made to remove the later matter. But it remained for Tischendorf, after nearly a year's hard labor, to succeed in the work, and in 1840 to disclose a very rare and ancient Uncial which unquestionably belongs to the fifth century, and is esteemed by many critics as only second in importance to the Vatican and Sinaitic manuscripts. These four codices are the chief manuscripts which have preserved the Greek text for nearly the whole Bible; but there are scattered through the libraries of Europe manuscripts of groups of books, or single books, or parts of each, which are usually classed as *Fragments*; and of these there are now known about 100 Uncials, while in 1800 Dr. Gregory counted up 3,553 Cursives,—all of which, as has been said, are more or less complete parts of the Bible in the original Greek language. Of the Hebrew manuscripts of the Old Testament it is only necessary to say that none are in existence dating earlier than the tenth century. The lack of old manuscripts here, however, is of little importance; for about a thousand years ago all the old ones were collected and compared for the purpose of a grand revision, so that at that early date the Hebrew of the Old Testament was made as nearly perfect as the best scholars of the Jewish academies could make it. After that the older

manuscripts gradually disappeared. The work of revision was done with the most scrupulous care, and every mechanical device was used in addition to clerical skill to prevent errors from creeping in. And the reason that in the latest English revision there are so few changes in the Old Testament compared with those in the New is that there was less need, as well as fewer means, of making any correction."—*Ibid.*, pp. 406-409.

7th-8th centuries.—Vellum and parchment.—Old Latin Bible.—St. Jerome's Version.—Beginnings of English Bible.—Caedmon and Bede.—"Before taking up the second class of sources of our Bible, the Versions, a few words may be said in reference to the change from the use of the roll to the book. Vellum had been in use in the ancient world since about 180 B. C., when King Ptolemy of Egypt, jealous of the great library that the King of Pergamus was building up, undertook to cripple him in his work by forbidding the export of papyrus. The King of Pergamus, therefore, was forced to find another material for writing, and hit upon skins; and the other name for vellum—parchment—is simply a derivative from 'Pergamine.' For this purpose the skins of sheep, calves, and of asses were chiefly used, the hair being carefully scraped from one side and the flesh from the other. The skin was then stretched and dried, and, before using, the surfaces were carefully smoothed and polished with pumice stone. At a later date a very fine quality of vellum was made from antelope skins. Strictly speaking vellum denotes material made from calves' and antelopes' skins, while parchment was applied to skins of sheep, asses, and even swine; but practically no distinction was made, and the term vellum came to be applied to all kinds of dressed skins used for purposes of writing. In the first and second centuries it was used only for note books, rough drafts, and inferior classes of literary work. But its use for note books, shaped according to the form of the wax tablets, the kind of note books previously existing, naturally led to the evolution of the codex, or modern book form, and together they gradually displaced papyrus and the roll for literary productions, during the early part of the fourth century. One demand which greatly stimulated this movement was that for complete collections of the Scriptures in a usable form both for reading and reference. It was not until towards the close of the second century that anything like an accepted canon of the New Testament writings was recognized; but as soon as tradition and usage had determined what books should be accepted and read by all Christians as the Scriptures, a more convenient form than the old rolls was imperatively demanded. And as it was recognized that some twenty or thirty rolls were needed for the New Testament alone, while the whole could be gathered into one codex of not immoderate size, the latter quickly came into general use.

"The second class of material for Bible revision, next in importance to the manuscripts, consists of 'Versions,' that is, of translations from the original language of the Scriptures into the languages of the various peoples who from time to time became converted to Christianity. Of these versions a great number are in existence, some of which bear evidence of great care in translation, others more carelessly done and from corrupt originals. Many versions are very ancient, the early Christians in their missionary work among the Egyptians, Armenians, Syrians, and Latin peoples of North Africa and Southern Europe, from the first endeavoring to give those peoples at least the principal books of the New Testament and the Psalms

in their own tongues, the complete Bibles following in due course. As some of these translations go back to the early part of the second century, they become of the greatest value as aids in verifying and correcting the texts of the early New Testament Scriptures.

"The church at Rome of the first century was more Greek in its character than Roman; and not only did Paul write his Epistle to its members in Greek, about 60 A. D., but its earlier bishops all appear to have been Greeks, one of whom, Clement, at the end of the century, wrote an important letter to the Corinthian church in Greek which, as we have seen, was bound up with the New Testament books in the *Codex Alexandrinus*. There was not, therefore, the same necessity for a Latin translation of the Scriptures for the Italian churches as for those of the Roman province of North Africa, where many important churches were early established, and from whence came many of the most noted of the church fathers, including the great St. Augustine; and it was chiefly for these outlying churches that the first Latin Bible was made. This is known as the *Old Latin Version*, to distinguish it from the later work of Jerome. This Old Latin Bible has great value for the New Testament, as it was probably the first translation made from the original Greek texts, but the Old Testament was only a translation of a translation, that is, of the Septuagint. As the Church spread, this Bible would necessarily have to be made in large numbers, and owing to the fragile character of the papyrus, earlier copies would have to be replaced by newly made ones. It naturally resulted, therefore, that in the process of these many translations the original text soon became very much corrupted, so that by the middle of the fourth century, as one has said, 'the Latin speaking churches were in danger of losing the pure Scripture of the Apostolic days.' Fortunately, just at this period the great Eusebius Hieronymus, better known as St. Jerome, returned to Rome after several years of travel, study, and ascetic life in the East. Reputed to be the best Bible scholar in the church, and nearly the only one who was thoroughly familiar with Hebrew, Damasus, Bishop of Rome, in 382 urged him to undertake a revision of the Latin Scriptures. This work Jerome at once began, and in 385 had finished the New Testament. He then began work upon the Old Testament, making first two or three separate translations of the Psalter from the Septuagint. But being dissatisfied with this, he turned to the original Hebrew text and made an entirely new translation, which was completed in 404. This final translation of Jerome has become one of the most important factors in all later Biblical revision. It is known as the 'Vulgate,' which means simply the 'commonly received translation.' This became the officially accepted Bible of the Western churches, and holds that position in the Roman Catholic church to-day, as it did in England until the Reformation; and the Septuagint and Vulgate are the two great versions in the immense library of Biblical literature [see also PAPACY: 1007-1000.] Human nature, however, changes but little through the ages, and Jerome's great work met with the same determined opposition, as well as bitter criticism and abuse, that later greeted the work of the revisers of 1880. All over the world, that is the Western world, Christians had become familiar with and loved the Old Latin version; and as, owing to the corruptions of the latter, Jerome's changes were many and marked, a storm of hostile criticism broke over him. This he fought vigorously and with considerable temper,

insisting that no amount of sentiment could be a plea for a faulty Bible, and that the most venerated translation must give way, if found to disagree with the original texts. . . . Nevertheless the Old Latin held a conspicuous place, and was highly esteemed by the churchmen for centuries, both versions being used and existing side by side, much as the Revised Version and the King James Version exist in our own religious life to-day, until the Council of Trent gave to the Vulgate the official recognition of the Roman church [see also EDUCATION: Medieval; 6th-16th centuries: Latin language].

"It was not until late in the seventh century that any attempt was made to give our English ancestors any portion of the Bible in their own tongue; and even then, so low was the mental state of the people, anything like a written Gospel would have been of little use. As hardly any, either of the nobility or the peasantry, could read their own tongue, there was little demand for a translation of the Scriptures. These were truly the 'Dark Ages.' Religious interest could only be aroused with any measure of success by appeals to the senses, and it was by the ministry of art and song that the sacred story first touched the popular heart, or caught the popular ear. Like all primitive peoples, the Saxons were most susceptible to the emotional songs of their bards, and no festivities were complete without the minstrel's lays in which they delighted. One of the foremost centers of religious life and light at this period was the famous Abbey of Whitby. High up on the cliffs in the north of England, looking out over the North Sea, the Princess Hild had established her religious houses; and about her were gathered a goodly number of monks, and many lay helpers. Among the latter was Caedmon, the earliest of English singers, with whom English literature and the English Bible alike have their beginning, and to the 'music of whose native harp,' as one has said, 'the Bible story, in the form of poetic paraphrase, begins to pass out of its old Latin into its new English dress, out of the dim seclusion of cell and school to the open sunlight of the countryside, and from the narrow limits of the parchment-scroll to the wandering minstrelsy of the vernacular poetry.' . . . 'By his verses the minds of many were often excited to despise the world, and to aspire to heaven. Others after him attempted, in the English nation, to compose religious poems, but none could ever compare with him, for he did not learn the art of poetry from man, but from God; for which reason he could never compose any trivial or vain poems, but only those which relate to religion suited his religious tongue.' But this minstrelsy was not confined to monastic circles; its songs were sung before kings and warriors, and among the peasantry in the villages and in their homes. Through these channels the Scripture narratives circulated for generations, and the common people acquired in a form which fixed itself in their memories a rudimentary Bible knowledge to which, otherwise, they must long have remained strangers; just as, fifteen centuries earlier the ancient Greeks first learned the stories of gods and men which later made the Greek Bible,—the *Iliad*,—through the songs of their minstrels in royal halls and at public festivals. But the sacred songs of Caedmon were not translations into the Saxon tongue, but merely free paraphrases of the Scripture narrative, and so may be regarded as a prologue of the long drama of the evolution of the English Bible, whose first act calls us to the renowned monastery and school at Jarrow, near the mouth of the Wear. Here one of the world's great scholars had built up one of the

most famous schools of the age. Bede, or as he is more familiarly known, the 'Venerable Bede,' was born close to the monastic halls at Jarrow in the year 673; and he never left the cloister's shades until he sweetly breathed out his life in prayer on Ascension Eve in the year 735. His entire life was devoted to study, teaching, and writing; and little by little he made himself master of the whole range of the knowledge of his day, so that he became, as Burke justly styled him, 'the father of English learning.' Six hundred monks, besides strangers, gathered at Yarrow to enjoy Bede's instructions; and in treatises prepared as text-books for his scholars he brought together all the knowledge that the world had then accumulated in astronomy, physics, philosophy, rhetoric, grammar, music, arithmetic, and medicine. The best known of all these works was his 'Ecclesiastical History of the English Nation,' from which all that is really known of the century and a half following the landing of Augustine must be learned. As the historian Green has said, 'Bede was at once the founder of mediæval history and the first English historian.' But notwithstanding his commanding position and great learning, he remained to the last the simple, unaffected, loving and beloved master, whose personal influence upon his students worked greater results even than his secular and religious teachings; and there is hardly in all literature more tender and loving tribute to the memory of a great teacher than the letter in which Cuthbert, one of his disciples, writes to his fellow students, Cuthwin, of the passing of the master. . . . [On his deathbed Bede completed his translation of the Gospel of St. John.] Of the character of this translation, the dying gift of the great teacher to his spiritual children, nothing can now be known, as no copy of the work has come down to our day. Still, the Venerable Bede stands as the first link in the chain of translators which, through Wyclif, Tyndale, Coverdale, and their successors in the continuous work of revision, binds the eighth to the nineteenth century in the history of the English Bible."—*Ibid.*, pp. 409-413.

8th-11th centuries.—King Alfred's Dooms.—Translation from Saxon to modern English.—**Effects of Norman invasion.**—"From the middle of the eighth to the close of the thirteenth century was a barren period in Saxon intellectual and religious life. For more than two hundred years the country was repeatedly laid waste by Danish invaders, only to be followed, before peace had brought any lasting results, by the more complete conquests by the Normans in the eleventh century. . . . The success of the Norman invasion resulted in a more complete subjugation than had attended the inroads of the Danes; and a strange language and a religion that seemed hardly less strange to them were forced upon the people. The Saxon clergy were turned out of their churches and livings and were replaced by priests from Normandy, who despised both the native language and the people who spoke it; and as the whole spirit of the Church on the continent was adverse to any translations of the Scriptures into vulgar tongues, not only was nothing done to enlighten the people, but even the few versions that existed in the Saxon tongue were contemptuously cast aside and destroyed. During the intervals of peace previous to the Norman conquest, sporadic attempts at translation of parts of the Bible, especially of the Gospels and the Psalter, had been made; but the whole life of the people had become that of the camp and not of the home, and so afforded no congenial soil for the propagation of the graces of literature and religion. The great, shining figure of the entire period was that of the most noble and Christian king, Alfred, who

accomplished marvelous things considering the conditions under which he labored. One of the great monuments of his reign was his collection into one body of all the laws of the Saxon realm, which he entitled 'Alfred's Dooms.' . . . [This] was followed by the king's own translation of the Ten Commandments into the native tongue, which thus became the first part of the most ancient law of England.

"Although the thoroughness of William the Conqueror's plan contemplated the complete obliteration of the native language, as well as the supplanting of all national customs by the more refined modes of Norman French life, yet the sturdy patriotism of the conquered race frustrated his purposes. The Saxon priests, driven from their churches, became wandering friars, and, going from hamlet to hamlet, kept alive the fires of nationalism and became the inspirers of new hopes in the subjugated, but not subdued people. So that, though Norman French was the only language of the court, the church, the school, and for the transaction of all public affairs, yet the native tongue was cherished with all the sentiment of nationality and fellowship that its use inspired, in the halls of the old Saxon nobles, and in the rude homes of the people. What this double life of the people meant is most interestingly portrayed in Scott's great novel, 'Ivanhoe.' But the result of the friction between the two languages was the gradual formation of a new one which was to become the medium of expansion for all the thought and action of the great English-speaking nations. Just when the change occurred cannot be marked, any more than one can say when a child becomes a youth, or the youth a man. But the important point is that when the pent-up forces of national and religious life and thought broke through the barriers that had so long restrained them, the immortal verse of Chaucer, as well as the noble and dignified prose of Wyclif, found a language rich enough in its vocabulary, and flexible enough in its form, to give full expression to the glowing fancy of the poet, and to the exalted protests and passionate denunciations of the great reformer. There have been certain great periods in the evolution of the Divine plans as manifested in the world's history, which no expression seems so well to describe as Paul's pregnant one,—'the fullness of time'; and the era of the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries appeared most forcefully to mark such a 'fullness of time.' It was the breaking of the morning light of a new and more glorious day for all mankind. In its earlier years a spirit of unrest and discontent had become well-nigh universal that bodied ill for all the forces of tyranny and despotism that enslaved the minds, as well as the bodies, of the mass of the people; and there is no more interesting study than to trace the influence of the English Bible in arousing, stimulating, and directing the course of these uplifting movements."—*Ibid.*, pp. 413-414.—See also PHILOLOGY: 100.

14th-16th centuries.—Wyclif's translation of the Bible.—Purvey's Revision.—Invention of printing.—First printed book the Mazarin Bible.—Luther's translation.—Greek Testament edited by Erasmus.—"The most notable of all the heralds of the new day, the most intelligent and determined of all 'Reformers before the Reformation,' was John Wyclif. The date of his birth is uncertain, but was previous to 1320; and the period of his life covers a time of grievous distress throughout Europe. The most terrible plague the world has ever known, the so-called 'Black Death,' advancing from the East, devastated all Europe, and in 1348 invaded England;

and of the population, then estimated at between three and four millions, more than one half succumbed to its dread power. No words can describe the effects of its ravages upon the social life of the kingdom. All industry was paralyzed, and famine stalked in the steps of the pestilence. The land was untilled, and even where crops came to maturity, no one could be found to harvest them and they rotted in the fields. Down to the thirteenth century, the great mass of the people was made up of peasants attached to the soil, mere serfs,—a little higher in the scale of life than the cattle, but not much. As a result of the great scarcity of laborers, those whom the plague had passed by recognized the opportunity that was placed in their hands and made bold and determined strikes for freedom. The line of demarcation between the rich and the poor was painfully distinct, with the result that the same social and industrial questions that agitate the life of to-day sprang fully developed into existence in Wyclif's time. . . . Space forbids any reference in detail to the events by which Wyclif was led, step by step, to his final break with the church; but when it came, it was decisive, and marked the birth of new forces, and doctrines that were to result later in the religious reformation of the sixteenth century, and in the establishment of political and civil liberty in the seventeenth. . . . Just when Wyclif began his translation of the Bible into English cannot be determined, though the entire work was completed in 1382. It is certain that part of the Old Testament was translated by Nicholas of Hereford, one of Wyclif's Balliol scholars. The translation was made from the Latin Vulgate, which had already become very corrupt as the result of constant copying, without reference to Hebrew or Greek manuscripts; and so has the many defects of a translation from a translation. But the great truths of the Gospels and of the New Testament Wyclif wrote out not for scholars or nobles, but for the common people, and he suited his style to those for whom he wrote. Plain, vigorous, and homely were his expressions, yet of such dignity and solemn grace as to fix the attention of all readers. . . . The unfinished work of revision was taken up by Wyclif's friend and curate at Lutterworth, Richard Purvey, and was completed in 1388. Purvey's Preface to his great work is hardly less interesting than the work itself, manifesting as it does the spirit and purpose that had animated him in his labors. He says: 'A simpel creature hath translated the scripture out of Latin into Engliche. First, this simpel creature had much travalye [labor] with divers fellows and helpers to gather many old Bibles and other doctours and glosses to make *one Latin Bible some deal true and then study it anew*, the texte and any other help he might get, especially Lyra on the Old Testament, which helped him much with his work. The third time to counsel with the olde grammarians and olde divines of hard words and hard sentences, how they might best be understood and translated, the fourth time to translate as clearly as he could to the sense, and to have many good fellows and cunnynge at the correcting of the translation. . . . A translator hath great nede to studie well the sense both before and after, *and then also he hath nede to live a clene life and be full devout in preiers, and have not his wit occupied about the worldi things, that the Holy Spyrut, author of all wisdom and cunnynge and truthe, dresse him for his work, and suffer him not to err.*' These two versions are generally classed together as the Wyclif Bible and rightly so, if one understands their history. Purvey's work was done in no spirit critical or envious of his master's, but in

the most loving sympathy, and all that gave to Wyclif's translation its distinctive strength and charm was retained. Notwithstanding the great expense of this work, its circulation must have been very extensive, as, in spite of all the penal acts of the few years following whose purpose was to utterly destroy every vestige or line of the books, there are now in existence one hundred and seventy copies of the Wyclif Bible. The hunger of the people for the Word becomes strikingly manifest when we realize that, as an old writer has stated, 'the readers of the book were burned with the copies around their necks; that men and women were executed for teaching their children the Lord's prayer and the commandments in English; that husbands were made to witness against their wives, and children forced to light the death fires of their parents; and possessors of the banned Wyclif's Bible were hunted down as if they were wild beasts.' 'Certes,' says old John Fox, 'the zeal of those Christian days seems superior to this of our careless times.'

"That 'God moves in a mysterious way His wonders to perform' is recognized as a truism; nor is it less marvelous how He uses the most untoward and unrelated events, apparently, to further His vast designs. About twenty-five years after Wyclif had fallen asleep, little Johann Gooseflesh [Gensfleisch] was having a dull morning in his German home. Left to amuse himself he began to cut the letters of his name out of bark, and to put them together in their proper order. Accidentally dropping the last one into a pot of purple dye that stood beside the stove, he thoughtlessly thrust his hand into the boiling liquid and pulled the letter out, only to drop it again as quickly. But this time it fell upon a white dressed skin that was lying close at hand, and lo! he had a beautiful purple 'h' printed on a rich yellowish ground of vellum. It was a trifling matter, but evidently impressed itself upon little Johann's mind; for about forty years later Johann Gutenberg—he has dropped his father's name and taken his mother's more euphonious one—is turning out the first book ever printed from movable type, in 1456. And what could be more fitting than that it should be a copy of the Latin Vulgate Bible [see PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century; 1430-1456], which is now known as the 'Mazarin Bible,' and has become one of the rarest and most costly books in the world—the last copy sold a few years ago, from the library of Lord Ashburnham, having brought £4,000, or \$20,000. A few years before the invention of printing and the publication of the first printed book, the detestable Turk had begun to close in upon Constantinople with his armies. Happily there had been living in that city many very learned Greek scholars, whose worldly goods consisted chiefly of old manuscripts of the works of Homer, and of Plato and Aristotle, of Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides; and far more interesting for our purposes were the many copies they had of very old manuscripts of the Bible in Greek. Fearing the excesses of the Turks they began to migrate into western Europe, bearing their sacred treasures with them. They found friendly shelter at the courts of some of the patrons of learning, like the Medici in Florence, and at the great universities. And for the first time all the glories of Greek literature and philosophy illuminated the intellectual world of western Europe. Hungry Bible students became possessed of ancient texts of the Bible books in their original language and so became familiar with readings by which it was possible to correct the corrupt texts of the Vulgate. The effect of all this was electrical, and the light of the new

learning soon banished the shadows of the Dark Ages, stirring enthusiasm and arousing such a larger thirst for knowledge as never had been known before. So little Johann Gooseflesh and the unspeakable Turk became the moving forces in events the most beneficent for all mankind that have occurred since the Saviour walked the earth. With this broadening of the intellectual vision came the impulse to test everything; and all existing institutions,—political, religious, social,—all were put on trial. This awakening was one phase of the great change called the Renaissance which came over the Western world, starting at an undefined period towards the close of the Middle Ages, and whose influence is still potent among all civilized peoples. As has been well said: 'Expressed in terms of literature, we call it the revival of letters. Expressed in terms of religion, we call it the Reformation. Contrasted with mediævalism the Renaissance is like a bright fresh morning after a close and sultry night. It represents the change in men's views of life from asceticism to freedom and humanism; from the monastery to the college; from a civilization based on Feudalism and educated by the Latin Church to a civilization educated by science and based, within the restrictions of nationality, in a spiritual inter-community of ideas and interest.' An interesting fact regarding this great movement on its religious side is that it has been confined, almost without exception, to races of Teutonic descent; while all the Latin races, and those that have come under their conquering influence, have clung to the old Church. Among these Teutonic races the Bible has been the teacher and guide in their continued advance toward civil and religious liberty. Luther posted his famous 'Theses' on the door of the church at Wittenberg in 1517, which was the first definite step in the great religious reformation; and the smoke of the initial battle had hardly cleared away before he was at work upon his translation of the Bible into the popular German tongue; he, like all the great reformers, being convinced that neither civil nor ecclesiastical absolutism could long hold in their fetters peoples familiar with the great, essential truths of the Bible, all of which make for freedom. Luther's translation of the New Testament, with pertinent commentary, was published in 1522; and his completed Bible in 1534 [see GERMAN LITERATURE: 1350-1700; PAPACY: 1521-1522]. The New Testament, with many of Luther's tracts, soon found their way into England, and were somewhat important there; while, with the first printed edition of the Greek Testament, edited by the foremost Greek scholar of the age, Erasmus, they spurred on the impulse which was constantly becoming more imperative for an English Bible, translated directly from the new-old manuscripts which had only recently come to the knowledge of Western scholars."—*Ibid.*, pp. 414-410.—See also SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 9th-14th centuries:

16th century.—Tyndale's translation of the Bible.—First division into chapters.—Final revision in 1534.—"In 1484, the year after the birth of Luther, and one hundred years after the death of Wyclif, William Tyndale was born, the most important personality connected with the whole history of our English Bible. Distinguished at a very early age for his remarkable scholarship, he was entered at Oxford, where he took high rank. Changing to Cambridge University later he fell in with Erasmus, who had recently completed his Greek Testament. Tyndale quickly made himself familiar with this, and his spirit was stirred to its depths by this wonderful revelation of Divine love. It had all the force of a new revelation, and

aroused a spirit of earnest study and discussion among the priests at the universities. . . . As has been said, the first printed book was the Mazarin Bible, published in 1456; and the impulse given to the new learning came largely as the result of the capture of Constantinople by the Turks in 1453. England, however, was more backward in appropriating the benefits resulting from those epochal events than were the nations on the Continent. Before the end of the fifteenth century about eighty editions of the Latin Bible had been published in different parts of Europe, and national versions of the entire Bible were circulating in the German, Italian, French, Dutch, Danish, and Spanish languages. In his most excellent work on the 'Evolution of the English Bible,' Mr. H. W. Hoare has collected some data showing how limited had been the facilities for the study of the original texts of the Scriptures, even if the scholars had possessed them. The public teaching of Greek was not introduced into the University of Paris until 1458, and its earliest teacher at Oxford was Grocyn, who went to the University in 1492. The first Greek grammar was published in 1476, the first Greek lexicon in 1480; while the earliest Hebrew grammar was printed in 1503, which was followed by the Hebrew lexicon three years later. The first printed Hebrew Bible appeared in 1486; and the first printed New Testament in Greek, by Erasmus, was published in 1516. Printing was first introduced into England by Caxton, in 1470. So that, even if the clergy had been animated by a desire to study any subjects other than those connected with ecclesiastical Latin and the scholastic theology, the 'tools' at their command could have afforded them but little aid in their work. But as a matter of fact there was an utter paralysis of moral and intellectual purpose among the clergy, which means, of course, among nearly all the so-called learned men of Europe, as the Church, as a general proposition, embraced within its fold all the scholars, as well as all the learning of the age. But this fact did not exalt the scholarship of the clergy to a high plane. Writing about the end of the fifteenth century the distinguished Cardinal Bellarmine, no unfriendly critic, said: 'Some years before the rise of the Lutheran heresy there was almost an entire abandonment of equity in the ecclesiastical judgments; in morals, no discipline; in sacred literature, no erudition; in divine things, no reverence. *Religion was almost extinct.*' And a few years later, in the preface to his work entitled 'The Obedience of a Christian Man,' Tyndale wrote: 'Alas! the curates themselves, for the most part, wot no more what the New or Old Testament meaneth than do the Turks, neither care they but to mumble so much every day as the pie and poppinjay speak, they wot not what, to fill their bellies withal. If they will not let the layman have the word of God in his mother's tongue, yet let the priests have it, which for the greater part of them do understand no Latin at all, but sing and patten all day with the lips only, that which the heart understandeth not.' Still a little later, Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, made a visitation in his diocese, and examined three hundred and eleven clergy. Of these, he reported, *one hundred and sixty-eight were unable to repeat the Ten Commandments; thirty-one were ignorant from whence the Decalogue came; forty could not repeat the Lord's prayer, and about the same number did not even know to whom it should be ascribed.* If such were the shepherds, what of the sheep? . . . Before leaving the university Tyndale had already begun his work of translation; and having heard that Tunstall, the Bishop of London, was a patron

of the new learning, he asked for permission to carry on the work in the episcopal palace under the bishop's patronage. But it was in the study of classical authors only that Tunstall was interested, and Tyndale's proposal received a very cold reception. Through the generosity of a wealthy merchant who had heard him preach, however, and who had become interested in him, Tyndale was able to continue his study and his work of translation during the greater part of the year 1523 under his patron's roof, and with his generous support. But what he saw of the life of the clergy in London during the year proved to him that no mercy would be shown to one who should undertake to give to the people the Bible in their own tongue. Already many of Luther's writings were finding their way into England, and he saw men led to prison and even to execution for possessing and reading such works. 'Wherefore,' as he sadly said, 'I perceived that not only in my Lord [Bishop] of London's palace but in all England there was no room for attempting a translation of the Scriptures.' So in 1524 he sorrowfully left his native land never to see it again; and at Hamburg, in poverty and in distress and in constant danger, he most diligently prosecuted the work of translation, with the result that in 1525 he was able to go to Cologne, the most famous center of printing at that time, and place the copy of the translation in the printer's hands. It was arranged that three thousand copies should be issued in a small quarto edition, with a prologue, references, marginal notes, and with divisions into chapters,—*the division of chapters into verses came much later*. But the spies of the Inquisition were everywhere through Europe; and one of its agents, Cochlaeus, . . . was then in Cologne looking after the publication of a book of his own. . . . [Here] he gradually learned the facts regarding Tyndale's translation, Cochlaeus at once applied to the magistrates, demanding that the sheets be seized and the work stopped; and also dispatched a messenger to the English bishops warning them of their unexpected danger. But, bappily, Tyndale was informed at his lodgings of what had happened; and with a friend rushed to the printer's, seized all the sheets that were printed, and hurriedly fled to Worms, where the enthusiasm for Luther and the Reformation was then at its height. There he at length succeeded in his noble purpose, *producing for the first time in modern English a complete New Testament*. Knowing that as a result of the disclosures of Cochlaeus the greatest vigilance would be exercised to prevent the entry of the books into England, they were dispatched secretly, packed in all kinds of merchandise, in barrels, in bales of cloth, in sacks of flour, and in every covert way that could be devised. Thousands of copies were, however, seized and burned with solemn ceremony at the old cross of St. Paul's 'as a burnt offering pleasing most to Almighty God'; but other thousands supplied their place. The Church had not now to contend with the slow methods of production that attended the distribution of Wyclif's New Testament; the printing press could defy the utmost diligence of the opponents of the work. 'In burning the book,' wrote Tyndale, 'they did none other thing than I looked for; no more shall they do if they burn me also, if it be God's will that it should be so.'

"Seeing that they could not keep the books out of the country, Bishop Tunstall conceived the brilliant scheme of buying up the whole edition in Germany. He accordingly sought out a merchant having extended connections with

German business houses, Augustine Pakington. 'Deeming,' as the old chronicle has it, 'that he hadde God by the toe, whanne in truthe he hadde, as after he thought, the devyl by the fiste,' the bishop urged Pakington to use all diligence and get the books for him, and he would gladly give him whatever they might cost; as he intended 'surely to destroy them all and to burn them at Paul's Cross.' A short time after, Pakington, who was friendly toward Tyndale and knew that his funds were low, sought him out and said: 'Master Tyndale, I have found you a good purchaser for your books.' 'Who is he?' asked Tyndale. 'My Lord of London.' 'But if the Bishop of London wants the books it must be only to burn them.' 'Well, what of that? The Bishop will burn them anyway, and it is best that you should have the money to enable you to imprint others instead.' 'So,' as the chronicle continues, 'the Bishop had the books, Pakington had the thanks, and Tyndale had the money.' 'I am the gladder,' quoth Tyndale, 'for these two benefits that shall come thereof. I shall get money to bring myself out of debt, and the whole world will cry out against the burning of God's word; and the overplus of the money that shall remain with me shall make me more studious to correct the said New Testament, and so to imprint the same once again, and I trust the second will be much better than ever was the first.' Finding that burning Tyndale's books could not prevent their distribution, a vigorous denunciation of them was made from all the pulpits of the land, which was more effective, as only one side of the question was presented. In 1520, however, one of the most powerful preachers of the time, Hugh Latimer, who fortunately enjoyed the favor of the King, preached at Cambridge his celebrated 'Sermons on the Card,' in which he fearlessly championed the translation and universal reading of the Holy Scriptures. The rage of the friars knew no bounds, and it was especially quickened by the realization of the fact that his reasoning was so unanswerable. After many conferences, however, they decided that an opposition sermon must be preached. Friar Buckingham was chosen as their champion, and a Sunday was selected on which he should answer Latimer. On the Sunday named, a great audience assembled; and to illustrate the character of the arguments of the opponents of biblical translation, we quote a few sentences from the sermon. 'Thus,' asked the preacher triumphantly, 'where Scripture saith, no man that layeth his hand to the plough and looking back is fit for the Kingdom of God, will not the ploughman when he readeth these words be apt to forthwith cease from his plough, and then where will be the sowing and the harvest? Likewise, also, whereas the haker readeth, 'A little leaven eneneth the whole lump,' will he not forthwith be too sparing in the use of leaven to the great injury of our health? And so, also, when the simple man reads the words, 'If thine eye offend thee, pluck it out, and cast it from thee,' incontinent he will pluck out his eyes and so the whole realm will be full of blind men, to the great decay of the nation and the manifest loss of the King's grace. And thus, by reading of the Holy Scripture, will the whole realm come into confusion.' . . . In spite of all opposition Tyndale's books were everywhere bought, talked about, and read. . . . But Tyndale had not rested after the completion of his earlier work. He soon began the great task of translating the Old Testament from the original Hebrew into English; and as the first fruit of this labor

appeared his translation of the Pentateuch in 1530. In 1531 he published his translation of the book of Jonah, with a lengthy prologue, reviewing the condition of ecclesiastical affairs in England. After this for some time he seems to have devoted himself to revision, as he expressed his purpose of doing when Pakington's deal with the Bishop of London was consummated; *with the result that in 1534 he published a thorough revision of his New Testament of 1525. This revision has always been regarded as the crowning glory of the great scholar's work.* He had carried into it the same pious enthusiasm which had characterized his labors in translation. The first edition had appeared anonymously for several reasons; but the revision of 1534 had Tyndale's name on the title page, and the preface is headed, 'William Tindale yet once more to the Christen reader.' Prefaces were also written for each book excepting Acts and Revelation, and the original marginal notes were all rewritten.

"But Tyndale's enemies were many and powerful in England, and they were not inactive. For years the weary, hunted, hungry, poverty-stricken exile in German towns had eluded emissaries, though all the subtle craft of the state as well as of the Church had been exercised to get him into their power. But he 'was simple, and inexpert in the wily subtleties of the world'; and through the influence of Sir Thomas More a villainous clergyman, of the most plausible appearance and character however, was sent to Antwerp, where Tyndale was then working, to gain the friendship and confidence of the lonely exile. The scheme worked only too well. Tyndale became deeply attached to this man Phillips, and confided in him, even loaning him money from his ill-lined purse, and caring for him in sickness. His friend Poyntz, with whom Tyndale was lodging in Antwerp, was suspicious of Phillips and warned his lodger to be on his guard. Unfortunately, however, Phillips one day succeeded in leading him some distance from his lodgings, when confederates attacked them, and Tyndale was carried off to the Castle of Vilvorde, near Brussels, where he was cast into a dungeon, which he was never to leave again. . . . After a confinement of about eighteen months, of which but few particulars are obtained, on the 6th of October, 1536, the great, good man was strangled at the stake, and then his body burned to ashes,—his last words being, 'Lord, open the King of England's eyes.' All previous English Versions of the Bible, or parts of it, were simply translations of translations, being taken from some edition of the Vulgate, or older Latin Versions. Tyndale's translation is distinguished not only by the fact that he went back for the first time to the original Hebrew and Greek texts, seeking the true meaning of Scriptures in the original language, but also because of the wonderful character of the translation itself. He fixed for all subsequent time the mold in which the Scripture translations should run, and all later versions, including our so-called Authorized Version, are in reality little more than revisions of Tyndale's work; and all the simplicity, the beauty, the majesty of language and style that have made our Bible the crowning glory of the English language,—all belong to Tyndale. As Froude has well said: 'The peculiar genius which breathes through the English Bible, the mingled tenderness and majesty, the Saxon simplicity, the grandeur, unequalled, unapproached in the attempted improvement of modern scholars, all are here, and bear the impress of the mind of one man, and that man, William Tyndale.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 419-424.

16th-17th centuries.—Coverdale's, Matthew's and Taverner's Bible.—The "Great Bible."—Influence on language and literature.—"After Tyndale, the name most frequently and most closely connected with Bible revision was that of Myles Coverdale. Born in 1488, he was as a young man, attached to the monastery of the Augustine friars at Cambridge; and later was a member of the 'Club of Lutherans' in the University. Though little is known of his early life, he seems to have been an occasional visitor at the house of Sir Thomas More, and to have become intimately acquainted with [Thomas] Cromwell, who was rapidly rising in power and was to succeed his master, Wolsey, in his influence with Henry VIII. About the year 1526 Coverdale became a secular priest, and in 1528 worked in the county of Suffolk. In 1529 he is said to have met Tyndale at Hamburg, and to have worked with him on his translation of the Pentateuch. Though there is no reliable account of Coverdale's movements between 1529 and 1535, it has been surmised that Cromwell, who had become Secretary of State, seeing the course affairs were taking, determined to be ready with a new Bible to introduce at the opportune moment. Knowing Henry's hatred of Tyndale and the consequent impossibility of using his translation, the supposition is that the Secretary communicated with his old friend Coverdale, encouraging him to be ready with a version of his own. However this may be, it is certain that in 1536, while Tyndale still languished in the Vilvorde dungeon, a new Bible appeared in England, printed in black letter, and of small folio size, containing an elaborate and obsequious dedication to King Henry, which was signed by his 'humble subjecte and dayle oratour, Myles Coverdale.' This Bible makes no pretense to being a new and original translation; it is, as its title page states, 'translated out of Douche and Latyn into Englishe, with the help of five sundry interpreters.' That is, translators; and the chief of these was evidently Tyndale, whom he practically copies in the New Testament. This Coverdale Bible is sometimes called 'The Treacle Bible,' because of its rendering of Jeremiah viii. 22: 'Is there no treacle in Gilead?' The exigencies of the obsequious editors are well illustrated by the reference to the King's 'dearest, juste wyfe, and most virtuous princesse,' who is named in the first edition as *Ane*. Dr. Smythe tells us that the copy now in the British Museum has the same inscription, but *Ane* has been changed to *Jane*,—thus, *JANE*. Other copies have some *Ane* and some *Jane*, while some leave the space blank, the editors apparently being unable to keep pace with Henry's rapid matrimonial ventures.

"The version known as 'Matthew's Bible' appeared in 1537. This was really the work of John Rogers, one of the noted early reformers and the literary executor of Tyndale, who suffered martyrdom during Mary's reign. The suppression of his name is easily accounted for by his well-known close connection with Tyndale, as well as on account of his liberal opinions. This version was Tyndale's work pure and simple, excepting the latter half of the Old Testament, which the latter did not live to complete; that matter was taken chiefly from Coverdale's Bible. The peculiar thing about the reception of Matthew's Bible was the fact that Tyndale's work was not recognized at the time, though all his anti-papal marginal notes were reproduced exactly as in the original edition. Archbishop Cranmer, one of the Tyndale's bitterest opponents, declared the Matthew's 'better than any translation heretofore made,' and he would 'rather see it licensed by the King than

receive £1,000.' Moreover he thought 'if they waited till the bishops should set forth a better translation they would wait till the day after doomsday.'

"In 1539 what is known as 'Taverner's Bible' appeared; but this was little more than a revision of 'Matthew's Bible,' by a private scholar. But there were several reasons, mostly political, why none of these versions were entirely satisfactory. Cromwell and others high in authority were determined to have the Scriptures in a form that should really be worthy to stand as a National Bible. Again Coverdale was appealed to and he took charge of the work. Apparently thinking that there was virtue in bigness, it was arranged that this should be the largest Bible ever made, and that it should be produced in the most perfect form mechanically. Accordingly, it was arranged that the printing should be done by Regnault of Paris, one of the most famous book-makers of the period; and Coverdale went to Paris in 1538 to supervise the work. Although Regnault had a special license from the King of France to prosecute this work, they labored in constant fear of the interference of the Inquisitor General of the Inquisition; and before the work was completed in December, an order for confiscation was issued, and Regnault was cited. By some peculiar business transaction, however, in which bribery was understood to be an important factor, a large proportion of the sheets were soon recovered; and then Regnault's entire outfit for this work was moved to London,—compositors, type, presses, and all,—where the work was completed. This 'Great Bible' as it has always been called, was first published in April, 1539, and *'was authorized to be read and frequented in every Church in the Kingdom.'* It was a very large folio, in black letter, and was regarded as the finest specimen of the printer's art extant. One of its distinctive features was a marvelous allegorical frontispiece said to have been designed by Hans Holbein. In anticipation of the appearance of this work Cromwell had prepared an injunction, issued in September, 1538, by which all the clergy were ordered to provide before a specified date *'one boke of the whole bible, in the largest volume, in Englyshe, sett up in summe convenient place within the church that ye have cure of, whereat your parishoners may most commodiously resort to the same and read yt.'* This injunction had the full authority of a royal command; and thus within thirteen years of the burning of Tyndale's New Testament at St. Paul's cross, the battle for the free use of the English Bible had been fought and won. First, forbidden; then, silently tolerated; and next licensed, it was now commanded by the King's highness to be set up for the benefit of each one of the many thousand parishes of the land. This meant that in every church at least one of these 'Great Bibles' should be placed on a stand, or attached to the pillars or wall of the church in such a way that any person who was so inclined could have free access to it at any time. Bishop Bonner had six of the Bibles set up in St. Paul's; and we are told that 'many well disposed people used much to resort to the hearing thereof, especially when they could get any that had an audible voice to read to them.' And the name of one young man, otherwise unknown to fame, John Porter, has become historic, because he was large of body and lusty of voice, 'a fresh young man of big stature,' who delighted many by his reading of the Word. As the old chronicle has it: 'One John Porter used sometimes to be occupied

in that goodly exercise, to the edifying of himself as well as others; and great multitudes would resort thither to hear him, because he could read well and had an audible voice.' And the old annalist, Strype, in his life of Archbishop Cranmer, said: 'It is wonderful to see with what joy this book of God was received, not only among the learned sort, but generally, all England over, among all the vulgar and common people, and with what greediness God's word was read. Everybody that could bought the book, or busily read it, or got others to read it to them.' But what was this 'Great Bible'? It has been variously described as a compilation from Matthew's and Coverdale's Bibles, and as a revision of Matthew's, Coverdale acting as editor, with reference to some other versions. But the interesting fact is that it is, like its predecessors, in reality only another version of Tyndale's great work; and that the noble martyr 'though dead, yet speaketh.' A second edition, in which parts of the Old Testament were revised, appeared in April, 1540, which was followed by two more editions that year, and three the next year, 1541. The edition of November, 1540, bore on its title page an authorization by Tunstall, Bishop of London, who thus gave official sanction to the work of Tyndale, which fourteen years before he had proscribed and burned at the cross of St. Paul's.

"But a reaction now set in, which temporarily checked the continued publication of the Scriptures, though it did not quench the zeal of the people. Henry was no more pleased with the spirit to which the teachings of the Bible were giving life, than he had been with the overbearing claims of the Papacy; and after the execution of Cromwell he became distinctly hostile to the principles and practices of the Protestant leaders. In 1543 it was ordered that all translations of Scriptures bearing the name of Tyndale should be destroyed; that all notes and comments in other Bibles should be obliterated; and the common people were forbidden to read any part of the Bible either in public or private. In 1546 Coverdale's New Testament was joined in the same condemnation as Tyndale's, and a great destruction of the earlier Testaments took place. So that not only was the making of new translations suspended for several years, but the very existence of all that had been made was endangered. But the common people had already caught clear visions of a realm of light and freedom, and no royal command could quench their thirst for further knowledge. When the Great Bibles were set up in the churches to be read by all men, the gates had been opened, and no earthly power could close them again. It is difficult for us of the twentieth century to appreciate what this change meant. Accustomed as the English speaking peoples of to-day are to the issue of a score of thousand of new books every year, on every conceivable subject, and to the daily, weekly, and monthly ministrations of a like number of papers and periodicals of every character, we can with difficulty place ourselves in the position of our English ancestors of the early days of Elizabeth, when the Bible was practically the only literature with which they were familiar. As [John Richard] Green has said: 'The whole moral effect which is produced now-a-days by the religious newspapers, the tract, the essay, the missionary report, the sermon, was then produced by the Bible alone; and its effect in this way, however dispassionately we examine it, was simply amazing. The whole nation became a church.' The English people have, in a very true sense, been the people of one book;

and to form any definite and proper estimate of the value of that book, one must realize how it has entered into, given direction to, and affected the trend of all the literary, social, political, and religious thought and activities of that people from the days of the new birth, or Renaissance, down to what we are pleased to consider the full-orbed day of civil and religious liberty, and of general enlightenment, in which we live. That this has been so, is the result of conditions that attended the first presentation of the Bible to the people; and as it would be idle for another to try to improve upon the account of those conditions which Green has so superbly and interestingly elaborated in his 'History of the English People,' we shall quote a few sentences from his account to illustrate our position. 'All the prose literature of England,' he says, 'save the forgotten tracts of Wycliff, has grown up since the translation of the Scriptures by Tyndale and Coverdale. So far as the nation at large was concerned, no history, no romance, hardly any poetry, save the little-known verse of Chaucer, existed in the English tongue, when the Bible was ordered to be set up within the churches. Sunday after Sunday, day after day, the crowds that gathered round the Bibles in the nave of St. Paul's, or the family group that hung on its words in the doctrinal exercises at home, were leavened with a new literature. Legend and annal, war-song and psalm. State-roll and biography, the mighty voices of prophets, the parables of Evangelists, stories of mission journeys, of perils by sea and among the heathen, philosophic arguments, apocalyptic visions, all were flung broadcast over minds unoccupied for the most part by any rival learning. . . . The power of the book over the mass of Englishmen showed itself in a thousand superficial ways, and in none more conspicuously than in the influence it exerted on ordinary speech. It formed, we must repeat, the whole literature which was practically accessible to ordinary Englishmen; and when we recall the number of common phrases which we owe to great authors, the bits of Shakespeare, of Milton, of Dickens, of Thackeray, which unconsciously interweave themselves in our ordinary talk, we shall better understand the strange mosaic of biblical words and phrases which colored English talk three hundred years ago. The mass of picturesque allusion and illustration which we borrow from a thousand books our fathers were forced to borrow from one. When Spenser poured forth his warmest love-notes in the "Epithalamion," he adopted the very words of the Psalmist, as he bade the gates open for the entrance of his bride. When Cromwell saw the mists break over the hills of Dunbar, he hailed the sunburst with the cry of David, "Let God arise, and let his enemies be scattered. Like as the smoke vanisheth, so shalt thou drive them away." Even to common minds this familiarity with grand poetic imagery in prophet and apocalypse gave a loftiness and ardor of expression that, with all its tendency to exaggeration and bombast, we may prefer to the slipshod vulgarisms of today.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 424-428.

16th-18th centuries.—Geneva or "Breeches" Bible.—First division into verses.—Modern type first used.—The Bishop's Bible.—"The brief freedom that was accorded the people in the use of the Bible by Edward VI., who succeeded Henry VIII. in 1547, was again restricted under Mary, who came to the throne in 1553. . . . Although her reign lasted but five years, about three hundred Protestants were burned at the stake, including Cranmer and John Rogers, the real

author, as we have seen, of Matthew's Bible, and the friend of Tyndale. Prominent among the other prelates who witnessed to their faith at the stake, were Ridley, Bishop of London, and Latimer, Bishop of Worcester, celebrated alike for their great learning and virtue. . . . But our immediate interest lies with the little band of fugitives from the Marian persecutions which found a safe refuge in Geneva, where Calvin had already become firmly established, and which was a stronghold of the whole reform movement. Besides Calvin and Knox there was then in Geneva Theodore Beza, recognized as the foremost biblical scholar of that day. A distinguished body of French scholars was also assembled there, engaged in making a translation of the Bible into their language for the use of French Protestants. Into this congenial atmosphere came several of the leading English Bible scholars who had fled across the channel, including Coverdale; and they immediately began to work upon a revision of the 'Great Bible.' A New Testament was first issued in 1557 by Whittingham, a fellow of All Saints College, Oxford, and a relative of Calvin by marriage. But this was very soon superseded by a more comprehensive and complete revision of the whole Bible, in which work Coverdale, Beza, and others took part in addition to Whittingham. The bases used for revision were the 'Great Bible' for the Old Testament, and Tyndale's revision of 1534 of the New Testament. This 'Geneva Bible' as it has always been called, published in 1560, was notable in many respects. It was the first Bible printed in modern roman type instead of the old black letter which had always been used before. It was also the first Bible in which the modern division of chapters into verses occurs. In all previous translations only a division into chapters or paragraphs had been made, a form to which the Revisers of 1880 reverted. In the making of versions of the Bible, or New Testament, the custom of writing comments in the margin had been universal from very early times. Beginning with Wyclif these became of a polemical character, not merely explanations or illustrations of the matter of the text; and Tyndale and others followed the steps of Wyclif. The 'Geneva Bible' was not only richly supplied with marginal notes of this character, but also added a large number proclaiming the Calvinistic and Protestant teaching against the divine right of kings and all forms of absolutism,—an innovation which, we shall see later, played an important part in determining the form of our Authorized Version. The 'Geneva' was for a long time familiarly known as the 'Breeches' Bible, from its rendering of Gen. iii. 7, where Adam and Eve were said to have 'sewed fig-tree leaves together, and made themselves breeches.' Though it was never authorized for use in churches, its convenient form, a small quarto, its legible type, and its intelligent and sensible commentary immediately gained for it the popular approval, so that it became the Bible of the home and for all general reading; and during the half century that intervened between its publication and the completion of the King James version in 1611, more than one hundred and twenty distinct editions came from the press. Not the least interesting fact about this Geneva Bible, to American readers, is that it was the Bible used by our Puritan ancestors, and the one which the Pilgrims brought with them to Plymouth in 1620.

"With the accession of Elizabeth in 1558, a brighter day dawned for the English Bible, as with the death of Mary had closed the final chapter in the history of the supremacy of the Catholic

Church in England and Scotland. The public reading of the Bible in the churches was at once restored and the clergy were again required to have a copy of the 'Great Bible' publicly displayed in the churches to which all should have free access. The publication of the Geneva Bible, however, at once weakened the position of its rival, even churchmen recognizing the great superiority of the former. But the partisan character of its notes made its acceptance for use in the public service of the churches out of the question. Consequently Parker, Archbishop of Canterbury, conceived the idea of a revision of the Great Bible to be made by a number of scholars working separately. Portions of the Bible were assigned to each of the divines selected for the revision, and the whole work then passed through the hands of the archbishop as editor. This was known as the 'Bishop's Bible,' and was published in 1568. It at once superseded the 'Great Bible' for use in the churches, no edition of the latter having been printed later than 1569. As a whole, however, the work was far from satisfactory, and the Geneva Bible still easily held its place in popular favor, the Bishop's having practically no sale except for use in the churches. During the last third of the sixteenth century, therefore, there were three different Bibles in more or less common use; the 'Geneva,' in the homes and the familiar use of the people; the Bishop's, the translation supported by ecclesiastical authority; and the 'Great Bible,' which was still to be found chained to the walls or pillars of many churches throughout the kingdom."—*Ibid.*, pp. 428-431.

17th century.—King James and the Authorized Version of 1611.—"Upon the death of Elizabeth the crown passed from the Tudors to the Stuarts, and James VI. of Scotland became James I. of England. One of the most peculiar and uninteresting kings that ever sat on any throne, it seems passing strange that we owe to one of his pronounced peculiarities,—his inordinate love of theological disputation,—the most admired of the English versions of the Bible. . . . His reading, especially in theology, was exhaustive; and he was a voluminous author on subjects which ranged from predestination to tobacco. But his shrewdness and learning only left him, in the phrase of Henry IV. of France, 'the wisest fool in Christendom.' Very early in his reign grievances from the Puritan wing of the church were pressed upon the King, and in 1604 he held a conference at Hampton Court to consider the subject of toleration, to which bishops and Puritan clergy were alike invited. In the course of a lengthy discussion of religious affairs, Dr. Reynolds, a Puritan, and the head of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, urged the need of a new revision of the Bible, which should be such as could be accepted by all, and so become a bond of union between rival religious communities. Coming from a Puritan the proposition seemed likely to fail of serious consideration, Bancroft, Bishop of London, remarking 'if every man had his humor about new versions, there would be no end of translating.' But the proposal appealed to James, and he quickly saw that such a work well done would confer great distinction on his reign, while having, in a sense, the supervision of it would afford him many opportunities for the display of his theological learning, of which he was inordinately proud. Moreover he had had many and irritating controversies with the Calvinists of Scotland, Andrew Melvil, for instance, once having snapped his fingers in the King's face, and called him 'God's silly vassal.' He had, therefore, conceived a violent hatred of

the 'Geneva Bible,' whose whole atmosphere was hostile to the cardinal doctrine of the Stuarts,—'the divine right of kings.' It is not surprising, therefore, that James shortly after suggested a scheme for the prosecution of the work, along the general lines that the revision should be executed mainly by the universities; that it should be approved by the bishops and most learned men of the whole church, by the privy council, and by the King himself, so that the whole church should be concerned in it; and especially important, in view of the results, was the absolute prohibition of the usual marginal commentaries which might tend to make it a Bible of one party only,—marginal notes only to be used for the purpose of explaining, when deemed necessary, any Hebrew or Greek words. The scheme of revision was drawn up in 1604, though the work was not formally begun until 1607. The body of revisers was a very able one, including the professors of Hebrew and Greek at both universities, with practically all the leading scholars of the day. Their number varied from forty-eight to fifty; and they were divided into six groups, of which two sat at Westminster, two at Oxford, and two at Cambridge. In the first instance each group worked separately on a special part of the Bible assigned to it, and when any group had finished the revision of its allotted portion, the matter was sent to all the others for their criticism or suggestions; while ultimate differences of opinion were to be settled at a general meeting of the chief members of each company. Two years and nine months of arduous labor were consumed in the work, the last nine months being devoted to the final revision; and in 1611 the results of their labors were published. *This has always been known as the 'King James Version,' or as the 'Authorized Version,' by which title it is most frequently designated and cited;* yet, strangely, apart from the appearance on the title page of the words 'appointed to be read in the churches,' *there is no record whatever of any decree of King, parliament, or convocation, ordaining its use.* As against the Bishop's Bible it quickly established its superiority; but the struggle between it and the Geneva Bible was long and somewhat heated, and for more than fifty years they existed side by side, just as the Authorized Version and the Revised have existed since 1885. But the recognized superior merit of the King James Version, and its freedom from any party or sectarian spirit, eventually won the day for it, so that by the middle of the seventeenth century it had taken its undisputed place as the Bible of the English nation. All learned and serious-minded people realized that in its preparation the translation had passed out of the sphere of controversy; that it had been made a national undertaking in which no one had any interest at heart save that of producing the best possible version of the Scriptures. But another important element that contributed to the excellence of the translation was the constant improvement of literary expression and taste during the fifty years preceding the revision. We have already referred to the absolute lack of books and of literary culture when the 'Great Bible' was published; but in the intervening period some of the most noted poets and prose writers of English literature,—Spenser, Sidney, Hooker, Marlowe, Shakespeare, to name only a few of the greatest,—had combined to establish and cultivate a literary style and to fix a high standard of literary taste. *And it was under such influences that the revisers wrought out the fine material left them by Tyndale and his successors into that grandest monument of Elizabethan prose,*

the version of 1611. As one has well said: 'The English of the Authorized Version is the finest specimen of our prose literature at a time when English prose wore its stateliest and most majestic form.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 431-432.

Bible used in Roman Catholic Churches.—“As the history of the Bible as used in the Roman Catholic churches, and the measure of its agreement with the one used in the Protestant churches is not generally understood, it seems desirable to describe the origin and development of the former, as we have already done of the latter. In 1903 Miss Helen Gould, having had some controversial correspondence with Father Early of Hastings-on-the-Hudson, offered through Dr. White, president of the Bible Teachers' Training School, prizes for the three best essays upon the accepted Catholic Bible and the American revision of 1901. These prizes were respectively one thousand, five hundred, and two hundred and fifty dollars. Two hundred and sixty-five essays were submitted. A competent and scholarly board of seven judges unanimously agreed upon three of these as most completely and learnedly covering the ground specified. These have since been published in a volume entitled 'Roman Catholic and Protestant Bibles Compared. The Gould Prize Essays' (Charles Scribner's Sons). They give an amount of reliable information upon the subjects discussed—all buttressed by an array of references to and quotations from Catholic and Protestant Bible students, decrees of councils, and ecclesiastical authorities,—such as has never before been accessible to the general reader in a single volume in the English language. It is a work that every Bible student should be familiar with; and we gratefully acknowledge an indebtedness to it for many facts, and especially for the translations of church decrees, and similar documents. The Bible in use in the Roman Catholic Church has for its basic version the Vulgate of St. Jerome. An account of his preparation of that version has already been given above. In 1545 the Council of Trent, after a prolonged debate, decreed: 'The same old and Vulgate edition, which has been approved by long use for so many ages in the Church itself, is to be regarded as authentic in public readings, controversies, discourses, and expositions, and nobody may dare or presume to reject it on any pretense.' And it was further declared to be unlawful 'for anyone to print or cause to be printed any books whatsoever on sacred matters without the name of the author; nor to sell them in future, or even to keep them by them, unless they shall have been first examined and approved by the ordinary.' But the chief source of confusion in the church arose from the fact that there were so many and variant editions of the Vulgate in existence, scores of them differing one from another so that there could not be said to be any commonly received text. This point, however, was not touched upon by the Council of Trent. The oldest extant manuscript of the Vulgate, known as the *Codex Amiatinus*, as it came from the convent of Monte Amiata, near Sienna, Italy, is now the most valued treasure of the Mediceo-Laurentian library at Florence. It was originally made in England by order of Ceolfrid, and by him presented to Pope Gregory II. about 715 A. D. Even when this was made the texts must have been very corrupt, as copies had been made constantly during three hundred years; and as we have before shown, early scribes rarely hesitated to take liberties with the texts they were copying, adding or omitting words or phrases if such additions or omissions seemed to them to improve the text. As Gigot, the learned Professor of

Sacred Scriptures at St. Mary's Seminary, Baltimore, Md., says in his 'General Introduction to the Study of the Holy Scriptures': 'During the course of the two centuries which elapsed between the time of St. Jerome and the general reception of his work, corruptions of a very extensive character crept naturally into the text of the Latin Vulgate. Not only the ordinary mistakes of transcription . . . were made . . . but the peculiar relation in which our Vulgate stood to the old Latin Version . . . led to a strange mixture of texts. From sheer familiarity with the words of the older version the transcribers of the Vulgate wrote down its words instead of those of St. Jerome. Another fertile source of corruption . . . consisted in the lack of critical sense in most of the transcribers and owners of manuscripts during the Middle Ages; time and again they inserted in their copies of Holy Writ glosses drawn from other manuscripts, from parallel passages, from the sacred liturgy, from the writings of St. Jerome, or even of Josephus, and thought that they had thereby secured what they were pleased to call *pleniores codices* (more complete texts), while they had simply added to the corruptions already existing.'

"Even when the Council of Trent convened more than seventy different editions of the Vulgate had been published since the invention of printing; and generally the printer used the most available copy without regard to its authenticity or accuracy. In view of these facts an appeal was made to the Pope shortly after the close of the Council to determine upon a text that should be deemed and recognized as authoritative. It was some years, however, before the subject received serious consideration. But toward the end of the sixteenth century one of the noted scholars of the church became Pope, as Sixtus V. In 1587 he appointed a committee of six scholars to revise the Vulgate, reserving for himself the decisive voice in the revision. As Pope, he prefaced this revision with a Bull giving it the approval of his 'apostolic authority transmitted from the Lord,' and decreeing that it should be used 'as true, legitimate, authentic, and undoubted in all public and private debates, readings, preachings, and explanations'; and anyone who ventured to change it without Papal authority would 'incur the wrath of God Almighty and of the blessed Apostles Peter and Paul.' Reserving a copyright for ten years, he ordered that all future editions must conform with it, and that all existing copies should be corrected by it and be officially certified by inquisitor or bishop. Sixtus dying in 1590 his revision was held for further scrutiny, as something like two thousand of his personal corrections of the committee's work had been proved erroneous. In 1592 a revision of the revision of Sixtus was issued under the authority of Clement VIII. This revision was also preceded by a Bull of Clement similar in terms to that of Sixtus. Corrected editions followed in 1592, 1593, and 1598, all of which are credited to Sixtus instead of Clement. . . . The Clementine Vulgate in the edition of 1598 became the authorized text of that version for use in the Roman Catholic Church, and is to-day the standard for all Catholic versions of the Scriptures, from which, according to the Bull of Clement, none may vary. The many translations of the Bible into the English tongue during the sixteenth century had excited a popular enthusiasm which affected Catholics as well as Protestants; and the apprehended danger to Catholic readers from contact with the marginal notes of the Protestant Bibles forced the authorities of the Roman Church to yield an unwilling assent to a translation for their own people. The reign of

Elizabeth was not a propitious one for the Catholic Church in England. Many of its priests and scholars, therefore, took refuge on the Continent; and among them was a distinguished and learned graduate of Oxford, William Allen. With the approval of the Pope he established, in 1568, a seminary at Douay, in France, for the training of English Catholics. Ten years later the school was removed to Rheims, where the translation of the Bible was begun. That it was not undertaken with good grace the preface to the work clearly shows. The translators there declare that they have not taken the step from an 'erroneous opinion of necessity that the Holy Scriptures should always be in the mother tongue, or that they ought to be read indifferently by all. Not for these causes do we translate this sacred book.' But they consider that some things are 'medicineable now that otherwise in the peace of the church were neither much requisite, nor perchance wholly tolerable.' Moreover Allen, in a letter, expressed his aversion to the work. 'Perhaps indeed it would have been more desirable,' he wrote, 'that the Scriptures had never been translated into barbarous tongues; nevertheless at the present day, when either from heresy or other causes, the curiosity of men, even of those who are not bad, is so great, and there is often also such need of reading the Scriptures in order to confute our opponents, it is better that there should be a faithful and Catholic translation than that men should use a corrupt version to their peril or destruction; the more so since the dangers which arise from reading certain more difficult passages may be obviated by suitable notes.' Associated with Allen in this undertaking were Gregory Martin, reputed to be one of the most learned Hebrew and Greek scholars of his time, Richard Bristow, and Dr. Worthington, all distinguished Oxford scholars. Martin translating, his co-laborers revised his work, with the result that in 1582 the New Testament, with notes by Allen and Bristow, was published at Rheims. As the standard Clementine Vulgate was published in 1598, a new edition of the Rheims New Testament was issued in 1600 at Antwerp. In 1609 the Old Testament, with notes by Worthington, was published at Douay, forming, with the New Testament described above, the Rheims and Douay Bible, or, as it is commonly called, the 'Douay Bible.' Though this has since been accepted as the authorized version of the Holy Scriptures to be used in the Catholic Church, it has never received Papal indorsement. As Cardinal Newman has said: 'It has never had any episcopal imprimatur, much less has it received any formal approbation from the Holy See. It comes to us on the authority of certain divines of the Cathedral and College of Rheims and of the University of Douay, confirmed by the subsequent indirect recognition of English, Scotch, and Irish bishops and its general reception by the faithful.' In making their translation Allen and his associates worked upon what they considered the best texts of the Vulgate. 'It must be said,' declares Professor Gigot, 'that, since the Douay version was made very closely from Latin manuscripts, or editions of the sixteenth century, anterior to the official texts published by the Popes Sixtus V. and Clement VIII., it may and does in several cases point to Latin readings no longer found in our editions of the Latin Vulgate.' The translators also followed closely in many places the English translations of Wyclif, Tyndale, and Coverdale. In fact it is only when these early translations are more or less closely adhered to that the Douay version is generally intelligible to the average English reader. A literal translation

of Latin words produced a hard and often incomprehensible literary work. That this fact was recognized by the translators is made evident by their reference to it in their preface. 'We have,' they say, 'kept ourselves as near as possible to our text and to the *very words and phrases made venerable . . . though to some profane or delicate ears they may seem more hard or barbarous.*' And it was this course, with the results it produced, which led the English revisers in publishing the King James version to suggest in their preface that the Douay translators had retained Latin words 'of purpose to darken the sense, that since they must needs translate the Bible, yet by the language thereof it may be kept from being understood.' This unintelligible character of much of the English of the Douay translation and the success of the King James version created a demand for a revision of the former, with the result that such works followed in frequent succession. The most noted of these was the translation of Challoner, Vicar Apostolic of London. In 1749 he brought out an edition of the Rheims New Testament and later of the Douay Bible, 'newly revised and corrected according to the Clementine edition of the Scriptures.' The changes from the language of the Douay version were so many that Challoner's was practically a new translation; and in this translation the King James Version was evidently his guide. So evident is this that Cardinal Newman wrote; 'Looking at Dr. Challoner's labors on the Old Testament as a whole, we may pronounce that they issue in little short of a new translation. They can as little be said to be made on the basis of the Douay as on the basis of the Protestant Version. Of course, there must be a certain resemblance between any two Catholic Versions whatever; because they are both translations of the same Vulgate. But, this connection between the Douay and Challoner being allowed for, Challoner's version is even nearer to the Protestant than it is to the Douay; nearer, that is, not in grammatical structure, but in phraseology and diction.' And further he says: 'After all allowances for the accident of selection (of passages for comparison) it is difficult to avoid the conclusion that at this day the Douay Old Testament no longer exists as a received version of the Authorized Vulgate.' Referring to the same author's revision of the New Testament, Newman says: 'The second Challoner edition of 1750 differs from the first, according to the collations which Dr. Cotton has printed, in about one hundred and twenty-four passages; the third, 1752, in more than two thousand. These alterations, Dr. Cotton tells us, are all in the direction of the Protestant Version.' And Cardinal Wiseman says: 'To call it any longer the Douay or Rhemish version is an abuse of terms. It has been altered and modified till scarcely any verse remains as originally published.'

'In 1783 the Rev. Bernard McMahon, of Dublin, published another revision of the Douay Bible, which is commonly known as the Troy Bible, from the prelate who gave his approbation to the translation. Though this work claims descent from the Challoner version, it differs from it materially, there being more than five hundred variations in the New Testament. These two revisions, however,—Challoner's and Troy's—have become the accepted authorities in the Church, though many other translations have since been made. In 1870 the Vatican Council restated the position of the Church in these words: 'The complete books of the Old and New Testaments with all their parts, as they are received in the decrees of the same Council (of Trent) and contained in

the old Latin Vulgate edition, must be received as sacred and canonical. The Church, moreover, holds these books as sacred and canonical not only because collected by man's industry, since they have been approved by its authority, nor for the reason only that they contain revelation without error, but because, by the inspiration of the Holy Spirit, the collections have God as their author, and as such the churches have handed them down.' The authority for the use of this version in the United States comes from the decrees of the Second Council of Baltimore, held in 1866. After charging that the clergy should take care that their flocks do not 'select the pure food of the word of God unless from approved versions and editions,' the Council declares its position as follows: 'We order, therefore, that the Douay Version, which is received in all churches where the faithful speak English, and which has been justly set forth for the use of the faithful by our predecessors, be altogether retained. Moreover the bishops will take care that the most approved copy should be designated by them, and all editions, both of the Old and New Testaments of the Douay Version be most perfectly made, with such notes as might be selected from the holy Fathers of the Church, or from learned Catholics.' It is evident, therefore, that no translation of the Bible into English has ever received the official approval of the Holy See. While the translation in general use is known as the Douay Bible, it is, nevertheless, Challoner's or Troy's revision of that text, which, as has been shown, amounted to practically new translations. Any of the many revisions that have been made may be used by members of the Catholic Church provided it has received the approval of a bishop or higher prelate. But the only version that has received ecumenical or papal authorization is the Vulgate itself. The position generally maintained by the clergy and laity of the Church was undoubtedly clearly expressed by Father Early in his letter to Miss Gould. 'The Catholic Church,' he wrote, 'has never prohibited any of her members reading the Scriptures or Bible. In every family whose means will permit the buying of a copy, there you will find the authentic version of God's words as authorized by the Church, and which has come down to us, unchanged, from the time of Christ himself. But the Catholic Church does object to the reading of the Protestant Version, which goes back only to the days of Henry VIII. of England, and was then gotten up for obvious reasons.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 432-437.

Curious misprints in old Bibles.—"Ever since the invention of printing the vagaries of compositors have bowed low the heads of publishers and excited the most profane sentiments of authors. That frequent errors should have been made in the earliest days of printing, and that they should have passed inspection and survived to enliven the printed page is hardly to be wondered at. Composition and proof-reading were not then the specialized arts they have since become. Holy writ and secular literature have alike suffered from the lapses of type-setters, many of which have produced a racy humor beyond the conscious wit of man to devise. Collectors of rare and curious books have long since fixed a great value upon certain editions of the Bible which, upon publication, were found to contain gems of the compositor's fancy. These have all been given distinctive titles, suggestive of the character of the blunder they have perpetuated. The *Breeches Bible* and the *Treacle Bible* have already been mentioned; and a brief description of the most valued of the

others may not be without interest. The *Printer's Bible* is so called because where in Psalm cxix. 161, the Psalmist declares that 'Princes have persecuted me without a cause,' he is made by the type-setter to say that, even at that early day, 'printers,' not princes, were the source of his troubles. The *Vinegar Bible* takes its name from an edition of the Authorized Version published in 1717, in which the head-line over Luke xx. calls attention to the 'Parable of the Vinegar,' instead of the Vineyard. The sixteenth verse of Jude reads: 'There are murderers, complainers,' etc. But the luckless compositor thought 'murderers' better expressed the author's meaning, and so became responsible for the *Murderer's Bible*. It would almost seem that the days of Elizabeth were more akin to the twentieth century than we are apt to appreciate; and that political bosses were then the sources of patronage as now. The one who set up the type for the Sermon on the Mount in the Geneva Bible of 1562 was unquestionably an office-seeker, and so naturally declared 'Blessed are the Place-makers' instead of Peacemakers; thus giving birth to the *Place Maker's Bible*. The evil-minded who would annul the Ten Commandments belong to all ages. It is not surprising, therefore, to find a compositor of the time of Charles I. immortalizing himself by producing the *Wicked Bible*, for which it was only necessary to omit the 'not' from the seventh commandment. All pure-minded people, however, will sympathize with the righteous indignation of Archbishop Laud, who promptly fined the offender in the sum of £300 sterling for his indiscretion.

"If St. Paul was conscious of events of the sixteenth century he must have felt that he had just occasion for the application of his injunction, 'Be ye angry and sin not.' For while he had sedulously labored to confirm the Corinthian Christians in righteousness, in I. Cor. vi. 9, urging 'Know ye not that the unrighteous shall not inherit the Kingdom of God?' another absent-minded compositor overlooked the negative, and thus knocked out one of the corner-stones of the great Apostle's theology by declaring that the unrighteous should inherit the Kingdom. And so we have the *Unrighteous Bible*. The *Bug Bible* is of particular interest because of the different use of words at different periods rather than from a printer's error. This edition of Coverdale's Bible made Psalm xci. 5, read: 'Thou shalt not need to be affrayed for eny *bugges* by night.' To the modern ear this has an unpleasant sound. But all disagreeable suggestions vanish when one remembers that the word 'bogy,' which we still use, was in the sixteenth century the common term for anything frightful or fearful, either in its present form, or as 'bug.' The latter is used in the same sense in Purvey's and Matthew's Bibles, though not there in the Psalm quoted. Shakespeare, also, in III. Henry VI., has: 'Warwicke was a *bugge* that fear'd (affrighted) us all'; and in another place: 'The *bug* which you would fright me with, I seek.' Coverdale's translation thus becomes more natural, though none the less amusing to modern readers.

Others, though less interesting and sought after, are the *Goose Bible*, the *Leda Bible*, the *He and She Bibles*, the *Standing Fishes Bible*, etc. Of course but few copies of these Bibles got into circulation, as the errors were quickly noted by some reader. The further issue was then delayed until the objectionable passages had been corrected."—*Ibid.*, pp. 437-438.

Revisions and new interpretations.—For more than two hundred and fifty years the grand old version of 1611 has been the word of God for all

English-speaking Protestant peoples, in all parts of the world. And when, during the latter part of the nineteenth century, urgent calls for a revision of it were made by scholars, the great mass of Christian people protested, and the question naturally was asked on all sides, 'Why do we need a revision?' . . . There are few who were children of Christian families of a half a century ago who were not taught that every individual word of the Bible they used was directly inspired by God,—a teaching that has worked more harm in the world, and made more skeptics, than all heretical teachings combined. The whole beauty and purpose of God's wonderful revelations of Himself, and His purposes, were missed and instead of seeking above all things to learn the will of the Father and then to develop a life in harmony with that will, all the energy of the great majority of Christians has been expended in well-nigh fruitless endeavors to minutely observe the mere letter of the law, while its spirit was too often entirely missed. . . . We have endeavored to show that our English Bible has been evolved, and that the form in which we know and love it is the result of a long series of revisions. Every devout Christian believes that God spake to Holy men of old, and the essential thing for His followers to know is just what He said, regardless of the form in which the message comes to us. For the New Testament we know that the message was written out some eighteen centuries ago in the form of original manuscripts in the Greek language; and for the Old Testament very ancient documents existed which were the written form of traditions that had been accumulated for centuries,—traditions handed down from generation to generation with an exactness of form that could not be made more perfect by the modern form of the printed book. But as we have shown, owing to the persecution of the early church and Christians everyone of such manuscripts had been lost before the fourth century; and for fifteen hundred years the only available form in which their message existed was the Latin Vulgate, itself Jerome's revision of the early Latin versions which in turn were translated from the original Greek Scriptures of the first and second centuries. From about 400 A. D. to 1500 A. D. the only standard to which all translations could be referred was the Vulgate; and as, during that long period, thousands of copies of it had been made, and its original was early lost, it hardly needs any argument to prove that many and perhaps important changes and corruptions must have crept in, and errors and omissions, or additions have been made to the original text. Consequently ever since the awakening of the Christian consciousness in the fourteenth century, the supreme desire of devout scholars has been to find that plumb line of Divine Truth, and to straighten their warped and ill-shaped forms of it by that standard. For the New Testament the imperative need was a reliable Greek text, one that could be relied upon as an essentially corrupt reproduction of the original form of the Gospels, Epistles, and other books. But it was not until 1516, when Erasmus published his Greek Testament, that any approximately accurate guide was obtained; and the material upon which he had to build was of doubtful authority, and unquestionably imperfect; yet it was upon such uncertain foundations that the revisers of 1611 had to build. But during the last century the situation has entirely changed. Not only have three very ancient texts of nearly the whole Bible been discovered (the codices described above), but thousands of other manuscripts, versions, and documents have

come to light, which were entirely unknown to the makers of the Authorized Version. Moreover during the last century a large body of the world's most learned men have devoted their entire study to the comparison and collating of all this material, that is, to textual criticism, with the result that forty or fifty years ago these scholars became assured that they were in a position to determine with great exactness just what the original texts of the Scriptures were; and men like Tischendorf, Tregelles, Westcott, and Hort, were able to practically agree upon a Greek Text for the New Testament which has proved acceptable to all men learned in textual criticism. Their researches had proved beyond question that many readings of our King James Version were erroneous; and the question became a dominant one whether as Christians we should have and teach the word as Christ and the Apostles spoke and wrote it, or whether we should still be content with a superb and grand literary production irrespective of the relation of its contents to the exact truth. Happily the desire to know the truth prevailed; with the result that on the 10th of February, 1870, Bishop Wilberforce proposed in the upper house of the Southern Convocation 'that a committee of both houses be appointed to confer with any committee that may be appointed by the convocation of the northern province, to report on the desirableness of a revision of the Authorized Version of the New Testament, whether by marginal notes or otherwise, in all those passages where plain and clear errors, whether in the Greek text adopted by the translators, or in the translations made from the same, shall on due investigation be found to exist.'

"In our classification of the material upon which revision must be based, we spoke of manuscripts, ancient versions, and the writings of the early fathers. As was then said, the early fathers were voluminous writers and pronounced controversialists, and nearly one half of their works are made up of quotations from the Scriptures as they existed in their time, only a century or two after the Apostolic days. Hence these very profuse quotations become of supreme value in textual criticism, corroborating the texts of the manuscripts or versions that were before the revisers of 1880, who were the first scholars engaged in any such work, practically, to whom this great mass of material was available. Another consideration that made revision seem desirable was the natural growth of the English language since the days of Elizabeth, and the consequent change in the meaning and use of many words. Many an earnest Christian has stumbled over Christ's injunction 'Take no thought for your life, what ye shall eat or what ye shall drink; nor yet for your body, what ye shall put on,' not knowing that when the Authorized Version was made the word 'thought' was used in the sense of worry, anxious thought, fret,—a sense which it has now entirely lost. So what the Master really said was, 'Do not worry, or fret yourself about such matters,' gently assuring his followers that their Heavenly Father knew that they had need of all these things. In the same sense an early chronicler used the word when he wrote that '*Soto died of thought in Florida*,' and Chaucer wrote, 'Which cause is of my death for *sorrowe and thought*.' Another illustration is in the use of the verb 'to let,' which in earlier times had the meaning 'to hinder' and 'prevent.' The Authorized Version makes Paul write to the Thessalonians (II. Th. xi. 7), 'Only he who now *letteth will let*, until he be taken out of the way,' which is evidently the opposite of his meaning. Shakespeare used this word in the same sense, when he

made Hamlet, who would follow his father's ghost, say, 'By Heaven! I'll make a ghost of him that *lets me*'; and in Tennyson's Lancelot and Elaine we read:

"Sir King, mine ancient wound
is hardly whole
And *lets me* from the saddle."

"The work of revision was undertaken by a carefully selected committee of fifty-four members, who were divided into two companies of twenty-seven members each, one company to undertake the revision of the Old and one the revision of the New Testament. These committees were made up of the most noted biblical scholars of Great Britain, the leading professors of the Hebrew and Greek languages in the great universities, with many special students of textual criticism. Sectarian lines were ignored in making up the committees, the leading men of the Church of England, and the noted scholars of the Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist Churches sitting side by side in the prosecution of their great work. The first meeting of the revisers was held in June, 1870, in the renowned Jerusalem Chamber of Westminster Abbey. The work of revising the New Testament occupied the attention of its company for ten years, during which time the average number of meetings was forty each year; and in May, 1881, the Revised Version of the New Testament was published, which was followed by the Old Testament in July, 1884, and a complete Revised Version of the entire Bible was published in May, 1885. As a very complete account is given in the preface to the Revised Version of all the conditions attending its preparation, we shall not recite the details here. Christian people all over the world had followed the reports of the work of the committees with deep interest and the result was anxiously looked for. More than three million copies of the Revised New Testament were sold within one year after its issue, and the complete Bible received a cordial welcome when it appeared later. Shortly after the beginning of their work the English revisers solicited the co-operation of American Bible scholars, and two companies were organized in the United States similar to the companies in England, who worked together harmoniously during the remainder of the revision period. Some of the suggestions of the American committees that were not accepted by the English revisers were added to the completed Bible as an appendix. By the mutual agreement under which the work of the two national committees was prosecuted, the American revisers had bound themselves not to publish any American revision for fourteen years. During this period, however, they had kept up their organization and a great deal of critical study had been devoted to the English version of 1885. And at the expiration of the fourteen years' period the American revision committee decided to publish a standard Revised Version for the United States, which came from the press of Thomas Nelson & Sons in 1901. This embodies all the suggestions of the American revisers which were not accepted by the English companies, and in other ways materially differs from the English Revised Version. This American revision has become the standard in this country and is unquestionably as near a true rendering of the Holy Scriptures as can be made.

"As we have seen, loud protests have been made by those to whom old versions have become familiar and dear, whenever revisions have been proposed. When Jerome made the Vulgate, which

superseded the Old Latin Bible; when the King James Version came into competition with the home Bible of the people, the 'Geneva'; and recently again, when the Revised Version was offered in preference to the Authorized Version, the same cry has in every instance been raised, 'They are taking away our Bible.' But just as the 'Geneva' and 'King James' Versions existed side by side for more than half a century, so the later revision is living harmoniously with the beloved Authorized Version; and after twenty-five years of such friendly rivalry Christian people have come to realize that in the work of revision nothing rightly tending to subvert the faith of any believer has been set up. Many readings and expressions which had become as familiar to us as household words in the Authorized Version, have been changed in the revised, and we cannot help feeling that something has been lost. But the essential fact is that after from ten to fifteen years of the most critical study and deliberation of the foremost biblical scholars of England and America, during which time thousands of manuscripts, versions, and translations covering a period of more than fifteen hundred years, have been studied and compared, it has not been found necessary to change or materially restate any essential truth as set forth in the King James Version. So that we have not lost our Bible; but we have gained the priceless assurance that we have, essentially correct, the Scriptures as they were known to the Christians of the first and second centuries. . . . Some time after the appearance of the Revised Version, a well-known clergyman published a book entitled, 'What is left of the Bible?' Much better might it be asked, 'What has been lost from our Bible?' and a truthful answer would be 'Nothing.' Not one of the grand truths that have placed these sacred books so far above all other books of religious or philosophical thought has been assailed; and for nearly all, the same exalted statement remains. The old Bible, dear to millions of people both for its simple expression of the thoughts of every human heart and for the beauty and majesty of its literary form, holds a more exalted position to-day than ever before. The esteem in which any great work has been held by the most learned, serious-minded, and eminently experienced men of the past naturally interests their readers of following generations. We cannot, therefore, better bring this story of the evolution of our English Bible to a close than by quoting the opinions regarding it of many of the distinguished statesmen, prose-writers and poets of the recent and more remote past. Rev. R. Heber Newton, in his book, 'The Right and Wrong Uses of the Bible,' and Professor T. H. Pattison in his 'History of the English Bible,' in particular, have brought together a great number of these testimonies from a wide range of sources; and we gladly acknowledge our indebtedness to them for several of the sentiments which follow."—*Ibid*, pp. 438-442.

Modern estimates of the Bible.—"Emerson wrote: 'Europe has always owed to Oriental genius its divine impulses. What these holy bards said, all sane men found agreeable and true. And the unique impression of Jesus upon mankind, whose name is not so much *written* as *ploughed into the history of the world*, is proof of the subtle virtue of this infusion.' And in the same manner that the name of Jesus has been 'ploughed' into history, the noble and soul-satisfying teachings of the Bible have been 'ploughed' into the human consciousness of English-speaking peoples. What a blank would most of our best literature be, could the Bible and its influences be withdrawn

from it! Poets, orators, statesmen, novelists have, one and all, drawn from its pages their highest inspiration and a large proportion of their most impressive thought, as well as the standard of form for its expression. 'The English Bible,' says Macaulay; 'a book which if everything else in our language should perish, would alone suffice to show the full extent of its beauty and power.' Along the same line John Stuart Mill wrote: 'The Bible and Shakespeare have done more than any other books for the English language, introducing into the soul of it such grand ideas expressed with such sublime simplicity.' But 'Shakespeare,' says Emerson, 'the first literary genius of the world, the highest in whom the moral is not the predominating element, leans on the Bible; his poetry presupposes it.' And Bishop Wordsworth has cited five hundred and forty passages from Shakespeare, where the poet uses the exact words of the Bible, or uses its image or thought with a slightly varied form of expression.

"As a mere literary monument," wrote J. R. Green, 'the English Bible remains the noblest example of the English tongue, while its perpetual use made it from the instant of its appearance, the standard of our language.' 'People imagine,' says Emerson, 'that the place which the Bible holds in the world, it owes to miracles; it owes it simply to the fact that it came out of a profounder depth of thought than any other book.' Milton and Dante lived, moved, and had their intellectual being in the atmosphere of the Bible; while Tennyson, Browning, Wordsworth, Coleridge, Pope, Dryden, Addison, drank at the same fountain of exalted wisdom and sublime expression, and gladly witnessed to their obligation. 'There can be no songs comparable to the songs of Zion,' wrote Milton; 'no orations equal to those of the prophets; and no politics like those the Scriptures teach.' It is said to have been Edmund Burke's habit to read a chapter in Isaiah before going to speak in the House of Commons. 'Isaiah,' said he, 'possessed both the blaze of eloquence and the light of truth'; and Washington Irving declared: 'I think I have waked a good many sleeping fancies by the reading of a chapter in Isaiah.' Matthew Arnold, easily the most distinguished literary critic of his time, edited Isaiah as a text book for the culture of the imagination in English schools; and in his preface to that work exclaims with enthusiasm: 'What a source of eloquence and poetry is the Bible in our schools!' In another place the same writer says: 'Of conduct, which is more than three-fourths of life, the Bible, whatever people may think or say, is the great inspirer.' In his conversation with Eckermann, Goethe said: 'Let mental culture go on advancing, let the natural sciences go on gaining in depth and breadth and the human mind expand as it may, it will never go beyond the elevation and moral culture of Christianity, as it glistens and shines in the Gospel.' And Thomas Jefferson wrote: 'Of all the systems of morality, ancient and modern, which have come under my observation, none appear to me so pure as that of Jesus.' Daniel Webster was an habitual reader of the Bible and attributed his wonderful vocabulary of the simplest yet most forceful language to the influence of the Scriptures, while he held its moral standards as far superior to those of any other religion. In one of his remarkable orations he says: 'If we abide by the principles taught in the Bible, our country will go on prospering and to prosper; but if we and our posterity neglect its instruction and authority, no man can tell how sudden a catastrophe may overwhelm us, and bury all our glory in profound obscurity.' One of his most admired passages was the reference to the

besetting force of 'duty,' which closed his argument in the famous White murder case. 'A sense of duty,' he said, 'pursues us ever. It is omnipresent like the Deity. If we take to ourselves the wings of the morning and dwell in the uttermost parts of the sea, duty performed or duty violated, is still with us for our happiness or our misery. If we say surely the darkness shall cover us, in the darkness as in the light our obligations are yet with us. We cannot escape their power, nor fly from their presence,'—all of which is merely the most literal paraphrase of the Psalmist's sense of the omnipresence of God, as expressed in the 130th Psalm. In his 'History of the Jewish Church,' Dean Stanley recalls reminiscences of the great historian of Israel, Ewald, saying: 'It is impossible to forget the noble enthusiasm with which this dangerous heretic, as he was regarded in England, grasped the small Greek Testament which he had in his hand as we entered, and said '*In this little book is contained all the wisdom of the world.*' Carlyle read his Bible continually, insisting that it was the greatest work in the world; and the book of Job, which was his closest friend, he considered 'one of the grandest things ever written with pen.' Indeed, it is related of him that once visiting at a country house he was asked to conduct the family worship; and starting to read that immortal poem he forgot his surroundings, and did not stop until he had read all of its forty-two chapters. Ruskin and Cardinal Newman have generally been considered as masters of the purest and choicest English; yet both attributed their skill in its use to the fact that they were led to commit large portions of the Bible to memory, when young. From his earliest boyhood, Scott was a devout admirer and constant student of the Bible; and his greatest romances are filled with Scriptural references, and many direct quotations occur. In describing the great man's last illness, his son-in-law and biographer, Lockhart, says: 'Here he expressed a wish that I should read to him, and when asked from what book, he said, "*Need you ask? There is but one.*"'

"In reply to a critic Dickens once wrote: 'I have always striven to express veneration for the life and lessons of our Saviour, because I feel it.' But had he left no written testimony of his reverence for the Gospel, one would not read far in his works without realizing the atmosphere of Christ's teachings; and no one can read that superb, crowning scene in the 'Tale of Two Cities,' without realizing that its author had dwelt long on the meaning of Calvary. Professor Pattison has said: 'The Castaway Sydney Carton, by his voluntary death, better than any other character in English fiction, illustrates the Master's words "Greater love hath no man than this, that a man lay down his life for his friends." . . . Nor was Thackeray less indebted to the Bible, and no writer treats its sacred themes more reverently. Many illustrations might be given, but the author's whole spirit is so manifest in his description of the last moments of the noblest character in the whole range of English fiction,—Colonel Newcome,—that we shall quote it alone. 'At the usual evening hour the chapel bell began to toll, and Thomas Newcome's hands outside the bed beat time. And just as the last bell struck, a peculiar sweet smile shone over his face, and he lifted up his head a little and quickly said, "*Adsum,*" and fell back. It was the word we used at school when names were called; and lo! he whose heart was as that of a little child, had answered to his name and stood in the presence of the Master.' Truly we may say of the Bible, as the Psalmist declared of the Glory of the Lord, 'there is no speech nor language where

its voice is not heard.' In an address to young journalists, delivered at Union College in 1893, the late Charles A. Dana, one of the most distinguished editors this country has produced, said: 'There are some books that are absolutely indispensable to the kind of education that we are considering; and of these the most indispensable, the most useful, the one whose language is most effective, is the Bible. There is no book from which more valuable lessons can be learned. I am considering it now, not as a religious book, but as a manual of utility, of professional preparation and professional use for a journalist. There is, perhaps, no book whose style is more suggestive and more instructive, from which you learn more directly that sublime simplicity which never exaggerates, which recounts the greatest event with solemnity, of course, but without sentimentality or affectation,—none which you can open with such confidence, and lay down with such reverence; *there is no book like the Bible.*'—*Ibid.*, pp. 442-444.

As a source of history. See HISTORY: 14.

Translation into French and German. See PAPACY: 1521-1535.

Relation of Christian Science to. See CHRISTIAN SCIENCE: Definition.

See also CHRISTIANITY: A. D. 50-100; 100-300: Syrian churches; JESUS CHRIST; MIRACLES.

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BIBLE LANDS, Archæological exploration in. See BABYLONIA.

BIBLICAL SOCIETIES.—Error shown by PIUS IX. See PAPACY: 1864.

BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE. See LIBRARIES: MODERN: FRANCE.

BIBRACTE, ancient name for Autun, in France. See GAUL: The people.

BIBROCI, tribe of ancient Britons who dwelt near the Thames.

BICAMERAL SYSTEM.—This term was applied by Jeremy Bentham to the division of a legislative body into two chambers—such as the House of Lords and House of Commons. "It has become almost an axiom in political science that legislative bodies should consist of two chambers. At the present time [1910] those constructed on the unicameral principle (q. v.) are found only in Greece, Luxembourg, Servia, the Canadian provinces of British Columbia, Manitoba, and Ontario, a few of the smaller German states, and some of the Swiss cantons. Formerly, however, the unicameral idea found more favor than now. In America, in the eighteenth century, it had an influential advocate in Benjamin Franklin, who is said to have compared a double-chambered legislative assembly to a cart with a horse hitched to each end, both pulling in opposite directions. Largely through his influence the legislature of Pennsylvania under its first constitution was constructed on the unicameral principle, and we have the testimony of John Adams that the question of whether the early American legislatures generally should consist of one or two chambers was one of transcendent importance at the time of the adoption of the first state constitutions. In France, at the time of the Revolution, the unicameral idea had many supporters, and the principle was incorporated in the constitution of 1791 by an almost unanimous vote of the National Assembly, and was continued in the constitution of 1793. The constitution of the year III (1795), however, established the bicameral system; and it was continued until 1848, when the single chamber was again reverted to, though for only a brief interval. Among the powerful advocates of the unicameral principle in 1848 was Lamartine, as Turgot had been its ablest defender at the time of the Revolution. The experience of France with single-chambered legislative assemblies, however, was not satisfactory; and their proceedings, it is said, 'were marked by violence, instability, and excesses of the worst kind.' With remarkably few exceptions the states which have experimented with the single chamber system have abandoned it for the bicameral system. In England, during the Commonwealth, it was tried for a brief period, but without success; and the House of Lords, which had been abolished, was soon restored. The lack of a second chamber in the national congress was one of the causes of dissatisfaction with the Articles of Confederation in the United States, and, with the exception of Benjamin Franklin, none of the framers of the constitution favored retaining the unicameral system. In Pennsylvania, where it existed for a time, we are told that it was marked by a 'want of stability' and resulted in 'extremely impulsive and variable legislation.' It was soon abandoned in Pennsylvania and in the few other states where it had been introduced. Other countries, notably Spain, Portugal, Naples, Mexico, Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru, have all abandoned it, after a fair trial, for the double-chambered system. The chief argument advanced in favor of the unicameral system by the French statesmen and political writers in 1789 and again in 1848 was that it secured 'unity' instead of 'duality' in the organization of the legislative branch of the government. Two or three chambers, it was argued, meant two or three sovereignties. 'The law,' said Siéyès, 'is the will of the people; the people cannot at the same time have two different wills on the same subject; therefore, the legislative body which represents the people ought to be essentially one. Where there are two chambers, discord and division will be inevitable and the will of the people

will be paralyzed by inaction.' The same view was expressed by Lamartine, who maintained that the double chamber sacrificed the great principle of unity by dividing the sovereignty of the state. A similar line of reasoning was pursued by Condorcet, Robespierre, and other leaders in France at the time of the Revolution. In America, likewise, the same kind of argument was advanced by Franklin and others against the bicameral theory. Legislation being merely the expression of the common will, the necessity of committing it to two separate assemblies, each having a veto upon the action of the other, was not apparent. 'All the arguments,' says Judge Story, 'derived from the analogy between the movements of political bodies and the operations of physical nature, all the impulses of political parsimony, all the prejudices against a second coördinate legislative assembly stimulated by the exemplification of it in the British Parliament, were against a division of the legislative power.' In short, a double-chambered legislature was an assembly divided against itself. In America, John Adams combated the doctrines of Franklin, Turgot, and the other French critics of the bicameral system, in a rather remarkable essay entitled 'A Defense of the Constitutions of Government of the United States,' in which, among other things, he defended with ability and learning the principle of the division of the legislative power between two coördinate assemblies. He reviewed the history of free governments and undertook to show that government by single assemblies had 'generally been visionary if not corrupt and violent and had usually ended in despotism. . . . 'Of all possible forms of government, a sovereignty in a single assembly, successively chosen by the people, is,' he said, 'perhaps the best calculated to facilitate the gratification of self-love, and the pursuit of the private interests of a few individuals—in one word, the whole system of affairs and every conceivable motive of hope or fear will be employed to promote the private interests of a few of their obsequious majority; and there is no remedy but in arms.' Notwithstanding all the objections raised against the bicameral system, experience has apparently established its advantages over the single chamber scheme. 'It accompanies the Anglican race,' observes Francis Lieber, 'like the common law, and everywhere it succeeds.' 'Of all the forms of government that are possible among mankind,' says Lecky, 'I do not know any which is likely to be worse than the government of a single omnipotent democratic chamber. It is at least as susceptible as an individual despot to the temptations that grow out of the possession of an uncontrolled power, and it is likely to act with much less sense of responsibility and much less real deliberation.' The advantages of a second chamber may be summarized as follows: First, it serves as a check upon hasty, rash, and ill-considered legislation. Legislative assemblies are often subject to strong passions and excitements and are sometimes impatient, impetuous, and careless. The function of a second chamber is to restrain such tendencies and to compel careful consideration of legislative projects. It interposes delay between the introduction and final adoption of a measure and thus permits time for reflection and deliberation. . . . In the second place, the bicameral principle not only serves to protect the legislature against its own errors of haste and impulse, but it also affords a protection to the individual against the despotism of a single chamber. The existence of a second chamber is thus a guarantee of liberty as well as to some extent a safeguard against tyranny. . . .

'The necessity of two chambers,' says Bryce, 'is based on the belief that the innate tendency of an assembly to become hateful, tyrannical, and corrupt, needs to be checked by the coexistence of another house of equal authority. The Americans restrain their legislatures by dividing them, just as the Romans restrained their executives by substituting two consuls for one king.' A third advantage of the bicameral system is that it affords a convenient means of giving representation to special interests or classes in the state and particularly to the aristocratic portion of society, in order to counterbalance the undue preponderance of the popular element in one of the chambers, thus introducing into the legislature a conservative force to curb the radicalism of the popular chamber. . . . John Stuart Mill advocated a second chamber constructed on the principle of political experience and training without reference to considerations of birth or wealth. If one chamber, said Mill, represents popular feeling, the other should represent personal merit, tested and guaranteed by actual public service and fortified by practical experience. If one is the people's chamber, the other should be a chamber of statesmen, a council composed of all living public men who have passed through important political offices or employments. Such a chamber, Mill argued, would be not merely a moderating body, or a simple check, but also an impelling force. It would be a body of natural leaders and would guide the people forward in the path of progress. The best constitution of the second chamber, he declared, is that which embodies the greatest number of elements exempt from the class interests and prejudices of the majority, but having in themselves nothing offensive to democratic feeling. . . . Finally, the bicameral system affords an opportunity, in states having the federal form of government, of giving representation to the political units composing the federation. In order to maintain the proper equilibrium between the component members and the federation as a whole, the former ought to be represented in one chamber of the legislature without regard to population, that is, represented as distinct political organizations. This, in fact, is the principle upon which the legislatures of most states having the federal form of government are at present constructed. The eighteenth century French doctrine that the bicameral system is incompatible with the principle of the unity of sovereignty will, upon examination, be seen to be untenable. Division of the legislative body into two chambers does not involve a division of the sovereignty of the state any more than the distribution of governmental power between legislative, executive, and judicial organs means a division of sovereignty. So long as the concurrence of both chambers is necessary to legislate, that is, so long as legislation emanates from the assembly as a whole, there is not duality, but unity. Law is the will of the people, observes Laboulaye, whatever may be the mode employed for enacting it. . . . What is required in order to realize the full value of the bicameral principle is that the two chambers should be differently composed and should rest on dissimilar bases. The members of one chamber ought to enjoy longer tenures, they ought to represent a larger constituency, higher membership qualifications ought to be required of them, and they might well be chosen in a different manner and by a differently constituted electorate. Where these requirements exist there will always be one chamber smaller in size than the other, possessing a higher degree of experience and perhaps of ability, more conservatism of spirit, and representing more fully the

higher property and intellectual interests of the state. Thus the high age qualifications (the attainment of the fortieth year) required of senators in Belgium, France, and Italy has had the effect of securing more experienced statesmen in the legislatures of those countries. The longer tenure, the larger constituency, and the [former] method of indirect election for members of the United States Senate tend to secure a more experienced, more conservative, and, on the whole, an abler body of legislators than is found in the House of Representatives. The same is true of the upper chambers of the Australian Commonwealth, and the republics of Brazil, Mexico, and Switzerland. The hereditary principle which prevails almost wholly in the structure of the upper chamber in Great Britain and to a less degree in Austria, Hungary, and Spain diminishes rather than increases the efficiency of the legislature; yet under restrictions which it has been proposed to introduce into the English system the principle would not be without its advantages, since it would provide a means of introducing into the legislature a class of educated and leisured men who have had exceptional opportunities for acquiring political information and for imbibing the result of political experience, without at the same time bringing into the legislature large numbers of men who add little or no strength. The appointive principle which prevails in Italy for the constitution of the upper chamber, and to a less degree in several other European states, is out of harmony with modern notions of representation, yet it has the advantage of insuring a place in the legislature for distinguished men who have held public office and also for men who have attained eminence in science, art, and the learned professions. Perhaps the ideal mode of determining the membership of the upper chamber lies in a combination of some or all of the above systems, if we eliminate the Norwegian method of cooptation and the British hereditary principle, neither of which commends itself to us. A certain number of members of whom high qualifications are required might very properly be elected upon the basis of a restricted suffrage from the larger administrative subdivisions into which the state is divided; a certain number might be elected by the local governments, such as the provincial legislatures or municipal councils; a limited number might be appointed by the executive from those who have achieved eminence in the state or who have held certain high offices, etc. [See *Parliament: English.*] With regard to the constitution of the lower house, there is a substantial unanimity of opinion and of practice that it should rest upon a popular basis, that is, its members should be chosen by direct election, upon the basis of a wide suffrage and for short terms. Finally, the experience of the past demonstrates the wisdom of the principle of inequality of powers as between the two chambers. Nearly everywhere the upper chamber is intrusted with a share, negative or positive, in the administration of the government, often a certain participation in the control of the foreign policy of the state, and sometimes is vested with important judicial functions. This has a tendency to increase the dignity and prestige of membership therein and thus secure legislators of higher ability and added conservatism. The scheme of partial renewal common in the organization of the upper chambers is likewise a valuable principle, in that it tends to secure the element of experience and preserve continuity of membership."—J. W. Garner, *Introduction to political science*, pp. 427-440.

ALSO IN: W. B. Munro, *Government of American*

cities, pp. 6, 7, 10.—H. E. Deming, *Legislature in city and state*.—S. B. Capen, *Shall we have one or two legislative chambers?*—T. F. Moran, *Rise of the bicameral system in America* (Johns Hopkins).—D. L. Colvin, *Bicameral principle in the New York legislature*.—Kansas State Library, Topeka, *Legislative systems*.—W. P. Selbourne, *State and the citizen*.—See also STATE GOVERNMENT.

BICHÂT, Marie François Xavier (1771-1802), French anatomist and physiologist. Considered the founder of scientific histology and pathological anatomy; was the first to show that different organs have tissues and membranes in common, a discovery which led to the simplification and systematizing of both anatomy and physiology. His most important works are "Traité des membranes" (1800), "Recherches sur la vie et la mort" (1800), and "Anatomie générale" (1801).—See also BIOLOGY: History; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 18th century: Physiological views of Bichât.

BICHERAKOV, Lazarus, Russian general, who volunteered and rendered aid to the British in Persia, after the disruption of the Russian army. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a, 7; b, 7; b, 9.

BICOQUE, or **Bicocca**, La, Battle of (1522). See FRANCE: 1520-1523.

BIDA, Battle of (1807). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology of European expansion.

BIDDLE, James (1783-1848), Commodore. Refused trading privileges in Japan. See JAPAN: 1797-1854.

BIDDLE, Nicholas (1786-1844), American financier. Member Pennsylvania legislature 1810; director in 1819 and president in 1823, of the Second Bank of the United States, resigned 1839; editor of the *Philadelphia Portfolio*, 1812-1823. See also U. S. A.: 1808.

BIENVENU-MARTIN, acting foreign minister of France in 1914. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 12.

BIENVILLE, Jean Baptiste Le Moyne, Sieur de (1680-1768), explorer and part founder of the French province of Louisiana.

Government in Louisiana. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

Illicit trade with Indians. See LOUISIANA: 1699-1763.

Founding of New Orleans. See LOUISIANA: 1717-1718.

War against Chickasaws. See LOUISIANA: 1719-1750.

BIENERTH, Baron Richard von (1863-), Premier of Austria, 1909-1911. See AUSTRIA: 1909.

BIESKE, Battle of (1849). See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849.

BIG BERTHA, a term applied to German guns of large bore used in reducing Belgian and French fortresses during the German offensive in the summer of 1914; were manufactured by the larger armament plants such as Krupp's at Essen owned by Frau Bertha Krupp von Bohlen und Halbach. The name was in 1918 applied to the mysterious long range guns which bombarded Paris from a distance of about seventy-five miles, causing some destruction of property and life. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 5.

BIG BETHEL, Battle of (1861). See U. S. A.: 1861 (June: Virginia).

BIG BLACK, Battle of the (1863). See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-July: ON THE MISSISSIPPI).

BIG FIVE, a coalition of the principal packing firms of the United States: Swift & Co., Armour & Co., Morris & Co., Wilson & Co. (Inc.), and the Cudahy Packing Co., accused by the fed-

eral trade commission in 1918 of profiteering. On December 4, 1919, the trade commission charged the Big Five with violation of the Clayton anti-trust act through the purchase and control of thirty-one corporations handling food and other products. Action was brought against them by Attorney-General Palmer, but the firms agreed to accept without contest the injunction requiring them to surrender control of stock yards, to use refrigerating cars for meat and meat products only and to give up control of non-related industries.

BIG FOUR, the popular name for the Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago and St. Louis railroad.

BIG FOUR, name applied to the nations of England, France, Italy and the United States. See also COUNCIL OF FOUR; FRUME: 1919: Attitude of President Wilson of the United States.

BIG SIX, popular name for the beef trust. (See TRUSTS: 1903-1906).

BIG SIX, New York Typographical Union No. 6, probably the most powerful typographical union in the world, having had in 1920 a membership of 9,040 men and women engaged in the composing rooms of the newspaper and book and job printing offices of Greater New York. It was founded in 1850, its first president being Horace Greeley, founder of the New York *Tribune*.

BIG SIX, political gang of Pittsburgh. See PITTSBURGH: 1900.

BIG STICK, a term associated with President Roosevelt. In favoring the policy of a large navy, he said that a nation, like a man, should "speak softly, but carry a big stick." Later the term was applied to his methods of coercing Congress into accepting his legislative program and of securing domination in shaping the policies of his party and influencing the selection of his successor. During the presidential campaign of 1912, the Progressive party had a street-car advertisement consisting of a photograph of Roosevelt and a picture of a big stick under the heading, "Let's put them both to work again."

BIG SWORD, or Big Knife Society (other name for Boxers). See CHINA: 1900.

BIG THREE, in Great Britain, the triple industrial alliance of the miners' federation, the national union of railwaymen and the national transport workers' federation, formed in December, 1915.

BIGELOW, John (1817-1911), American diplomat, journalist and author. Inspector of Sing Sing prison 1845-1846; editor of New York *Evening Post* 1849-1861; consul at Paris 1861-1864; minister to France 1864-1867; secretary of state of New York state, 1875-1877.

BIGERRIONES. See AQUITAINE, ANCIENT TRIBES.

BIGHT OF BIAFRA AGREEMENT, 1885. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

BIGI, or Greys, one of the three factions which divided Florence in the time of Savorola, and after. The Bigi, or Greys, were the partisans of the Medici.

BILBAO, Siege of (1835). See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

BILL OF ABOMINATIONS, United States. See TARIFF: 1828.

BILL OF ATTAINDER. See ATTAINDER.

BILL OF RIGHTS, English (1689).—"The Convention [which met January 22, 1689, after the flight of James II] . . . defined in a formal document the fundamental principles of the English Constitution. This document was the famous *Declaration of Right*, which was accepted by Wil-

liam and Mary on February 19, 1689; and later, as the *Bill of Rights*, was made a part of the law of the land by act of parliament, on December 16, 1689. By this memorable document, the Bill of Rights, certain constitutional privileges of parliament and people were exactly stated, and declared to be the unchangeable law of the kingdom. The provisions of the bill summed up the chief issues which had been in dispute since 1660. The rights that James had claimed, to dispense with the laws, to levy money in any form without the consent of parliament, to maintain a standing army dependent on the king instead of on parliament, were declared illegal. [See also TAXATION: Parliamentary taxation in England.] The right of the people to petition, as the bishops had done, the right of electors to choose members of parliament without interference, the right of freedom of speech in parliament, and the necessity of frequent meetings of parliament for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, were all declared inalienable parts of the ancient rights and liberties of the English people. Lastly, a clause was inserted, stating that no Roman Catholic could possess the crown, and that after the death of William and Mary the succession should go to their children, or, in default of issue, to Anne and her children, or, in default of such, to the children of William by any other wife. After Mary's death, in 1694, and the death of Anne's only surviving son, the duke of Gloucester, in 1701, a further clause was added, settling the succession upon the granddaughter of James I, Sophia of Hanover, on the ground that she was the nearest Protestant heir. [The Revolution of 1688] . . . was the 'great and glorious' revolution. Won without bloodshed, it marked a new era in England's history; for it overthrew the doctrine of the divine right of kings and the passive obedience of the people and substituted therefor the right of the people to resist their rulers. Furthermore, it established the supremacy of statute law over the king's will and pleasure. It did not affect the right of hereditary succession, but it handed over to parliament full power to limit the prerogative of the king and to take in the actual government of the kingdom."—C. M. Andrews, *Short history of England*, pp. 305-306.—See also ENGLAND: 1689 (January-February).

Text of the document.—"Whereas the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, lawfully, fully, and freely representing all the estates of the people of this realm, did upon the Thirteenth day of February, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Six Hundred Eighty-eight [o. s.], present unto their Majesties, then called and known by the names and style of William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, being present in their proper persons, a certain Declaration in writing, made by the said Lords and Commons, in the words following, viz.: 'Whereas the late King James II., by the assistance of divers evil counselors, judges, and ministers employed by him, did endeavour to subvert and extirpate the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of this kingdom: 1. By assuming and exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws, and the execution of laws, without consent of Parliament. 2. By committing and prosecuting divers worthy prelates for humbly petitioning to be excused from concurring to the said assumed power. 3. By issuing and causing to be executed a commission under the Great Seal for erecting a court, called the Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes. 4. By levying money for and to the use of the Crown by pretence of prerogative, for other time

and in other manner than the same was granted by Parliament. 5. By raising and keeping a standing army within this kingdom in time of peace, without consent of Parliament, and quartering soldiers contrary to law. 6. By causing several good subjects, being Protestants, to be disarmed, at the same time when Papists were both armed and employed contrary to law. 7. By violating the freedom of election of members to serve in Parliament. 8. By prosecutions in the Court of King's Bench for matters and causes cognisable only in Parliament, and by divers other arbitrary and illegal causes. 9. And whereas of late years, partial, corrupt, and unqualified persons have been returned, and served on juries in trials, and particularly divers jurors in trials for high treason, which were not freeholders. 10. And excessive bail hath been required of persons committed in criminal cases, to elude the benefit of the laws made for the liberty of the subjects. 11. And excessive fines have been imposed; and illegal and cruel punishments inflicted. 12. And several grants and promises made of fines and forfeitures before any conviction or judgment against the persons upon whom the same were to be levied. All which are utterly and directly contrary to the known laws and statutes, and freedom of this realm. And whereas the said late King James II having abdicated the government, and the throne being thereby vacant, his Highness the Prince of Orange (whom it hath pleased Almighty God to make the glorious instrument of delivering this kingdom from Popery and arbitrary power) did (by the advice of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and divers principal persons of the Commons) cause letters to be written to the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, being Protestants, and other letters to the several counties, cities, universities, boroughs, and cinque ports, for the choosing of such persons to represent them as were of right to be sent to Parliament, to meet and sit at Westminster upon the two-and-twentieth day of January, in this year One Thousand Six Hundred Eighty and Eight, in order to such an establishment, as that their religion, laws, and liberties might not again be in danger of being subverted; upon which letters elections have been accordingly made. And thereupon the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, pursuant to their respective letters and elections, being now assembled in a full and free representation of this nation, taking into their most serious consideration the best means for attaining the ends aforesaid, do in the first place (as their ancestors in like case have usually done) for the vindicating and asserting their ancient rights and liberties, I. declare: 1. That the pretended power of suspending of laws, or the execution of laws, by regal authority, without consent of Parliament, is illegal. 2. That the pretended power of dispensing with laws, or the execution of laws by regal authority, as it hath been assumed and exercised of late, is illegal. 3. That the commission for erecting the late Court of Commissioners for Ecclesiastical Causes, and all other commissions and courts of like nature, are illegal and pernicious. 4. That levying money for or to the use of the Crown by pretence and prerogative, without grant of Parliament, for longer time or in other manner than the same is or shall be granted, is illegal. 5. That it is the right of the subjects to petition the King, and all commitments and prosecutions for such petitioning are illegal. 6. That the raising or keeping a standing army within the kingdom in time of peace, unless it be with consent of Parliament, is against law. 7. That the subjects which are Protestants may have arms for

their defence suitable to their conditions, and as allowed by law. 8. That election of members of Parliament ought to be free. 9. That the freedom of speech, and debates or proceedings in Parliament, ought not to be impeached or questioned in any court or place out of Parliament. 10. That excessive bail ought not to be required, nor excessive fines imposed; nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted. 11. That jurors ought to be duly impanelled and returned, and jurors which pass upon men in trials for high treason ought to be freeholders. 12. That all grants and promises of fines and forfeitures of particular persons before conviction are illegal and void. 13. And that for redress of all grievances, and for the amending, strengthening, and preserving of the laws, Parliament ought to be held frequently. And they do claim, demand, and insist upon all and singular the premises, as their undoubted rights and liberties; and that no declarations, judgments, doings or proceedings, to the prejudice of the people in any of the said premises, ought in any wise to be drawn hereafter into consequence or example. To which demand of their rights they are particularly encouraged by the declaration of his Highness the Prince of Orange, as being the only means for obtaining a full redress and remedy therein. Having therefore an entire confidence that his said Highness the Prince of Orange will perfect the deliverance so far advanced by him, and will still preserve them from the violation of their rights, which they have here asserted, and from all other attempts upon their religion, rights, and liberties. II. The said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, assembled at Westminster, do resolve, that William and Mary, Prince and Princess of Orange, be, and be declared, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, to hold the crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to them the said Prince and Princess during their lives, and the life of the survivor of them; and that the sole and full exercise of the regal power be only in, and executed by, the said Prince of Orange, in the names of the said Prince and Princess, during their joint lives; and after their deceases, the said crown and royal dignity of the said kingdoms and dominions to be to the heirs of the body of the said Princess; and for default of such issue to the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and for default of such issue to the heirs of the body of the said Prince of Orange. And the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do pray the said Prince and Princess to accept the same accordingly. III. And that the oaths hereafter mentioned be taken by all persons of whom the oaths of allegiance and supremacy might be required by law instead of them; and that the said oaths of allegiance and supremacy be abrogated. "I, A. B., do sincerely promise and swear, That I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to their Majesties King William and Queen Mary: So help me God." "I, A. B., do swear, That I do from my heart abhor, detest, and abjure as impious and heretical that damnable doctrine and position, that princes excommunicated or deprived by the Pope, or any authority of the See of Rome, may be deposed or murdered by their subjects, or any other whatsoever. And I do declare, that no foreign prince, person, prelate, state, or potentate hath, or ought to have, any jurisdiction, power, superiority preeminence or authority, ecclesiastical or spiritual, within this realm: So help me God." IV. Upon which their said Majesties did accept the crown and royal dignity of the kingdoms of England, France, and Ire-

land, and the dominions thereunto belonging, according to the resolution and desire of the said Lords and Commons contained in the said declaration. V. And thereupon their Majesties were pleased, that the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, being the two Houses of Parliament, should continue to sit, and with their Majesties' royal concurrence make effectual provision for the settlement of the religion, laws and liberties of this kingdom, so that the same for the future might not be in danger again of being subverted; to which the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, did agree and proceed to act accordingly. VI. Now in pursuance of the premises, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, for the ratifying, confirming, and establishing the said declaration, and the articles, clauses, matters, and things therein contained, by the force of a law made in due form by authority of Parliament, do pray that it may be declared and enacted, That all and singular the rights and liberties asserted and claimed in the said declaration are the true, ancient, and indubitable rights and liberties of the people of this kingdom, and so shall be esteemed, allowed, adjudged, deemed, and taken to be, and that all and every the particulars aforesaid shall be firmly and strictly holden and observed, as they are expressed in the said declaration; and all officers and ministers whatsoever shall serve their Majesties and their successors according to the same in all times to come. VII. And the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, seriously considering how it hath pleased Almighty God, in his marvellous providence, and merciful goodness to this nation, to provide and preserve their said Majesties' royal persons most happily to reign over us upon the throne of their ancestors, for which they render unto Him from the bottom of their hearts their humblest thanks and praises, do truly, firmly, assuredly, and in the sincerity of their hearts, think, and do hereby recognise, acknowledge, and declare, that King James II having abdicated the Government, and their Majesties having accepted the Crown and royal dignity as aforesaid, their said Majesties did become, were, are, and of right ought to be, by the laws of this realm, our sovereign liege Lord and Lady, King and Queen of England, France, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, in and to whose princely persons the royal state, crown, and dignity of the said realms, with all honours, styles, titles, regalities, prerogatives, powers, jurisdictions, and authorities to the same belonging and appertaining, are most fully, rightfully, and entirely invested and incorporated, united, and annexed. VIII. And for preventing all questions and divisions in this realm, by reason of any pretended titles to the Crown, and for preserving a certainty in the succession thereof, in and upon which the unity, peace, tranquillity, and safety of this nation doth, under God, wholly consist and depend, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do beseech their Majesties that it may be enacted, established, and declared, that the Crown and regal government of the said kingdoms and dominions, with all and singular the premises thereunto belonging and appertaining, shall be and continue to their said Majesties, and the survivor of them, during their lives, and the life of the survivor of them. And that the entire, perfect, and full exercise of the regal power and government be only in, and executed by, his Majesty, in the names of both their Majesties, during their joint lives; and after their deceases the said Crown and premises shall be and remain to the heirs of the body of her Majesty:

and for default of such issue, to her Royal Highness the Princess Anne of Denmark, and the heirs of her body; and for default of such issue, to the heirs of the body of his said Majesty: And thereunto the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do, in the name of all the people aforesaid, most humbly and faithfully submit themselves, their heirs and posterities, for ever: and do faithfully promise, that they will stand to, maintain, and defend their said Majesties, and also the limitation and succession of the Crown herein specified and contained, to the utmost of their powers, with their lives and estates, against all persons whatsoever that shall attempt anything to the contrary. IX. And whereas it hath been found by experience, that it is inconsistent with the safety and welfare of this Protestant kingdom to be governed by a Popish prince, or by any king or queen marrying a Papist, the said Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, do further pray that it may be enacted, That all and every person and persons that is, are, or shall be reconciled to, or shall hold communion with, the See or Church of Rome, or shall profess the Popish religion, or shall marry a Papist, shall be excluded, and be for ever incapable to inherit, possess, or enjoy the Crown and Government of this realm, and Ireland, and the dominions thereunto belonging, or any part of the same, or to have, use, or exercise, any regal power, authority, or jurisdiction within the same; and in all and every such case or cases the people of these realms shall be and are hereby absolved of their allegiance, and the said Crown and government shall from time to time descend to, and be enjoyed by, such person or persons, being Protestants, as should have inherited and enjoyed the same, in case the said person or persons so reconciled, holding communion, or professing, or marrying, as aforesaid, were naturally dead. X. And that every King and Queen of this realm, who at any time hereafter shall come to and succeed in the Imperial Crown of this kingdom, shall, on the first day of the meeting of the first Parliament, next after his or her coming to the Crown, sitting in his or her throne in the House of Peers, in the presence of the Lords and Commons therein assembled, or at his or her coronation, before such person or persons who shall administer the coronation oath to him or her, at the time of his or her taking the said oath (which shall first happen), make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the declaration mentioned in the statute made in the thirteenth year of the reign of King Charles II, intituled "An Act for the more effectual preserving the King's person and Government, by disabling Papists from sitting in either House of Parliament." But if it shall happen that such King or Queen, upon his or her succession to the Crown of this realm, shall be under the age of twelve years, then every such King or Queen shall make, subscribe, and audibly repeat the said declaration at his or her coronation, or the first day of meeting of the first Parliament as aforesaid, which shall first happen after such King or Queen shall have attained the said age of twelve years. XI. All which their Majesties are contented and pleased shall be declared, enacted, and established by authority of this present Parliament, and shall stand, remain, and be the law of this realm for ever; and the same are by their said Majesties, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, declared, enacted, or established accordingly. XII. And be it further declared and enacted by the authority aforesaid, That

from and after this present session of Parliament, no dispensation by "non obstante" of or to any statute, or any part thereof, shall be allowed, but that the same shall be held void and of no effect, except a dispensation be allowed of in such statute, and except in such cases as shall be specially provided for by one or more bill or bills to be passed during this present session of Parliament. XIII. Provided that no charter, or grant, or pardon granted before the three-and-twentieth day of October, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Six Hundred Eighty-nine, shall be any ways impeached or invalidated by this Act, but that the same shall be and remain of the same force and effect in law, and no other, than as if this Act had never been made."

BILL OF RIGHTS, in United States.—The Constitution of Virginia, adopted in 1776, contained a Declaration of Rights. (See VIRGINIA: 1776). This was the first bill of rights in America and its language was largely followed in the constitutions of other states. George Mason, who prepared it, based it largely on the English Bill of Rights of 1680. In the struggle over the ratification of the federal constitution, opponents of the instrument made much capital of the fact that it contained no bill of rights, defining and safeguarding the rights of the citizen as against his government. The framers of the constitution had taken for granted such rights as religious freedom, jury trial and freedom of speech and press; and had thought an express guarantee of such rights unnecessary. Leading Federalists who were urging adoption promised that they would present amendments to provide a bill of rights. In the first Congress several amendments were presented and ten of them were promptly submitted and ratified. For the text of the amendments, commonly called the American Bill of Rights, see U. S. A.: CONSTITUTION OF.—"In the constitution of almost every State it is declared:

"(1) That all men have the right of enjoying and defending life and liberty, of acquiring, possessing and protecting property and reputation, and of pursuing their own happiness:

"(2) That men have a right to worship God according to the dictates of their own conscience, and that no preference by law should be given to any religion, and that no person should be disqualified for office on account of his religious belief:

"(3) That trial by jury is a right inviolate:

"(4) That the printing-press shall be free, and that every citizen may freely print, write and speak on any subject, being responsible for the abuse of this privilege:

"(5) That people shall be secure in their persons, houses, papers and possessions against unreasonable searches and seizures, and that no warrant to search any place or seize any person shall issue without probable cause:

"(6) That in all criminal prosecutions the accused has a right to be heard by himself and his counsel, to meet witnesses face to face, to compel witnesses who are in favor to come to court and testify, and to a speedy trial by an impartial jury:

"(7) That no person can be compelled to give evidence against himself, nor be deprived of his life, liberty or property unless by the law of the land:

"(8) That no person for the same offense shall be twice put in jeopardy of life and limb:

"(9) That all courts shall be open and that every man shall have justice without sale, denial, or delay:

"(10) That excessive bail shall not be required,

nor excessive fines be imposed, nor cruel punishment inflicted:

"(11) That all prisoners shall be bailable by sufficient sureties, unless for capital offenses:

"(12) That the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended unless in time of rebellion or invasion:

"(13) That there shall be no imprisonment for debt, unless in cases of fraud:

"(14) That citizens have a right to assemble in a peaceable manner and to apply to the rulers for a redress of grievances:

"(15) That the military shall at all times be kept in strict subordination to the civil power:

"(16) That no soldier in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner."—S. E. Forman, *Advanced civics*, pp. 97-98.—"As our Federal bill of rights is embodied in a written constitution which it is the function of the Courts to interpret and enforce in cases brought before it, even as against an act of Congress, it has had more judicial exposition by our Supreme Court than these same guarantees had in English Courts. In England Parliament is omnipotent and can violate the Bill of Rights at will. Not so Congress whose law-making is limited by the Constitution. This circumstance has given at least one of our guarantees a wilder effect than it had at common law. The declaration that 'no man shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law' meant in the Magna Carta and means in English Courts that the process must be one sanctioned by custom, i.e., by the common law or by act of Parliament. It is directed only against executive abuses of individual rights. In our Constitution, in its 5th and 14th amendments, it means more than this. It is directed against both executive and legislative abuses of individual right, against abuses by Congress and state legislatures as well as against those of a President or a Governor. Therefore, the Supreme Court has not hesitated to ignore as invalid any law of Congress or a state which does not secure to an individual the procedure in defending his rights which shall prevent his deprivation of them arbitrarily and without a full hearing by some kind of a tribunal."—W. H. Taft, *English political genius (English leadership)*, pp. 9-10).

BILLAUD-VARENNE, Jacques Nicolas (1756-1819), French revolutionist; member of the National Convention, also of the committee of public safety, 1793-1795. See FRANCE: 1793 (June-October), (September-December) to 1794-1795 (July-April).

BILLBOARDS: Court decisions.—"We now have the authority of the courts behind us on a perfectly sound legal basis, for regulating and prohibiting boards under the police power, where there are practical objections to them. These practical objections must be made clear to the court, to show that an ordinance is reasonable, if it is contested. Some years ago the city of St. Louis made a great advance in billboard protection by passing an ordinance which laid down definite rules for the safety of construction of such boards, defining their location on lots, and requiring them to be built free from other structures, so as to minimize the fire risk, as well as requiring a clear space under them, to lessen the danger of their becoming a nuisance. This ordinance was attacked and sustained, in a vigorous opinion. The next step was that taken by the city of Chicago, in an ordinance passed in 1911, wherein signs on roofs of buildings were prohibited and majority consents were required for construction of boards in resi-

dence districts. The roof prohibition has never been attacked, but the consent requirement in residence districts, when it was finally enforced by the city of Chicago, was contested by the billboard companies. The Supreme Court of Illinois upheld the right, and this decision was affirmed in 1917 in the case of *Cusack vs. City of Chicago* (242 U. S. 426). This decision is of the greatest importance, in that it holds constitutional an enactment absolutely forbidding billboards in residence districts. . . . The full fruit of the Cusack decision has not been taken advantage of by the city of Chicago, in that the city has not yet absolutely prohibited boards in residence districts, and the administration is, to say the least, not vigorous in enforcing the ordinance as it stands. Los Angeles, however, and some small communities that I know of, have employed it in prohibiting boards in their residence sections."—E. L. Millard, *Billboard Nuisance* (*American City, Mar., 1920*).—See also CITY PLANNING.

ALSO IN: T. Nokes, *Another side to the billboard* (*American City, Oct., 1920*).—A. L. H. Street, *Reasonable billboard ordinance* (*American City, Oct., 1920*).—H. T. Sudduth, *Countryside posters* (*Outlook, Aug. 11, 1920*).—H. A. Swan, *Zone law bans billboards from residence districts*, (*American City, Mar., 1919*).—C. R. Woodruff, *Billboard nuisance* (*Department of Nuisances, Salem, Mass.*).

BILLET, a military order assigning quarters for a soldier with a certain person. From this, the expression has come loosely to designate the quarters itself. See BOSTON: 1768: Quartering; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: IX. War relief: h.

BILLINGHURST, Guillermo Eduardo (1851-1915), Peruvian statesman, elected president of Peru in 1912; overthrown in the *coup d'état* of Feb. 4, 1914. See PERU: 1908-1914.

BILLINGS, William (1746-1800), early American composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1774-1908.

BILLS, Legislative.—Progress in the House of Representatives, and in the Senate of the United States. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House: Progress of bills; Senate: Freedom of debate.

BILLS OF EXCHANGE. See COMMON LAW: 1603.

BILLS OF LADING: Important decision concerning. See COMMON LAW: 1790.

BILLS OF MORTALITY, England, 1538. See INSURANCE: Life Insurance: Early forms.

BILLYARD - LEAKE, Edward Whaley (1895-), lieutenant of the British navy in attack on Zeebrugge. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

BILOXI, bay on the gulf coast of Mississippi, the shores of which were settled by the French in 1698. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

BILOXIS. See MUSKHOGEAN OR MASKOKI FAMILY; and SIOUAN FAMILY.

BIMETALISM.—"Bimetallism is the use of two metals as standard moneys. . . . It is legally complete when both metals are admitted to the mints for free coinage at an established ratio of weight; it is halting or limping when one of the metals is not freely coined. Bimetallism may be legally authorized, but not actually working. As soon as the legal ratio varies appreciably from the market value, only one of the metals will in fact be brought to the mint. National bimetallism is confined to a single country, as that in the United States before the Civil War, or in France before 1867. International bimetallism is an agreement among several nations to use two metals on the same terms, the only case in history being that

of the Latin Union, which included France, Italy, Switzerland and other countries. The discussion of international bimetallism in recent years has been on the proposal to make a much larger league of states than the Latin Union, embracing all the leading countries. The main object of international bimetallism is to prevent the fluctuation of the standard of deferred payments. . . . Despite many efforts it has failed by adoption."—F. A. Fetter, *Principles of economics*, pp. 457-459.

"In France, where up to 1850 the mint ratio of 15½ to 1 was slightly below the market ratio, gold gradually disappeared, leaving the country to all intents on a silver basis. From 1850 on, however, the market ratio fell below 15½ to 1. Gold began to be imported, and France was slowly being drained of its silver. The difficulty finally became so serious that France formed, in 1865, together with Belgium, Italy, and Switzerland, the Latin Union. Greece joined in 1868, and at various later dates Spain, Roumania, Servia, and Bulgaria patterned their systems on that of the Union. This agreement . . . reduced the fineness of the subsidiary silver coins, and made them legal tender only to fifty francs between individuals and to one hundred francs in payments to the government, their coinage by the respective states being limited to six francs *per capita*. The coins circulated interchangeably and each state bound itself to redeem its own coins in gold or five-franc pieces for a period of two years beyond the termination of the Union. In the other countries the unrest grew. Portugal followed England in adopting the gold standard in 1854, and the first international monetary congress, held in Paris in 1867, pronounced itself in favor of the same scheme. Germany also took advantage of the victory over France to adopt the gold standard in 1871-1873. The new silver mark was to be legal tender only to 20 marks, although the old *Vereinsthaler* still remained legal tender. Free coinage of silver, however, was discontinued. . . . The Scandinavian monetary union also adopted the gold standard in 1873. These measures, coupled with the discovery of the Comstock lode, combined to depress the price of silver and to bring the difficulties of bimetallism to a head in the other countries.

"The Latin Union was now flooded with silver under the free coinage provision and was threatened with a loss of its gold. Belgium had already provisionally suspended free coinage in 1873, and France followed in 1876. Finally, in 1878 the Latin Union definitely abrogated the free coinage of the five-franc pieces. Thus was introduced the 'limping' or 'halting' standard, so called because silver now lost one of the two supports—legal tender and free coinage—which are essential to real bimetallism. . . . The Latin Union has been on a gold basis since 1878 because, although the silver five-franc coins are still full legal tender, there is no free coinage, and the value of what is virtually a token money is kept at parity with that of the gold-standard money by a limitation of the quantity coined and by its acceptance at the treasury for public dues.—See also MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1853-1874; 1867-1893; 1870-1890; and 20th century.

"In the United States the agitation did not begin until the fall in the price of silver had become marked in 1875. The act of 1873 omitted the silver dollar from the list of American coins, largely because of the fact that for years no such dollars had been coined; the few outstanding dollars, however, retained their full legal tender quality until 1874, when the revised statutes, reenacting the subsidiary silver law of 1853, provided that

'the silver coins' of the United States should be legal tender only to five dollars. The American silver producers now thought that the fall in the price of silver could be arrested by an artificial increase of the demand and the Bland-Allison act of 1878. [See U. S. A.: 1878.] . . . Neither this act nor the suspension in 1878 of the sales of the old *Thaler* by Germany served to arrest the fall in the price of silver. . . . The Western farmers now began to ascribe the low price of wheat to the competition in the silver-standard countries, and demanded the remonetization of silver in the belief that this would increase prices. The union of the farmers with the mine owners led to a renewed agitation for free silver, the result being a compromise measure known as the Sherman law of 1890 [repealed 1893]. [See U. S. A.: 1890-1893.] . . . A fierce presidential campaign was waged in 1890 for the complete remonetization of silver at the old ratio of 16 to 1. [See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms, etc.] The defeat of the silver agitation was followed by the act of 1900, which defined as the standard the gold dollar."—E. R. A. Seligman, *Principles of economics*, pp. 479-483.

BIMINI, or Bemini, island in the Bahamas. See AMERICA: 1512.

BINCHE, town in Belgium, southwest of Charleroi. During 1914 it was captured by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n.

BINCHOIS, Giles (c. 1400-1460), one of the masters of the Netherland school of musical composition. Was a singer and later choirmaster in the chapel of Philip the Good of Burgundy. A recent discovery of fifty-two of his songs in rondeau form gives important information as to the music of that period.

BINET AND SIMON TESTS. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Intelligence tests.

BINGHAM, Edward Barry Stewart (b. 1881), British naval officer, active in the battle of Jutland. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a; a, 7.

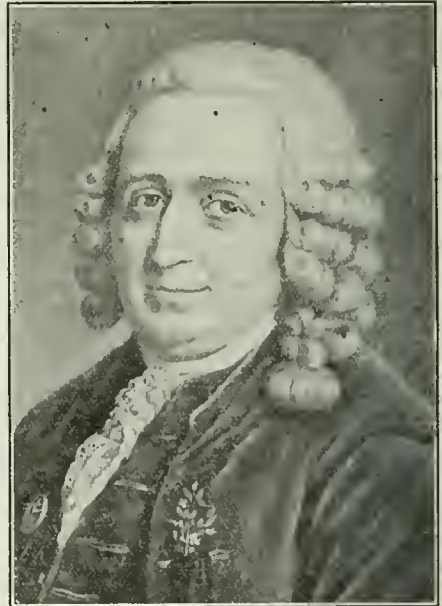
BINGHAM INCIDENT. See JEWS: United States: 1908-1918.

BINNENSTRAAT, town in Belgium devastated by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 11.

BIOLOGY: Definition.—"Biology is defined as the science which treats of matter in the living state. . . . Those properties of living matter which, taken together, distinguish it absolutely from every form of lifeless matter, are: (1) Its chemical composition. (2) Its power of waste and repair and of growth. (3) Its power of reproduction."—W. T. Sedgwick and E. B. Wilson, *General biology*, pp. 2-3.—See also SCIENCE.

History.—"The foundations of biology were laid by Aristotle (384-322 B.C.). He collected and classified, dissected and pondered, and the prevision of his insight reached forward to generalizations which were not established till two thousand years had passed. Aristotle laid firm foundations, but for fifteen centuries they remained unbuild upon, and were indeed in great part obscured by accumulations of rubbish. Apart from a few exceptions, such as Pliny (23-79 A.D.), a diligent but uncritical collector of facts, and the physician Galen (130-200 A.D.), who had the courage to dissect monkeys, men were preoccupied with the practical tasks of civilization, alike in peace and war, and science slumbered."—J. A. Thomson, *Science of life*, p. 2.—"Vesalius (1514-

1564) must also be mentioned here, although of a much later epoch, for due to his efforts the authority of Galen was overthrown and the organization of the human body studied at first hand. . . . It would be a difficult task to state in due proportion all the factors which contributed to the scientific renaissance. . . . As far as biology was concerned the direct result of the scientific renaissance . . . [was] a return to nature. It began to be perceived that Aristotle [see SCIENCE: Ancient: Greek] had not quite finished the subject, and that every man might be his own observer. With enthusiasm men turned to the task of seeing for themselves, and there began the period of the Encyclopædists. . . . Although Buffon was a thinker, it seems almost fair to say that the best aims of the Encyclopædists were realized in his 'Histoire Naturelle,' which appeared in fifteen volumes between 1749 and 1767. He may be taken as the centre of a strong enthusiasm for natural history which char-



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acterized a great part of the eighteenth century, and found expression in the brilliant discoveries of workers like Réaumur, Roesel, De Geer, Schäffer, and Bonnet. . . . There is (since the time of Buffon) a marked division between the investigators of form and structure (morphologists) and the investigators of habit and function (physiologists). There have been, and are, many who may be cited as both, but the moods and methods of the two disciplines are quite different. The morphologist asks the question, 'What is this?' and analyses, anatomizes, the dead; the physiologist asks the question, 'How is this?' and analyses the living. The parallelism of these two inquiries, from Buffon to Darwin, has been luminously expounded by Prof. Patrick Geddes, and we follow his exposition. . . . The *morphologist* naturally begins by describing the external characters of the intact creature—its symmetry, shape, architectural plan, and the like; and with the beginning of this we must associate the work of Ray (1628-1705) and Linnaeus ('Systemae Naturae,' 1735-1768, twelve editions). . . . The description of superficial characters is, however, only the beginning of

morphology; an analysis of organs is the next step. This may be especially associated with the name of Cuvier (1769[-1832] author of 'La Règne Animal,' 1816) as zoologist, and Jussieu as botanist. . . . The next logical step was taken in 1801 by Bichat, who in his 'Anatomie Générale' analysed the body into its component tissues. This was the beginning of histology, which has now so many devotees. [Bichat's successors have been Koellier, Schultze, Leydig, Ramon y Cajal, Virchow and Schwann.] . . . Minute analysis could not remain long at the level of tissues; these were soon analysed into their component or originative cells, the nucleated corpuscles of living matter which form the basis of all organic structure. This step must be particularly associated with Schwann and Schleiden, who formulated the 'Cell Theory' in 1838-1839. [The foundation of the cell-theory is marked by the "Microscopische Untersuchung," 1839, of Schwann.] . . . The fifth and last step in morphological analysis, within the limits of biology, is that which passes from the cell as such to a study of the living matter and other substances which compose it. With this, the work of Dujardin, von Mohl and Max Schultze may be associated. [Protoplasm was first clearly described by Dujardin in 1835 and distinguished from other viscid substance; the doctrine was first propounded in 1861 by Max Schultze, "the father of modern biology."] . . . The early *physiology* was largely concerned with the ways and habits of the intact creature, sometimes rising to invaluable studies in 'Natural History' or 'Bionomics,' but again falling into verbal disquisitions on 'spirits' and 'temperaments.' . . . As the anatomists, scalpel in hand, disclosed the intricate mechanism of the living engine, the physiologists were bound to follow, and the study of the functions of organs began. Harvey's investigation of the heart was an early type of this kind of work, and Johannes Miller may be noted as one of the first to broaden the study by making it comparative. [Harvey's "De Motu Cordis et Sanguinis," 1628, laid the foundations of the scientific method in biology and Miller's "Hand-book," 1846, still remains unsurpassed in execution and plan.] . . . Bichat was physiologist as well as morphologist, and sought to express the functions of an organ, like the heart, in terms of the properties of its component tissues. . . . What has been said of Bichat may also be said of Schwann, for there was a physiological side to his cell-theory, namely, the idea, as Prof. E. Ray Lankester states it, 'that the differences in the properties of the different tissues and organs of animals and plants depend on a difference in the chemical and physical activity of the constituent cells, resulting in a difference in the form of the cells, and in a concomitant difference of function.' The same idea was suggested by Goodsir, and developed in relation to a pathology by Virchow. . . . But even in Schwann's mind the early preoccupation with the cell as such gave place to a proper estimate of the protoplasm itself. Herein the history of physiology shows . . . a change of front. The riddle of life has henceforth to be read, as far as may be, in terms of the chemical changes (metabolism) associated with the living matter."—J. A. Thomson, *Science of life*, pp. 2-5.—For rise of evolutionary thought and nineteenth century development, see EVOLUTION.

Applications.—"The practical application of biology to the benefit of mankind is a striking feature of present-day tendencies. The activity set on foot by the researches of Pasteur, Koch, and others has created a department of technical biology of the greatest importance to the human

race. Under the general heading should be included the demonstration of the connection between insects and the propagation of yellow fever, malaria, and other disorders; and as an illustration of activity in 1907, we think of the commission . . . appointed to investigate the terrible scourge of the sleeping-sickness which has been prevalent in Africa. Here also we would group studies of a pathological character on blood-immunity, toxin and antitoxin, also studies on the inoculation for the prevention of various diseases that affect animals and mankind. Very much benefit has already accrued from the practical application of biological researches of this nature, which, in reality, are still in their infancy. We find the application of biological facts to agriculture in the form of soil-inoculation, in the tracing of the sources of nitrates in the soil, and studies of the insects injurious to vegetation; their further application to practical forestry, and in sanitary science. [See CHEMISTRY, AGRICULTURAL.] This kind of research is also applied to the study of food-supply for fishes, as in the case of Plankton studies. . . . The organization of laboratories in our great universities and their product exercise a wide influence on the progress of biology, that science having within twenty-five years come to occupy a position of great importance among the subjects of general education. . . . In brief, the chief tendencies in current biological researches are mainly included under the following headings: Experimental studies in heredity, evolution, and animal behavior; more exact anatomical investigations, especially in cytology and neurology, the promotion and dissemination of knowledge through biological periodicals; the provision of better facilities in specially equipped laboratories, in the application of results to the benefit of mankind, and in the investigation of the fossil records. The atmosphere of thought engendered by the progress of biology is beneficial in every way. While its progress has dealt the death-blow to many superstitions and changed materially views regarding the universe, it is gratifying to think that it has not been iconoclastic in its influence, but that it has substituted something better for that which was taken away. It has given a broader and more wholesome basis for religion and theories of ethics; it has taught greater respect for truth and morality."—W. A. Lacy, *Biology and its makers*, pp. 443-448.—See also EVOLUTION; MEDICAL SCIENCE; SCIENCE.

ALSO IN: W. C. D. Whetham, *Recent developments of physical science*.—W. T. Sedgwick and H. W. Tyler, *Short history of science*.

BIONDO, Flavis (1388-1463), Italian historian and humanist. See HISTORY: 22.

BIPLANES. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1896-1910; 1910-1920.

BIR, a town in Asiatic Turkey, in the vilayet of Aleppo. See APAMEA.

BIRAPARACH, Fortress of. See JUROIPACH.

BIRD RESERVATION, Hawaiian Islands. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS RESERVATION.

BIRD SERVICE, World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: a, 2.

BIRDS, Migratory: Agreement of United States and Canada guaranteeing protection. See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF: Treaty making power.

BIRD-WOMAN, of the Lewis and Clark expedition. See U. S. A.: 1804-1805: Expedition of Lewis and Clark.

BIRDWOOD, Sir George Christopher Molesworth (1832-1917), Anglo-Indian physician, offi-

cial and journalist. Was prominent in Indian affairs both in Bombay and in England, and had an intimate knowledge of the country and its problems. Wrote extensively on Indian art and related subjects.

BIRDWOOD, Sir William Riddell (1865-), British general. Served in India and South Africa; commanded the Australian and New Zealand army corps (Anzacs) at Gallipoli, where he was wounded 1915; in 1918 commanded the British Fifth army in France. See **WORLD WAR: 1915**; VI. Turkey: a, 4, xvii; a, 4, xx; a, 4, xxxviii; a, 6; 1918: II. Western front: q, 1.

BIR-ES SEBA. See **BEERSHEBA**.

BIRGER, king of Sweden, 1290-1319.

BIRGER, regent of Sweden, 1250-1266.

BIRKBECK, George (1776-1841), English physician and philanthropist. For his work for mechanics institutes and education in England, see **EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: England: Mechanics institutes**.

BIRKENHEAD, 1st baron (Frederick Edwin Smith) (1872-), appointed Lord High Chancellor of Great Britain, 1919.

BIRKET KERUN, plateau of Egypt. See **MOERIS, LAKE**.

BIRMINGHAM, Alabama, county seat of Jefferson county and largest city in the state, is situated in a rich coal, iron, and limestone region. It "lies a little north of the center of the state of Alabama in the middle portion of the Birmingham Valley, which extends northeast and southwest for a distance of about 35 miles from the city of Birmingham. The district includes not only the Birmingham Valley but also small areas on each side of the valley, giving a total area of about 700 square miles. Birmingham Valley . . . is at the southern end of the Appalachian Mountains. . . . With respect to the general region, the Birmingham Valley acts as a watershed, the streams flowing east and west having cut gaps in the ridges bounding the valley. Thus it is evident that the Birmingham Valley is both a drainage basin and a watershed. . . . The gaps through the ridges which bound the valley therefore give ready access to Birmingham from the outside world, and a down-grade haul to the sea coast. This has probably been an important factor in locating the city of Birmingham."—C. W. Cook, *Importance of geographic factors in the Birmingham, Ala., iron district* (*Journal of Geography*, January, 1918). In 1870, it was a cotton field. Following the discovery of coal and iron, Birmingham was laid out by the Elyton Land Company, and named after the steel manufacturing city of England. The town was incorporated in 1871. In 1879, the Pratt mines were opened and from that period onward there followed a rapid growth. In the next decade the population jumped from 3000 to 26,000, and in 1920 it had reached 178,270. Besides coal mining and iron and steel manufacture, the city has important cotton and lumber plants. Among its smaller industries must be included the manufacture of automobiles, furniture, boxes, and mattresses. It also has flour, grain and cottonseed-oil mills. Under the Greater Birmingham law (Jan. 1, 1910), the city was enlarged by the addition of the following suburbs: Avondale, East Lake, East Birmingham, Elyton, Eusley, North Birmingham, Pratt City, West End, Woodlawn, and Wylam. In 1911, Birmingham adopted the commission plan of city government. The commission consists of three members, one of whom is elected each year (see **COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES: 1911**).

"As an industrial centre, . . . Birmingham is

largely the result of Northern initiative and Northern capital, and while local capital and initiative have come, in time, to supplement the investment of ability and money from other sources, and now to supply the smaller local needs, the chief industrial influences are still external. . . . [The] mixture of cheap and well-built structures, the relative scarcity of large business buildings and apartment houses, the numerous vacant lots in all parts of the city, and the extension of the corporate municipal limits far beyond the area of compact settlement, combine to give the city something of the external appearance of a quickly-grown Western town."—W. MacDonald, *New United States* (*Nation*, Mar. 1, 1919).

BIRMINGHAM, England, "is situated nearly in the center of England, in the northwest of Warwickshire, with suburbs extending into Staffordshire and Worcestershire, 112 miles northwest of London. It is a city and municipal county and parliamentary borough and the chief seat of metallic manufacturers of Great Britain and one of the leading hardware centers of the world. Birmingham, the largest town of Warwickshire, does not lie within the basin of the Severn, for it is built upon the undulating ground extending on both sides of the river Rea, a tributary of the Tame, which discharges its waters through the Humber into the German Ocean. In Domesday Book the city was called Bermingeham. This afterwards became corrupted into Bromwychem or Brummagem meaning the 'town of brooms,' but popularly associated with pinchbeck and base metals fraudulently used to make articles glitter like gold."—*Universal Geography, British Isles*, v. 4, p. 109.—The area of Birmingham is 43,601 acres and its population in 1921 was 919,438.

1166-1250.—Grant of market charters.—"The earliest and most important historical fact in connection with the town of Birmingham is the grant of a market charter. It is the first step in that long chain of events which have gradually raised Birmingham from the little hamlet of herdsman on the fertile banks of the rippling Rea to one of the foremost cities of the British Empire. . . . The Birmingham grant was well in advance of that of most English towns, as it dates back to the year 1166 . . . (by King Henry II). . . . The next market charter was granted by Richard Cœur de Lion 23 years later in 1189. It was merely a renewal or confirmation of the first charter. . . . In 1250 . . . William de Birmingham obtained a charter from the king which among other privileges granted him the right to hold a fair in his manor of Birmingham for four days."—*Birmingham markets and fairs* (*Birmingham Archaeological Society Transactions*, 1912, p. 12).

1265-1266.—William de Birmingham killed in battle of Evesham and manor of Birmingham seized by the king.—"William de Birmingham was one of the reforming Barons and joined the forces of Simon de Montfort. In 1265 he was killed in the dreadful slaughter of the Battle of Evesham when Simon and his troops were cut to pieces. The manor of Birmingham was seized by the king [Henry III], who granted it to Roger de Clifford. The writ *de intendo* of 18th January, 1266, addressed to the tenants of the Manor of Birmingham in favour of Roger de Clifford refers to the manor as formerly of William de Birmingham, the king's enemy and rebel. However, under the Statute of Kenilworth, William's son William recovered the manor by paying a fine to the crown."—W. Barrow, *Birmingham markets and fairs* (*Birmingham Archaeological Society Transactions*, 1912, pp. 13-14).—See also **ENGLAND: 1216-1272**.

1527.—Edward de Birmingham deprived of his property by means of John Dudley.—Manor later passed to the crown.—Granted to Thomas Marrow.—“The owner of the Manor in 1536 was the ill-fated Edward de Birmingham, who succeeded to the estates when a child of the age of three, on the death of his grandfather in 1500. We all know the story . . . how by connivance of John Dudley, Earl of Northumberland, Edward de Birmingham was accused of felony . . . on the night before Christmas Eve, 1527. . . . Edward de Birmingham does not seem to have been arrested until 1532. In 1536 he was detained in the tower when a special Act of Parliament . . . was passed. This recited that Edward de Birmingham was indebted to the king, in ‘diverse great summs of money,’ that he had, moreover, been convicted of felony, and that the king had been pleased to accept the Manor and Lordship of Birmingham in satisfaction of the sums of money. It was therefore enacted that, subject to the reservations therewith of an annuity of £40 per annum to Edward and his wife, Elizabeth, the Manor and Lordship of Birmingham should be held by the king as his own property. Nine years later (1545) the De Birmingham estates were granted by King Henry VIII to John Dudley now Duke of Northumberland. But on King Henry VIII’s death, Northumberland being involved in the Lady Jane Grey conspiracy was attainted of high treason, and his estates forfeited to the Crown in the 1st year of the reign of Mary, and her Spanish husband, Philip. . . . The Manor of Birmingham did not long remain the property of the Crown.”—*Birmingham markets and fairs (Birmingham Archaeological Society Transactions, 1912, p. 16)*.—In the fourth year of their reign it was granted to Thomas Marrow, of Berkswell, from whom by marriage and descent it went to Christopher Musgrave.

1643.—Battle of Birmingham.—In the Civil War under Charles I, the town sided actively with the Parliamentarians. “Prince Rupert, the nephew of the king, with nine troop of horse and about 300 men, was marching with Charles towards London when the latter broke his journey at Aston Hall and having separated from the king was met on the 17th of October (1642) by a Parliamentary general ‘near Brumegun in Warwickshire,’ who ‘gave him battle, which was very fierce, and cruell on either side, but at length the Prince’s souldiers retreated and fled.’ In the next year (1643) Prince Rupert came again to Birmingham, this time with about 2,000 men. . . . He sent word to the people of Birmingham ‘that if they would quietly receive his Highnesse and his forces they should suffer no injury, but otherwise they must expect to be forced to it.’ . . . It was decided by the majority of the inhabitants that they should resist the Prince. . . . But theirs was a hopeless task. Not only were they many times outnumbered, but Prince Rupert’s forces were better armed and many of them were mounted.”—Jones J. Ernest, *Short History of Birmingham, p. 71*.—The town was attacked, plundered and many houses burned and a fine levied. The town was quiet during the rest of the Civil War.

1665.—Birmingham and the plague.—In 1665 Birmingham suffered heavy losses by the plague, the dead being buried in the pest field, at Ladywood, then far outside of the town.

1660-1820.—Expansion and economic progress.—“As if they wished to atone for the part they had taken in resisting Charles I, and in siding with the Parliament, they were in the reigns of the Georges, and especially in that of the third of that name, as violent and uncompromising Tories

as could be found in England. The town grew in extent and population quietly and soberly, and industry made an equally quiet and sober progress until the days of Boulton and Watt revolutionised the trade of the country. Thus we need not be surprised at the evidences we meet of the length of time it took Birmingham to grow out of a quiet, pretty country town to the hive of industry which it is now. Writing of the Birmingham of Charles the Second’s days, Macaulay says, ‘Birmingham had not been thought of sufficient importance to send a member to Oliver’s Parliament. Yet the manufacturers of Birmingham were already a busy and thriving race. They boasted that their hardware was highly esteemed . . . in London and even as far off as Ireland. Yet in 1685 the population, which in 1840 was little less than two hundred thousand, did not amount to four thousand. Birmingham buttons were just beginning to be known; of Birmingham guns nobody had yet heard; and the place whence two generations after, the magnificent editions of Baskerville went forth to astonish the librarians of Europe, did not contain a single regular shop where a Bible or an almanack could be bought.’—Compiled and edited by J. Alfred and Langford, *Century of Birmingham life, v. 1, pp. 163-164*.

1791.—Birmingham and the “Church and King” riots.—“In 1791 Birmingham was in many ways a typical industrial town of the new order. The metal trades were making vast strides, Boulton’s Soho Works growing alongside the industry of small masters. Population was swelling, and new districts straggled out along the canals. The town had no representative in Parliament, no real municipal government, and no effective police. There was scarcely any civilizing influence among the teeming population of artisans, and the city, as it appeared, was abundantly furnished with professional ruffians and prostitutes. One centre of intellectual life existed in the public library, chiefly used by a small group of educated manufacturers and professional men, who read books and met to discuss scientific and speculative questions. Some of them were members of dissenting congregations which flourished in the town, and were regarded with much jealousy by churchmen. Feeling ran especially high since Dr. Priestley, celebrated for his Unitarian theology and scientific discoveries, had settled in Birmingham to take charge of the new meeting-house. In 1780 Birmingham society was convulsed by the controversy over the Test Act. . . . Dissent and political reform were everywhere allied, and nowhere more closely than in Birmingham. When the anniversary of the fall of the Bastille came round and the ‘Friends of Freedom’ were invited to a public dinner, the *Birmingham Gazette* contained an announcement that their names would be published next day in a halfpenny pamphlet. Then a handbill was discovered in which tyrants were bidden beware; the crown of ‘a certain Great Personage’ was growing too heavy for the head that wore it. It was seized on by the Conservative party, and the cry of ‘Church and King’ was raised, while the Radicals denounced it as the work of an enemy.”—P. A. Brown, *French Revolution in English history, pp. 77-78*.—“It began with an attack on the hotel where the members of the society were assembled, but before the day was closed, the mob had totally destroyed two of the principal meeting houses in Birmingham as well as the house of Priestley. . . . On Friday the magistrates enrolled a large body of special constables, but they proved too weak to restrain the mob. For three days the houses of prominent dissenters or democrats of Birmingham

ham . . . were wrecked or burned. Many lives were lost . . . and the rioters were often too intoxicated to escape from the flames they had kindled. . . . It was not until Monday morning that the arrival of a troop of cavalry from Nottingham restored order."—W. E. H. Lecky, *England in the eighteenth century*, v. 5, pp. 528-529.

1801-1811.—Population.—In 1801 the population was 60,822; in 1811, 74,037.

1824.—Purchase of market rights and tolls.—"In 1824, with a wise foresight abundantly justified by the result, the Commissioners purchased from Mr. Christopher Musgrave, then lord of the manor, the market rights and tolls for the sum of £12,500."—J. T. Bunce, *History of the corporation of Birmingham*, v. 2, p. 174.

1832.—Birmingham enfranchised.—"The part which Birmingham took in promoting and carrying the Reform Act is matter of history. The force of the Political Union, and of the principles upon which it was based, and of the desires to which it gave expression, continued to exert itself locally after the immediate purpose of the Union had been accomplished. By the Reform Act, Birmingham was erected into a Parliamentary Borough, and had two representatives in the House of Commons assigned to it. But while the political rights of the town were thus admitted and established, the local government was left untouched. This remained as it was constituted more than sixty years previously. The powers of the manorial officers were still exercised; justice was administered by county magistrates, holding their petty sessions in the town; the lighting, paving, sewerage, and other sanitary work was still vested in the Commissioners of the Street Act, a self-elected body."—J. T. Bunce, *History of the Corporation of Birmingham*, v. 1, pp. 96-97.

1835-1838.—Passage of Lord John Russell's municipal corporation bill. — Birmingham granted a charter.—"Birmingham had tried to get a charter of incorporation more than a hundred years before—in 1716—but had failed. After the passing of the Reform Act of 1832, when it was made a Parliamentary Borough and sent two members to the House of Commons, the granting of one could only be a matter of time. In 1833, a Bill was introduced into Parliament by the Lord Chancellor, Lord Brougham, to incorporate Birmingham, Manchester, Sheffield, Wolverhampton and other large towns, but it did not meet with much favour, and was withdrawn. Two years afterwards (in 1835) Lord John Russell brought in his Municipal Corporations Bill. This Bill, unlike Lord Brougham's, did not incorporate certain towns, but it gave power to the Crown to grant charters on the petition of the inhabitants. It was passed and received the Royal Assent on September 15, 1835. Even then, however, although many men in Birmingham were very anxious to get the town incorporated, months passed before anything was done. On the first day of March in the memorable year 1837, a meeting was held, 'to make the necessary arrangements for obtaining an incorporation of the borough.' Unfortunately, from the first the question of incorporation was a party one. The Tories were against it, for they knew that the power which was in their own hands would be lost to their party if it was granted. It was therefore a Liberal or a Radical movement, and this led to a great deal of trouble in the succeeding years. It caused also a good deal of delay before the Charter was granted. Petitions for and against the Charter were presented, the petitioners in favour being as three to one against. Immediately, these figures were disputed. The

Tories declared that of ratepayers alone there was a majority *against* the Charter. This caused a Government inquiry to be held—two Commissioners coming down to Birmingham in the February of 1838. Their report must have been in favour of incorporation, for it was announced a few weeks later that the Privy Council was 'disposed to recommend it to the Queen to grant a Charter.' The majority of ratepayers alone, however, was not very largely in favour of the change. Although 8,707 persons had signed the petition for a Charter, only 1,788 of these actually paid rates. The number of names to the petition *against* the Charter was 2,841—of whom 1,188 paid rates. But the ratepayers against the Charter paid more in rates—although they were fewer—than those who were in favour. However, the Charter was granted, and it was read in the Birmingham Town Hall on November 5, 1838, by Mr. Wm. Scholefield, who was to become the first Mayor of the town. The first elections of Councillors for the newly-formed Town Council of a Mayor, forty-eight Councillors and sixteen Aldermen took place almost immediately, the day after Christmas Day, and their first meeting took place on December 27. The most remarkable feature of the election was that all the Councillors were Liberals, though there were a few who had been proposed by both Radicals and Tories! The Aldermen were chosen by the Councillors from among themselves—with the exception of two who had not been elected as members of the Council. This caused fourteen vacancies, and that number of new Councillors had to be elected, all of them being, as before, Liberals. Then when the different officers of the new Corporation came to be elected they were all chosen from the Radical party. The Town Clerk, the Registrar of the Mayor's Court (a Court something like the County Court now, for the recovery of small debts), and the Clerk of the Peace, each of whom had a good salary, were Liberals. This was perhaps only natural, for the Tories had done everything they could to prevent Birmingham becoming incorporated, but it was nevertheless unfortunate for the town."—J. E. Jones, *Short history of Birmingham*, pp. 123-126.

1839.—Town incorporated, and Police Act passed.

1839.—Chartist agitation.—Bull Ring riots.—"The Chartists—a body of advanced politicians who demanded, among other things, annual Parliaments, vote by ballot, and payment of Members of Parliament—had been holding meetings every night for months in the Bull Ring. Unfortunately, they had amongst them many men, who, thinking they could get what they wanted if they only showed they were determined, advocated as a sure means of forcing the hands of government the resort to arms. The Birmingham magistrates saw the danger, and they forbade these meetings as early as May 10. They threatened to prosecute all persons holding them, but the meetings continued. Hundreds of the citizens of Birmingham were sworn in as special constables, that is, they assisted in keeping order as voluntary 'policemen.' But even then the magistrates knew that there was grave danger, and only four days before the Town Council had passed the resolution as to the police, they had brought into the town a large body of men from the London Police Force. This made the Chartists very angry, and they vented their displeasure on the men themselves. They stoned and, in one or two cases, even stabbed them. Then ten days after the coming of the London Police—less than a week after the Council Meeting—came the Bull Ring Riots."—J. E. Jones, *Short history*

of Birmingham, p. 131.—On the fifteenth of the same month another meeting took place, and a mob numbering many thousands and well armed set fire to many houses in the Bull Ring. The military again interfered, and order was restored. Several of the ringleaders were tried and imprisoned.—See also ENGLAND: 1838-1842: Chartist agitation.

1857.—John Bright elected M. P. for Birmingham.

1858.—Queen Victoria pays first visit to Birmingham, accompanied by the Prince Consort.

1861-1879.—Library opened (1861).—Destroyed (1879).—"On the 3rd of April, 1861, the Constitution Hill Library was formally opened by Mr. Arthur Ryland, then Mayor. . . . The Central Lending Library and the Art Gallery were opened on the 6th of September, 1865, on the occasion of the meeting of the British Association in Birmingham. . . . [In] 1879, the Library buildings, together with nearly the whole contents of the Reference Library, including the Shakespeare Library, the Cervantes Library and the Staunton Collection and a part of the books in the Lending Library (about 2,000 volumes out of the 20,000 in that collection), were destroyed by fire."—J. T. Bunce, *History of the corporation of Birmingham*, v. 2, pp. 209-211, 224.

1867: Use of caucus to control seat in Parliament.—The Four Hundred. See CAUCUS: England: Development.

1884.—Completion of judicial system of Birmingham.—"The judicial system of Birmingham was completed in 1884 by the grant of Assizes to the Borough, an object which had been steadily kept in view by the Town Council for nearly thirty years. The first endeavour to obtain Assizes was made in January, 1857; a second effort was made in 1859, another in 1863, and a fourth in 1864. . . . The negotiations with the Government were continued in the three following years, and it seemed likely that they would prove successful. Indeed in December, 1866, the Home Office informed the Corporation that a grant of Assizes would be made, and that the first sittings could take place in the ensuing Spring. But the corporation were not prepared for such an immediate development, as the courts could not be got ready, and so the matter went over until May, 1867. The Corporation then endeavoured to obtain a formal grant of Assizes, conditional upon the proposed alterations being made in the Public Office; but the Home Office declined to make a conditional order, intimating, however, that on receiving a certificate that adequate courts and proper lodgings for the judges had been provided, an order for Assizes would be made. Here the negotiations broke down, the Corporation were unwilling to spend money upon the courts until the order in Council for a grant of Assizes had been made; and the Home Office refused to obtain the order until the courts had been provided. A further step, however, was taken at the end of 1867, by the Estate and Buildings Committee presenting a report including plans for Assize Courts upon two acres of land, in Ann Street, Congreve Street, and Edmund Street, purchased in 1864 for the erection of Corporate Offices and Assize Courts—the site now occupied by the Council House, the Art Gallery, and the offices of the Gas Department. The consideration of this report was deferred for twelve months. In the same year a Royal Commission was appointed to enquire into the arrangements for the Superior Courts of Law, Assize Circuits, etc., and the Corporation put the case of Birmingham before the Commission, asking that Birmingham might be made the centre of an Assize

district. In 1869 the Commission reported in favour of Assize districts, and selected Birmingham as the sole place for holding Assizes for the Midland district—consisting of the counties of Warwick, Worcester, and Stafford. The proposal to erect Assize Courts on the Corporation land in Ann Street (now Colmore Row) and Edmund Street was then revived, and the Estates Committee were authorised to obtain designs for Corporate Buildings, Assize Courts, and Judges' Lodgings. In April, 1870, however, the Corporation were informed that the Government did not intend to give effect to the recommendations of the Royal Commission, and so the grant of Assizes, seemingly so probable, once more receded. Nevertheless the Council resolved to proceed with the project of obtaining designs for the necessary buildings, but so to arrange them that the Corporate Offices (the present Council House) could be separately erected; the Assize Courts and Judges' Lodgings being left to wait the course of events. In 1871 the designs were received, and those of Mr. H. R. Yeoville Thomason were accepted. At the end of 1871 another abortive effort was made to obtain Assizes, and then the matter remained in abeyance until 1874, when a further endeavour was made to induce the Government to constitute a Midland Assize district, with Birmingham as its centre. The answer was that the district could not be granted, but that as soon as proper courts were provided, Birmingham might be made an Assize town. In 1875 another endeavour was made to obtain an Assize district, but nothing was effected. On the 7th of March, 1876, a further step was taken. Upon a statement submitted by the Mayor (Mr. Joseph Chamberlain), the Council resolved 'that it is desirable to proceed at once with the erection of proper courts, and other buildings to be used in connection therewith, for the purpose of holding Assizes in this Borough.' Again the subject was deferred until 1880, when, on the 3rd of August, the Council rescinded all their resolutions appropriating land near the Town Hall for Assize Courts, and directed the Improvement Committee to retain possession of a piece of land in Corporation Street, between the County Court and the Old Square, as a probable site for Assize Courts. Nothing further was done until 1883, when, on the 2nd of October, the General Purposes Committee were instructed 'to consider the whole question of the steps to be taken for constituting Birmingham a town for the holding of Assizes, or for the establishment of periodical sittings in the Borough of the High Court of Justice,' and authorising the Committee to communicate with the Government on the subject. On the 1st of July, 1884, the General Purposes Committee were enabled to report that the negotiations for a grant of Assizes to Birmingham had been successful, and that, having ascertained that temporary accommodation could be provided, it was proposed by Order in Council to constitute Birmingham an Assize town, and that the Judges would hold their first Assize in this Borough on the 2nd of August. 'Your Committee,' the report proceeded, 'think it desirable to state that this determination was only arrived at upon an understanding that provision will be made for the holding of the Courts, and the accommodation of the Judges, in a manner worthy of the reputation of the town.' The General Purposes Committee were then directed to 'take all necessary steps to provide temporary accommodation for the holding of Assizes,' and the provision of Judges' Lodgings, and also to 'consider what accommodation it will be necessary to provide for the permanent holding

of Assizes,' and what steps should be taken 'with a view to the erection of suitable buildings on the land reserved by the Corporation for that purpose.'—J. T. Bunce, *History of the corporation of Birmingham*, pp. 269-272.

1889.—Birmingham created a city, Jan. 14.

1896.—Title of mayor raised to "Lord Mayor."

1900.—University established.—The University of Birmingham, incorporated by royal charter on March 24, 1900, grew out of Mason University College, founded in the city of Sir Josiah Mason in 1875. The university includes faculties of science, arts, medicine and commerce, with 184 professors and 1,000 students.

1901.—Riot against Lloyd George.—On Dec. 18, a violent riot broke out in Victoria Square against David Lloyd George, who attempted to deliver a speech opposing the Boer war.

1912.—Industrial growth and municipal progress.—Birmingham has grown into a great city and a very important railway centre, but, although the modern methods of large establishments have been introduced, many small family workshops still remain turning out articles of a special kind. Jewellery of all sorts, watches, coins for foreign governments, buttons, beads, and small metal work of every description, are its characteristic trades. The making of firearms is also very important, from flintlocks for African trade to magazine rifles. Bedsteads employ many hands, bicycle making and the construction of steam-engines are largely carried on. Birmingham is a progressive and enterprising town; its municipality has taken a lead in introducing modern improvements, from steam-engines and gas-lighting in the early days of the great firm of Boulton and Watt, to electric traction at the present time. The public buildings are very fine, the pictures in the corporation galleries are exceptionally good, and the new university with its modern faculty of commerce educates one of the most alert and intelligent populations in the country.—H. R. Mill, ed., *International geography*, pp. 175-176.

1914-1918.—Munitions center.—During the World War Birmingham was one of the greatest munitions manufacturing centers in the United Kingdom. Three Zeppelin raids were carried out on the city, in 1916, 1917 and 1918. Birmingham gave nearly 150,000 fighting men.

1919.—Housing and town-planning act.—This act provides for the Housing and Estates Committee, which is responsible not only for the city properties, but also for the erection of houses to meet the growing needs of the industrial population.

1920.—Post-war development.—Important post-war developments have taken place in electrical engineering, housing and town-planning, railway connection, canal service, industrial organization, and scientific processes.

BIRMINGHAM, Battle of (1643). See **BIRMINGHAM, ENGLAND: 1643.**

BIRMINGHAM CANAL, England. See **CANALS: Principal European canals: British Isles.**

BIRNEY, James Gillespie (1792-1857), American reformer and Abolitionist leader during the anti-slavery struggle, Liberal candidate for president, 1840-1844. See **SLAVERY: 1840-1847.**

BIRON, Charles de Gontaut, Duke of (1562-1602), marshal of France; governor of Burgundy, 1595; beheaded for treason in 1602. See **FRANCE: 1590-1610.**

BIRRELL, Augustine (1850-), English statesman, distinguished lawyer and man of letters. Entered Parliament in 1880. Minister for education in cabinet of Campbell-Bannerman, 1905-1907; chief secretary for Ireland, 1907-1916. See **IRE-**

LAND: 1907; 1916 (May); 1916 (May-July).

BIRTH-RATE. See **STATISTICS: Vital statistics.**

BISCAY, province in Spain. See **BASQUE PROVINCES.**

BISCOE, John, British explorer in South Seas and Antarctic regions. See **ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1819-1838.**

BISHOP, Henry Rowley (1786-1855), English composer of ballad operas and songs. See **Music: Modern: 1750-1870.**

BISHOP, ecclesiastic of the highest order in Christian churches, with oversight over the lower clergy and generally with a specified diocese.

Early development.—"During the 1st and 2nd centuries . . . various apostles and wandering missionaries like Paul had founded numerous scattered churches, of whose local organization we know little, except that they had officials called overseers or *episcopi* or bishops, elders or *presbyters* or priests, and deacons."—L. Thorndike, *History of medieval Europe*, p. 100.—See also **CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church organization.**—"The supremacy of the bishops, which had been founded on the necessity for unity of doctrine, was consolidated by the necessity for unity of discipline. It was a natural effect of the same causes . . . that a rule should grow up that there should be only one bishop in a community. . . . When discipline as well as doctrine found its center in the bishops, it began to be argued that they had succeeded not only to the seats which the Apostles had filled, but also to the powers which the Apostles possessed."—E. Hatch, *Organization of the early Christian churches*, pp. 103-7.—"The clergy were given many privileges by the Christian successors of Constantine, as their edicts in the Theodosian Code show. They were in large measure personally exempted from state duties and taxes; and in most criminal and in some civil cases were to be tried by their own bishops rather than by the imperial courts. Before Christianity had been recognized by the State, it was often the practice for the laity as well as the clergy to settle their disputes privately before their bishop instead of in the public courts, and the Emperors now allowed the bishops to continue this jurisdiction to a certain extent. The emperors would not permit rich men to escape paying taxes by becoming clergymen, but they did allow the Church as a corporation to receive bequests, and themselves endowed it freely. Such church lands were subject to taxation, but this did not prevent the Church and many individuals from growing very wealthy, and by the 5th century the Church is estimated to have become the greatest landholder in the Empire. . . . Councils were now held with increasing frequency and at the same time the Bishop of Rome appears to have increased in importance and power. One would naturally expect, especially after the fall of Jerusalem in 70 A. D. [see **JEWS: A. D. 66-70**], that the leading early Christian community would develop at Rome, the center and the greatest city of the Empire. Moreover, it was believed from an early date that both Peter and Paul had suffered martyrdom there. In the Gospels Jesus often addresses Peter as the leader among the disciples, and in one passage says: 'Thou art Peter and upon this rock I will build my church. . . . And I will give unto thee the keys of the kingdom of heaven: and whatsoever thou shalt bind on earth shall be bound in heaven: and whatsoever thou shalt loose on earth shall be loosed in heaven.' [*Matthew*, xvi: 18, 19.] The Bishops of Rome have therefore argued that Peter was the first Bishop of Rome and that they are his successors as chief of the

apostles and as head of the Church [see PAPACY]. . . . In 747 Boniface secured from the Frankish bishops a declaration of their fidelity to Rome. . . . In France to-day the sees of Bishops still correspond closely to the sites of Roman municipalities, where, before Christianity became the state religion, there had been a pagan *flamen* for the cult of the emperor. . . . By the time of Charlemagne there is no question that the diocesan bishop had become distinctly the central figure of clerical life. . . . With the progress of feudalism the bishop had gone on gaining in dignity and authority until we find him . . . ranking in every respect with the highest in the land."—L. Thorndike, *History of mediæval Europe*, pp. 105-107, 114, 169, 546.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 553-800; ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 400-1000.

His character in the Middle Ages.—"The bishop was the executive and responsible head of a diocese, *i. e.*, of a territory, larger or smaller, in which there might be any number of parish churches, each under the immediate charge of a priest (*presbyter*). As a clerical personage his function was to oversee the conduct of public service and the administration of charity in his whole diocese, to secure proper persons for his subordinates and to see that they did their duty. . . . He did not receive with his higher office any higher consecration, but it seemed specially fitting that, as the executive office of a diocese, he should have especial charge of admissions to membership both in the lay and clerical elements of the religious society, and hence he was regularly entrusted with the performance of the rites of confirmation and of holy orders. . . . By far the most interesting aspect of the bishop's office is its dual character. The mediæval bishop was not merely a clerical personage. He was at the same time the administrator of vast temporal interests. The mediæval church was not, in any modern sense, a state institution. It was protected by the state, but not supported by it. Like all other officials, the clergy were supported by the income of definite parcels of land, and the mediæval idea did not separate sharply the possession or even the use of land and the exercise of jurisdiction over the inhabitants of that land. Thus the bishop, as the chief administrator of a great landed possession, was drawn into all the complicated business of a secular government. As far back as Charlemagne's time we have bishops actually invested with the functions of the count, and, as the feudal system developed, such cases became so frequent as to be, in many parts of Europe, almost the rule [See CONSISTORY COURTS OF THE BISHOPS]. The bishop became, by virtue of his office, a vassal of the seignior in whose territory his lands might lie, and he also became in his turn a seignior, often on a great scale, with vassals and sub-vassals, ruling over a very wide extent of country. Everything that we have said about the rights and duties of feudal princes [see FEUDALISM] applies with equal truth to the bishop—with one great exception. The lay fief was, from an early day, hereditary; the ecclesiastical fief passed from one hand to another by virtue of an election. As to how a bishop was properly to be elected there was never a doubt in any one's mind. '*Clero et populo*' was a canonical phrase, easily enough understood, and plainly enough intended to exclude every form of influence through the government or from any source whatever except the body of persons over whom the new bishop was to have authority. As time went on, however, it became more and more impossible to keep the episcopal election within such narrow lines. It became involved with every

form of seigniorial interest both from above and from below. The filling of a vacant bishopric with the right man was a matter of immense importance to every landholder in the vicinity, especially so the direct lord of the land, and most of all to the overlord, the king."—E. Emerton, *Mediæval Europe*, pp. 546-548.

Investiture.—Authority of archbishop.—"Lay investiture was the power exercised by kings and feudal lords of investing with his office and fiefs the new incumbent of a bishopric or abbey. . . . The new bishop or abbot must do homage to his king or feud lord and receive from him, not only the church lands as a fief, but also the symbols of his religious functions, the ring and the staff, with the words, '*Accipe ecclesiam*' ('Take this church') . . . It was finally agreed by the Concordat at Worms in 1122 that nowhere should the clergy any longer receive the symbols of their spiritual functions from the bands of secular rulers; but that in Germany ecclesiastical elections should take place in the royal presence and that the bishop, before he could be consecrated, must be invested with his temporal fiefs by the king or emperor. . . . For England the question was compromised in about the same way as Germany, but in France the Church came nearest to settling the questions of ecclesiastical elections and investitures to suit itself. . . . [For the struggle over Investiture see GERMANY: 1056-1122; and PAPACY: 1056-1122.] The archbishop had a certain authority over a number of bishops . . . but some bishops were practically independent of archiepiscopal control and the authority of different archbishops was very unequal. In England there were 17 bishops under the Archbishop of Canterbury and 2 under the Archbishop of York. . . . Each bishop had his own cathedral church, usually located in a town; in fact, in England no place was called a city unless it had a cathedral. . . . The priest, although nominated by some lay or ecclesiastical patron of the parish church, must be approved and ordained by his bishop, who was also supposed to visit and superintend the activities of all the priests within his diocese. . . . The mass was the central feature of the church service. Often the only preaching was done by the bishop when he paid a visit."—L. Thorndike, *History of mediæval Europe*, pp. 284, 291-2, 436, 439.

Since the Reformation.—At the time of the Reformation, the episcopal office practically disappeared from the Protestant communities of the continent of Europe, although the title has been retained in Denmark, Norway and Sweden. The establishment of the Reformation church of England put the bishops under the control of the king of England (in the first case, Henry VIII) and all connection with the Roman see was severed. The bishops had been included in the membership of the Saxon witenagemote and in the parliament of Simon de Montfort and are recognized as peers entitled to seats in the House of Lords. The law of the Puritans during the commonwealth abolished episcopacy, but the bishops returned to their positions in church and state with the restoration of Charles II. The English bishops are theoretically chosen by the chapter of each cathedral church on receipt of a license from the crown, but as a nomination is included in the license (called *congé d'élire*) and no chapter disregards such a nomination, the appointment may be said to come from the king and the prime minister. One factor contributing to the final break between the thirteen American colonies and England had its origin in religious, ecclesiastical, and sectarian differences. "Certain devoted Episcopalians (q. v.) on

both sides of the water wanted to see Church of England (q.v.) bishops established in the Colonies. The Government made no attempt to comply with the request; but the fear that it would, became real and general; the ministers of the opposing sects, together with the patriot leaders among the laymen, played upon this fear, and the prejudice and apprehension thus excited became a potent cause of estrangement. . . . The religious and moral enthusiasm inspired by the Wesleyan revival began to spend its force early in the 19th century at least so far as the upper classes were concerned, and the Establishment, except for the Evangelicals, hardly warmed by the fervor of the movement, relapsed into its customary state of chilly conservatism. Its bishops were pompous, dignified figures who had secured their high offices through family connection, personal influence, or reputation for learning, who enjoyed ample incomes and extensive powers, and who, with little regard for purely religious work, devoted themselves to politics, to the administration of their estates, to society and scholarly leisure. . . . While the bishops and a few favored clergy were in receipt of rich revenues, the rank and file of the country parsons drew only meager stipends. . . . The attempt to meet the threatened dangers resulted in the Oxford Movement, so called because it was started largely by a group of young Oxford scholars."—A. L. Cross, *History of England and Greater Britain*, p. 750, n. 3, pp. 1039-1040.—Among the leaders of the Oxford movement were John Henry Newman and John Keble, and at their stimulus a new type of high churchman developed, resembling the Laudian divines of the seventeenth century, who emphasized the Catholic, apostolic traditions of the Church of England. In 1919 there were in England and Wales forty-three Anglican bishops and three archbishops. Including the colonial bishops there are now 229 in the Anglican communion.

In the Protestant Episcopal church and Methodist Episcopal church of the United States the functions of the bishops are similar to those of the Anglican but the Methodist Episcopal bishops have no dioceses and are all itinerant. In the Roman Catholic church the bishops appointed by the pope are still essential as conveyors of the Apostolic succession. In the Greek church they are chosen exclusively from the unmarried clergy.

ALSO IN: E. Hatch, *Organization of the early Christian churches*.—Moberly, *Ministerial priesthood*.

BISHOPS' WARS. See SCOTLAND: 1638-1640; and ENGLAND: 1640: Short parliament.

BISMARCK, Otto Eduard Leopold, Prince von (1815-1898), famous Prussian statesman. Became a member of the Prussian diet in 1847; ambassador to Russia, 1858-1862; Prussian premier and minister for foreign affairs in 1862, chancellor of the North-German Confederation in 1867, and first chancellor of the German empire in 1871. Advocate of strictly reactionary measures and upholder of the Prussian prestige; strongly opposed German colonial policy. Was made a count after the Schleswig-Holstein war of 1864, a prince in 1871, and duke of Lauenburg on his retirement in 1890. See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 1879-1894; EUROPE: Modern Period: Wars of the Great Powers: (1848-1878); FRANCE: 1870 (June-July); GERMANY: 1850; 1871-1879; 1898 (July); WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: a, 1; c; f; j.

"Blood and Iron" speech. See GERMANY: 1861-1866.

Duplicity in Luxemburg affair. See LUXEMBURG: 1780-1914.

Influence in Seven Weeks' War. See GERMANY: 1866.

Negotiations for Dual Alliance with Austria. See TRIPLE ALLIANCE: Austro-German Alliance.

Protective tariff of 1879. See TARIFF: 1870-1900.

Social insurance legislation. See SOCIAL INSURANCE: Origin and early development: Origin.

Relations with William II. See GERMANY: 1888; Death of Emperor William I.

Speeches against German Catholicism. See PAPACY: 1870; 1870-1874.

Suffrage legislation. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: GERMANY: 1867-1917.

BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO, a part of what was until the treaty of Versailles in 1919 German New Guinea; was occupied on September 12, 1914, by an Australian force and assigned in 1919, under mandate to Australia, came into German possession in 1884 when a protectorate over the New Britain archipelago and several adjacent groups of islands was declared; in 1885 renamed the Bismarck archipelago. The chief islands are Neu Pommern, now again called New Britain, area 10,000 square miles; Neu Mecklenburg, now New Ireland, area 4,600 square miles; Neu Hannover, area 530 square miles; Neu Lauenburg or Duke of York islands, area twenty-two square miles; the Admiralty islands (principal island, Manus), area 600 square miles. The location of the archipelago is between 141° and 154° east longitude, and the equator and 8° south latitude.—See also ADMIRALTY ISLANDS; MELANESIA.

BISSEXTILE YEAR. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era.

BISSING, Moritz Ferdinand, Freiherr von (1844-1917), German general. Was military governor of Belgium, 1914-1916, and frankly defended his policy of reprisals and deportations.—See BELGIUM: 1914-1918: Belgian deportations; and 1914-1918: National distress; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: y; 1916: X. German rule, etc.: b, 2.

BISSOLATI, Leonida (1865-1920), Italian socialist. At the end of 1918 he resigned his post of minister of pensions in the Orlando cabinet as a protest against the imperialism of his colleagues. See SOCIALISM: 1860-1920.

BISUTUN. See BEHISTUN, ROCK OF.

BISWAS, Ashutosh, Assassination of. See INDIA: 1905-1910.

BITHYNIANS, or Thynians.—"Along the coast of the Euxine, from the Thracian Bosphorus eastward to the river Halys, dwelt Bithynians or Thynians, Mariandynians and Paphlagonians,—all recognized branches of the widely extended Thracian race. The Bithynians especially, in the northwestern portion of this territory, and reaching from the Euxine to the Propontis, are often spoken of as Asiatic Thracians,—while on the other hand various tribes among the Thracians of Europe are denominated Thyni or Thynians,—so little difference was there in the population on the two sides of the Bosphorus, alike brave, predatory, and sanguinary. The Bithynians of Asia are also sometimes called Bebyrkians, under which denomination they extend as far southward as the gulf of Kios in the Propontis."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 16.—The Bithynians were among the people in Asia Minor subjugated by Cræsus, king of Lydia, and fell, with his fall, under the Persian rule. But, in some way not clearly understood, an independent kingdom of Bithynia was formed, about the middle of the fifth century B.C. which resisted the Persians, successfully resisted Alexander the Great and his successors in Asia Minor,

resisted Mithradates of Pontus, and existed until 74 B. C., when its last king, Nicomedes III bequeathed his kingdom to Rome and it was made a Roman province.—See also THRACE: People.

BITLIS, or *Beſlis*, the chief town of a vilayet of the same name in Asiatic Turkey; situated on the Bitlis Chai, an affluent of the Tigris. The town still preserves an old castle which, according to tradition, occupies the site of a fortress built by Alexander the Great. Kurdish beys and sheiks have had much influence in the affairs of the town. The Russian army twice captured Bitlis in 1916 during the Caucasus campaign of the Grand Duke Nicholas and General Yudenich. (See also ARMENIA: 1910-1920; WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: d, 1; 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 3; d, 6). During 1920 it figured in the Armenia-Turkish boundary settlement. (See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III. Political clauses: Armenia.)

BITOLIA, city in Serbia. See MONASTIR.

BITONTO, Battle of (1734). See FRANCE: 1733-1735.

BITTO, István (Stefan) (1822-), Hungarian statesman; in Hungarian revolution, 1848-1849; vice-president, chamber of deputies, 1869-1872; premier, 1874-1875; member of Upper House, 1899. See HUNGARY: 1868.

BITURIGES, Gallic tribe. See AEDUI; BOURGES, ORIGIN OF.

BIXSCHOOOTE, a village in Belgium about five miles north of Ypres. During the World War was for a time in German hands, but was reoccupied by the allies in their Flanders advance of June-November, 1917.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: w, 19.

BIZET, Georges (1838-1875), French composer. Studied at the Paris Conservatoire with Marmontel, Zimmermann, Benoist, and Halévy; won the Prix de Rome; "Carmen," his masterpiece and one of the most famous of all operas, was brought out at the Opéra Comique in 1875. One of the features of this opera is the peculiar use of the flute and the lowest notes of the harp. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1921.

BIZOCHI, a branch of the Fratricelli party of the Franciscan order. See BEGUINES, etc.

BJERREGAARD, Henrik Anker (1792-1842), Norwegian poet and dramatist. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1814-1900.

BJÖRNSSON, Björnstjerne (1832-1910), Norwegian poet, novelist and dramatist. His extremely nationalistic writings give us excellent examples of peasant tales, some beautiful poetry, and for the stage, social, polemical, and satirical plays. In addition to his violent nationalism, he was a Pan-German enthusiast. In 1903 received the Nobel prize for literature. See NOBEL PRIZES: Literature: 1903; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1857-1910.

BLACK, Jeremiah Sullivan (1810-1883), American jurist. Judge of Pennsylvania supreme court, 1851-1857; attorney-general under Buchanan, 1857-1860; secretary of state, 1860-1861.

BLACK, Joseph (1728-1799), Scottish professor of chemistry who experimented with carbon dioxide. See CHEMISTRY: General: Phlogiston period.

BLACK ACTS. See SCOTLAND: 1584.

BLACK AND TAN CONVENTIONS, a name given to the reconstruction conventions in the Southern states after the Civil War. They were also called "Black Crook Conventions." The most notable were those of Alabama and South Carolina. That of Alabama met in November, 1867. The delegates elected to the convention were a motley crew—white, yellow and black. . . . The disgusted Conservatives designated the aggregation

by various epithets, such as 'The Unconstitutional Convention,' . . . 'Black and Tan,' 'Black Crook,' etc. . . . The colored delegates brought up the negro question in several forms. . . . The negroes were placated with numerous promises. . . . The debates on the question of suffrage were the most extended and showed the most violent spirit on the part of most of the members. . . . Peck, the president of the convention, still spoke out for the test oath and disfranchisement. . . . The oath finally adopted which had to be taken by all who would vote or hold office, was the usual oath to support the Constitution and laws with the following additions: 'I accept the civil and political equality of all men; and agree not to attempt to deprive any person or persons, on account of race, color or previous condition, of any political or civil right.' . . . The Constitution was adopted by a vote of sixty-six to eight."—W. L. Fleming, *Civil War and reconstruction in Alabama*, pp. 517, 519, 521, 524, 527, 529.—"In obedience to General Order No. 160 of Brevet Maj.-Gen. E. R. S. Canby, U. S. A., dated December 28, 1867, the delegates elected to the 'convention of the people of South Carolina' assembled in Charleston on January 14, 1868, 'for the purpose of framing a constitution and civil government' according to the provisions of the Reconstruction acts of Congress. . . . Of the 124 delegates elected, forty-eight were white and seventy-six colored. The white men classed as 'Republicans' were about equally divided as natives or newcomers—in the vernacular of the times, 'scalawags' or 'carpet baggers.' . . . A commission was appointed to frame and submit to the Legislature a scheme of 'financial relief' for the people of the State. The Convention adjourned *sine die* on March 18—after a session of fifty-three working days. . . . The new Constitution contained many provisions which made that instrument materially different from the one adopted in 1865."—J. S. Reynolds, *Reconstruction in South Carolina*, pp. 76, 78, 81.—See also SOUTH CAROLINA: 1865-1872; Reconstruction.

BLACK AND TANS, the name applied (in 1920) to the new auxiliary recruits of the Royal Irish Constabulary, who were recruited at a salary reported to be one pound a day and perquisites. The appellation was derived from their soldiers' khaki uniforms and constables' black caps.—See also IRELAND: 1920: State of the country.

BLACK ART. See ALCHEMY.

BLACK BELT, a term at first applied to central Alabama, but later to all the Gulf states. At first it referred to the soil of this region which is black in color, and especially adapted to the production of cotton. Because of the extensive employment of negroes on the cotton plantations and the tendency of the negroes greatly to outnumber the white men through all this district, the term has gained a second connotation. The special problem of the Black Belt is the predominance of negroes among the population. "The Black Belt of Alabama stretches across the south central portion of the state, from east to west and comprises twenty-one counties. The northern part of the Belt embraces a country somewhat rolling, of metamorphic soils, and the southern extends into the upper part of the coastal uplands, but the greater part of the Belt embraces the central prairie region that runs diagonally across the state, with a width of thirty-five or forty miles. By fact of physiographic features the soils of the Black Belt are the most fertile of the state and better adapted to the cultivation of the staples than the other regions. . . . The distinguishing characteristics of the ante-bellum Black Belt was its agri-

cultural supremacy in Alabama. Its industrial system was made up of the big plantations as the industrial units and the dominant feature of these units was organization and management which made this the region of supremacy. In the confusions and disorder of society that followed the Civil War, the Black Belt lost many of the men who had given dignity and strength to its former civilization. Many planters in the unsettled conditions of labor did not care to attempt farming and moved out of the state; others unable to realize on their holding gave up farming and went to the towns and cities; and still others, seeking better educational and social advantages went to the places where these were to be found. . . . The white planters who remained on the plantation after the war employed largely the share system, sometimes a combination of sharing and renting. Under this system close supervision was necessary, else failure and ruin were certain. Consequently these men, even though their abilities were great, had their time and energies consumed in this atrophying routine of drudgery. To the woes of supervising listless negroes' labor were added the distresses of the iniquitous credit system. The life of the post-bellum Black Belt planter therefore was a struggle for dire economic existence."—C. E. Allen, *Greater agricultural efficiency for the Black Belt of Alabama (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Sept., 1915, pp. 187-198)*.

"The most striking contrast between the white and black counties is in the important matter of land tenure. In addition to ownership, there are two widespread systems of tenure, known as the 'cropping' system and the 'standing rent' system. The Census groups together as 'cash tenants' those tenants who pay a cash rental for the use of the soil and those who pay a fixed amount of the crop. In Georgia practically no tenants pay actual cash, so that in this state the term 'cash tenants' means 'standing renters.' . . . Statistics show that the cash-tenancy system is spreading in Georgia and that the cropping system is declining. This tendency has usually been interpreted as indicating economic progress, the emergence of the blacks from 'what was virtually the old slavery system under another name,' as the cropping system has been described, to a higher position. Under the cropping system the landlord furnishes everything—land, house, stock, seed—and takes half the product of the year as rent. He also commonly feeds the cropper and deducts the charge for supplies from the negro's share; or in lieu of furnishing him from a commissary, the employer 'stands' for the cropper at the neighboring merchant's store. The characteristic feature of this system of farming is strict supervision by the landlord over the operations of the farmer. In reality, the cropper is a day laborer, without responsibility except for the day's work. If through adverse seasons his crop is a total failure, he remains under no obligation to the landlord. The employer takes all the risk. The profits depend on the seasons, the prices, and the amount and character of the supervision the landlord exercises. In point of organization, this system resembles the ante-bellum plantation. Usually, almost invariably, indeed, croppers are found settled on small farms surrounding the residence of the landlord, the cabins close enough to permit the croppers to come in the morning for the stock without undue waste of time. The outlying portions of the plantations, situated at such distance as to make close supervision impracticable, are commonly occupied by standing renters. Under the standing rent system,

the farmer pays a definite amount of the crop as rental, say one thousand pounds of lint cotton per house farm of thirty acres. The landlord furnishes only the land and house. The negro supplies his own mule and feeds himself, if he can get credit. In this matter custom varies. Very often the landlord is obliged to 'stand' for the renter before the merchant will extend credit; in other cases, the negro is considered as good a risk as a white man—all depending on the individual. Competition among the county merchants is becoming so strong that credit is frequently extended to the average negro without the personal endorsement of the landlord. In such cases the merchant takes a second lien on the crop, as well as a mortgage on any chattels possessed by the tenant. There is a large element of risk in such business, and the merchants exact from the tenants a high rate of insurance. The theoretical advantage of renting is that, after providing for the payment of rent by planting a certain proportion of the farm in cotton, the farmer is free from the control of the landlord and becomes an *entrepreneur* instead of a laborer. If the white or black standing renter be a man of exceptional intelligence and judgment, he has an opportunity to diversify his farming, and by producing food-stuffs he can be independent in large measure of the merchant. Unfortunately, the common run of negroes lack the qualities that would enable them to use advantageously the freedom of the renting system. They do not diversify crops. . . . It is also doubtless true that the systems of farming already described make for discontent in the country. Under both systems, landlords are inclined to insist on the planting of cotton to the exclusion of other crops. To this rule there are gratifying exceptions; but in general the tenant is not sufficiently encouraged to produce corn, hay, hogs, cattle or poultry. All his energies are expended in making cotton. Food-stuffs come from the merchant. The credit system and the lack of diversification in farming are fatal to the negro, and, indeed, to the white farmer. While such forces as these are at work, the migrations of the masses of negroes are not by any means entirely in response to such stimuli. It has been shown time and again that negro tenants will, wholly without grievance, leave places in which they have advanced from poverty to comparative comfort, simply because they 'jest want a change.' The blacks are naturally easy-going and improvident. They need the stress of competition and the presence of examples of industry. One of the ablest leaders of the race says: 'In nine cases out of ten where a negro in the South is found owning property, he has had an individual white man or a group of southern white men to help guide and encourage him in this respect.' The black man's powers of imitation are great; and where his energies are properly guided and he is encouraged to practice self-restraint and prudence—taught to defer present enjoyment for future good—many a black man has become a prosperous and upright citizen. But the population of the southern states is so small and the proportion of blacks to whites so great that, under the present conditions, it is not surprising that the progress of the negroes is slow and that in some sections there appears to be no progress. The greatest need seems to be the increasing of the proportion of whites to blacks. This end might be reached in two ways: first, by the emigration of negroes to other and predominantly white sections; second, by attracting white immigration to the South. The first of these modes of remedying the situation seems unlikely to affect the masses of the negroes; the second holds out

promise of greater influence. The profound industrial and agricultural revolution through which the South is now passing will inevitably draw immigrants. The movement has, in fact, already begun; and while some southerners are at present unconvinced of the desirability of immigrants, the advantage of an abundant labor supply will doubtless in time overcome their objections, which are superficial and, in some instances, unreasonable. The establishment of a small proprietor class should prove a great incentive to the negro, pointing out to him the goal to be reached as the reward of industry."—R. P. Brooks, *Local study of the race problem* (*Political Science Quarterly*, June, 1911).

ALSO IN: W. B. Dubois, *Souls of black folk*.

For an account of the migration of the negroes out of the Black Belt into the North, 1916-1918, see RACE PROBLEMS: 1909-1921.

BLACK CAVALRY. See KU KLUX KLAN.
BLACK CLERGY, Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917 (August).

BLACK CODES.—"Between October, 1865, and March, 1866, the several Southern State legislatures passed enactments in respect to the freedmen which seemed to the North a grudging bestowal on them of certain civil rights nearly counterbalanced by the application to them of harsh criminal legislation. In all the States the negroes were given the power to sue and be sued, and to testify in the courts when coloured persons were concerned. The relationship of man and wife and the responsibility for their children were recognized. The privilege of serving on juries or in the militia was not bestowed nor of course the right to vote or to hold office. They were not always subject to the same proceedings and punishment as the whites. For the negro the penalty for the rape of a white woman and for certain other offenses was death where on the white man a lesser punishment was imposed. The apprentice, vagrant and contract labour laws bore hardly on numbers of coloured men and in some States tended to a system of peonage. The negroes were virtually forbidden to assemble, their freedom of movement was restricted and by some legislatures they were deprived of the means of defence. In short they were not made equal with the whites before the law. These laws were not passed in a spirit of defiance to the North . . . but many good people believed they were; and this and other misconstructions of them had a powerful effect on Northern sentiment. The difficulties of the problem were not generally comprehended at the North. Three and a half million persons of one of the most inferior races of mankind had through the agency of their superiors been transformed from slavery to freedom. It was a race the children of which might with favouring circumstances show an intellectual development equal to white children 'up to the age of thirteen or fourteen; but then there comes a diminution, often a cessation, of their mental development. The physical overshadows the psychical and they turn away from the pursuit of culture.' (Note.—Brinton, *Races and peoples*, p. 192. This I am informed is a pretty general view of ethnologists, although many put the age of arrest earlier.) 'The infernal laws of slavery,' declared Thaddeus Stevens, 'have prevented negroes from acquiring an education, understanding the commonest laws of contract or of managing the ordinary business of life.' (Note.—Speech, Dec. 18, *Globe*, p. 74.) 'I met,' wrote Sidney Andrews, 'many negroes whose jargon was so utterly unintelligible that I could scarcely comprehend the ideas they tried to convey.' (Note.—*South since the War*, p. 227.) . . . In my judgment it would

have been safe to permit the States to work out this problem under the restrictions naturally arising from the operation of the Freedmen's Bureau and the military occupation which was conceded by the President and all the Republicans at the North must continue for a while longer. The temper of the officers of the army was for the most part excellent, forbearance and decision being shown as each was needed. 'We can't undertake to run State Governments in all these Southern States,' said Lincoln during the last cabinet meeting at which he presided. 'Their people must do that though I reckon that at first they may do it badly.' (Note.—Account of F. W. Seward, who was present as acting Secretary of State because of his father's disability. *Life of Seward*, vol. iii, p. 275.) Henry Ward Beecher said in a sermon October, 1865: 'All measures instituted under the act of emancipation for the blacks in order to be permanently useful must have the cordial consent of the wise and good citizens of the South . . . the kindness of the white man in the South is more important to the negroes than all the policies of the nation put together.' (*Life*, by Lyman Abbott, p. 278.)"—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 5, pp. 555-559.—The following contemporary testimony is taken from the *Journal of the Louisiana House of Representatives*, Governor Hahn's message, Oct. 3, 1864: "The great duty of the legislature will be to provide a system of laws applicable to the new condition of things. . . . The obliteration of an interest so extended as that of slavery, necessarily makes great changes in the events, opinions and business of the people, and the highest wisdom is required to adapt the state to its new condition. The change from servile to compensated labor, requires careful, liberal and humane legislation, in order to secure the rights of those people who have not been accustomed to provide for and protect themselves. Inasmuch as Louisiana is the first state that makes this change on an extended scale, so it ought to be the first to establish a system of government which shall meet all the exigencies of the case, securing to the public the products upon which the wealth of the state and the people depend, and to laborers their full rights. . . . My own ambition in accepting office was to aid the cause of the union and to give slavery its death blow."

Louisiana slave-code.—"Louisiana has followed the example of South Carolina and Mississippi and enacted a code which she presents to the country as her idea as to how much freedom it will do to allow the emancipated blacks. The code comprises four separate statutes, but they all relate to the same subject, and may be considered as parts of one law, designed to impose upon the freedmen involuntary servitude. It is enacted—"That all persons engaged as laborers in agricultural pursuits shall be required, during the first 10 days of the month of January of each year, to make contracts for labor for the then ensuing year, or for the year next ensuing the termination of their present contracts.' There is no liberty to make contracts for six months, or for three, or to make none, but the laborer is bound by law to make a contract of some sort during the first ten days of January for the whole year. He may not be offered a dollar a month for his labor—he is bound by this law to take the best offer he can get during those ten days. The planters may make what agreement they choose as to price; they have only to hold out ten days, and the laborers must either assent to their terms or take the consequence of violating the law. [This was forced labor on public works.] It is further provided that the la-

borer may choose his own employer, but once choosing shall not leave him except by consent or for breach of contract, and if he leaves, shall forfeit his whole wages. The employes shall have a lien on the crops for wages, and employers failing to comply with their contracts shall be fined double the amount due the laborers, but the fine appears to go into the public treasury and not into the laborer's pocket. The ninth section enacts that laborers shall be responsible for all damage to mules, horses, cattle or implements; and that leaving home without permission shall be deemed disobedience, for which the fine is in each case a dollar. 'Impudence, swearing or indecent language' incur the same penalty, a Louisiana Justice of the Peace and two other whites being judges of what constitutes impudence. Lost time brings a fine of twenty-five cents an hour, and two dollars a day. Labor on Sunday cannot be required except to take the necessary care of stock or 'other property,' which we presume the white Justice of the Peace will construe to include sugar cane and cotton as in the good old days of slavery. The statute is limited to laborers engaged in agriculture and the trades necessary thereto when carried on, on plantations—in plain English—to the freedmen. The Apprentice Act authorizes and requires certain specified officials to apprentice all minors who are orphans, or whose parents do not maintain them, to some employer; and if there is any doubt whether the person to be apprenticed be young enough, the white officials shall determine that point. Being once apprenticed, they seem likely to remain so. The third act, nominally to punish, in certain cases, employers of laborers, is, in reality, an act to prevent any person from employing any apprentice or any laborer who has made a contract before the term of apprenticeship or contract has expired. To the same end it is ordained by a fourth law that whoever shall entice away, feed or harbor any person who leaves his employer, or any apprentice shall be liable in damages to the employer, and shall also be subject to a fine of \$500 or imprisonment for a year or both."—*New York Tribune*, Dec. 20, 1865.

Objections in the North.—"President Johnson is handing over the states one by one to the state authorities, and delivering to them the management of their own affairs. This gives them the control of the negro within certain limits, it is true, but wide limits. It enables them by vagrant laws and labor laws, such as all the states are passing, to 'keep the negro down' and 'make him feel his inferiority' and to build upon, in short, the ruin of the old social system a new one, very much better, no doubt, but still marked by features repugnant to the spirit of our institutions, and likely to prove a fertile source of trouble in the future."—*Nation*, Jan. 4, 1866.—"Most of them (the states lately in rebellion) proceeded immediately to enact codes of laws on the topics of labor, contract, crime, etc., of which the effect was to deprive the freedman of almost every civil right beyond the nominal ownership of himself. The codes contained as much of the spirit and substance of slavery as was possible without its name. The North recognized at once that the effect of this would be to defeat one of the great ends for which it had fought—universal freedom."—G. S. Merriam, *Life of Samuel Bowles*, v. 2, p. 18.—In its issue of Jan. 5, 1865, the *New York Herald* comments on the New Hampshire Republican convention of Jan. 3: "The 4th resolution boldly breaks ground on the living issues of the present crisis. It declares that while the Republicans of New Hampshire 'rejoice that chattel slav-

ery no longer receives the sanction of law or constitution in our broad domain,' they 'cannot be blind to the fact that many of the states lately in rebellion have already adopted codes manifestly tending to the reestablishment of other forms of involuntary servitude, little less oppressive than that which has just been abolished,' and that 'it is the sacred duty of the President and of Congress to see that the ordinance of universal emancipation, written in the blood of our brothers and sons, be not by any subterfuge made null and of no effect.' This is 'a sop to Cerberus,' a little buncombe for the radicals, and nothing more, because the constitutional amendment provides that Congress shall have power to enforce it by appropriate legislation. This secures the freedom of the emancipated blacks in all the states, by placing them, as freemen, under the supreme protection of Congress. Moreover any court of the United States will protect them against unconstitutional 'involuntary servitude.' Upon this matter therefore, there need be no delay in southern restoration."—See also MISSISSIPPI: 1866; SOUTH CAROLINA: 1873-1877; U. S. A.: 1865 (July-December).

ALSO IN: W. A. Dunning, *Reconstruction, political and economic*, pp. 55-50.—J. W. Burgess, *Reconstruction and the constitution*.—W. L. Fleming, *Documentary history of reconstruction*.—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, pp. 430, 602.

BLACK CROOK CONVENTIONS. See BLACK AND TAN CONVENTIONS.

BLACK DEATH.—"The Black Death appears to have had its origin in the centre of China, in or about the year 1333. It is said that it was accompanied at its outbreak by various terrestrial and atmospheric phenomena of a novel and most destructive character, phenomena similar to those which characterized the first appearance of the Asiatic Cholera, of the Influenza, and even in more remote times of the Athenian Plague. It is a singular fact that all epidemics of an unusually destructive character have had their homes in the farthest East, and have travelled slowly from those regions towards Europe. It appears, too, that the disease exhausted itself in the place of its origin at about the same time in which it made its appearance in Europe. . . . The disease still exists under the name of the Levant or Oriental Plague, and is endemic in Asia Minor, in parts of Turkey, and in Egypt. It is specifically a disease in which the blood is poisoned, in which the system seeks to relieve itself by suppuration of the glands, and in which, the tissues becoming disorganized, and the blood thereupon being infiltrated into them, dark blotches appear on the skin. Hence the earliest name by which the Plague was described. The storm burst on the Island of Cyprus at the end of the year 1347, and was accompanied, we are told, by remarkable physical phenomena, as convulsions of the earth, and a total change in the atmosphere. Many persons affected died instantly. The Black Death seemed, not only to the frightened imagination of the people, but even to the more sober observation of the few men of science of the time, to move forward with measured steps from the desolated East, under the form of a dark and fetid mist. It is very likely that consequent upon the great physical convulsions which had rent the earth and preceded the disease, foreign substances of a deleterious character had been projected into the atmosphere. . . . The Black Death appeared at Avignon in January 1348, visited Florence by the middle of April, and had thoroughly penetrated France and Germany by August. It entered Poland in 1349, reached Sweden in the

winter of that year, and Norway by infection from England at about the same time. It spread even to Iceland and Greenland. . . . It made its appearance in Russia in 1351, after it had well-nigh exhausted itself in Europe. It thus took the circuit of the Mediterranean, and unlike most plagues which have penetrated from the Eastern to the Western world, was checked, it would seem, by the barrier of the Caucasus. . . . Hecker calculates the loss to Europe as amounting to 25,000,000.—J. E. T. Rogers, *History of agriculture and prices in England*, v. 1, ch. 15.—See also BRISTOL: 1349; ENGLAND: 1348-1349; FRANCE: 1347-1348; FLORANCE: 1348; JEWS: 1348-1349.

ALSO IN: J. F. C. Hecker, *Epidemics of the Middle Ages*.

BLACK EAGLE, Order of the.—A Prussian order of knighthood instituted by Frederick III, elector of Brandenburg, in 1701.

BLACK FAST. See AB.

BLACK FLAG REBELLION. See CHINA: 1898 (April-July).

BLACK FLAGS, brigands rising against the French in Annam. See FRANCE: 1875-1880.

BLACK FRIARS, the name given to the mendicant monks of the Dominican order who made their appearance in London in 1221. In 1285 they occupied the old Montfichett tower which was granted to them for a monastery. See DOMINICAN ORDERS.

BLACK FRIDAY. See MONEY AND BANKING: Modern Period: 1860.

BLACK GUNPOWDER. See CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Explosives: Black gunpowder.

BLACK HAND, Italian criminal society; appeared in Turin 1868, made a specialty of safe-robbing, and large organized crimes. At its height the Black Hand was composed of about 200 members. Public opinion was finally aroused against them and many were supposed to have fled to the United States. They were especially active in that country between 1905 and 1909, and were responsible for the assassination (March, 1909) of Joseph Petrosino, a New York detective who had been successfully tracking them down. "Toward the end of the last century the Sicilian gangs which made their living by blackmail became aware that not a few Italians who had left their home country as peasants had acquired wealth across the Atlantic. Even the ordinary workman, they learnt, who could gain only 40 cents a day in Sicily, could make about four times that wage in New York. Accordingly they hastened to exploit by their familiar methods the rich field of the Italian colony in that city. It was not long before the American police found themselves faced by an elaborate machinery of crime far more ingenious and complicated than anything with which they had previously had to deal. The Black Hand, as the society called itself, proceeded normally to extort what it wanted by frank demands and threats, and it did not hesitate at kidnapping, outrage, and murder when these means seemed necessary to its ends."—*The Times (London)*, March 16, 1909.—See also CAMORRA; and NEW YORK CITY: 1894-1895.

BLACK HAWK WAR. See ILLINOIS: 1832.

BLACK HOLE OF CALCUTTA. See INDIA: 1755-1757.

BLACK HUNDREDS. See RUSSIA: 1903 (April); 1906-1911; 1916: Opposition of Duma to Cabinet.

BLACK KETTLE (d. 1868), Cheyenne Indian general against the Americans under Custer, in Indian territory. See U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

BLACK MAGIC. See MAGIC: Ancient Magic.

BLACK PLAGUE. See BLACK DEATH.

BLACK PRINCE. See EDWARD, THE BLACK PRINCE.

BLACK PRINCE, British armored cruiser, sunk in the battle of Jutland, May 31, 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 1; a, 9.

BLACK ROBE COUNCILLORS, Venetian political body. See VENICE: 1032-1319.

BLACK ROD, "the gentleman whose duty it is to preserve decorum in the House of Lords, just as it is the duty of the Sergeant-at-Arms to maintain order in the House of Commons. These officials are bound to execute the commands of their respective chambers, even though the task involves the forcible ejection of an obstreperous member. . . . His [Black Rod's] most disturbing occupation, now-a-days, is when he conveys a message from the Lords to the Commons. . . . No sooner do the policemen herald his approach from the lobbies than the doors of the Lower Chamber are closed against him, and he is compelled to ask for admission with becoming humility and humbleness. After this has been granted, he advances to the bar, bows to the chair, and then—with repeated acts of obeisance—walks slowly to the table, where his request is made for the Speaker's attendance in the Upper House. The object may be to listen to the Queen's speech, or it may simply be to hear the Royal assent given to various bills. . . . The consequence is nearly always the same. The Sergeant-at-Arms shoulders the mace, the Speaker joins Black Rod, the members fall in behind, and a more or less orderly procession then starts on its way to the Peer's Chamber. . . . No matter what the subject under consideration, Black Rod's appearance necessitates a check . . . till the journey to the Lords has been completed. The annoyance thus caused has often found expression during recent sessions."—*Popular account of parliamentary procedure*, p. 11.

BLACK RODD, of Scotland. See HOLY ROOD OF SCOTLAND.

BLACK RUSSIA. See RUSSIA: Great, Little White and Black.

BLACK SATURDAY, Battle of. See SCOTLAND: 1544-1548.

BLACK SEA, the ancient Pontus Euxinus (q.v.), an inland sea of southeastern Europe, bounded by Russia, Asia Minor, Turkey, Rumania and Bulgaria. It is connected with the Mediterranean by way of the Dardanelles, through the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus—all Turkish territory. The sea covers an area of nearly 170,000 square miles; its greatest length being 740 miles, and greatest width 400 miles. By the Treaty of Paris, 1856, after the close of the Crimean war, the Black Sea was neutralized, no warships were to be permitted on its waters nor military or naval arsenals on its surrounding coasts (see RUSSIA: 1854-1856). In 1870 Russia abrogated the treaty so far as regarded her own military and naval establishments. At the close of the World War the Black Sea was controlled by the allies, through the armistice with Germany. See EASTERN QUESTION; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: f, 4.

BLACK TOM ISLAND EXPLOSION.—

Shortly after 2 a. m., July 30, 1916, about \$5,000,000 worth of munitions exploded on Black Tom island, on the New Jersey side, in New York harbor. Loss of life, so far as it could be ascertained, was comparatively small. Property losses reached a total of not less than \$20,000,000 and included \$3,400,000 worth of sugar and much

plate and window glass in lower Manhattan and other near-by sections. The cause was claimed to be some rubbish burning on Black Tom pier, near Communipaw, for more than a year the main shipping-point of war munitions to the Allies. The great extent of the disaster was apparently due to failure to observe regulations governing the loading of munitions, particularly failure to keep the loaded barges apart from one another.

BLACK WARRIOR, an American merchant vessel, seized and confiscated by Cuban customs officers in May, 1854, her captain being heavily fined. The seizure caused much excitement in the United States, particularly in the South, which would have used it as a pretext for a war of conquest with Spain. After five years' spirited negotiation, Spain made compensation for the seizure. See CUBA: 1854.

BLACKBURN'S FORD, Engagement at. See U. S. A.: 1861 (July: Virginia).

BLACKFEET, **Sisika**, or **Siksika**, **INDIANS**.—"The tribe that wandered the furthest from the primitive home of the stock [the Algonquian] were the Blackfeet, or Sisika, which word has this signification. It is derived from their earlier habitat in the valley of the Red river of the north, where the soil was dark and blackened their moccasins. Their bands include the Blood or Kenai and the Piegan Indians. Half a century ago they were at the head of a confederacy which embraced these and also the Sarcee (Tinné) and the Atsina (Caddo) nations, and numbered about 30,000 souls. They have an interesting mythology and an unusual knowledge of the constellations."—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, p. 79.—See also ALGONQUAN FAMILY; FLATHEADS; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area.

War against Americans. See U. S. A.: 1866-1876.

BLACKLIST, **Commercial**.—**BRITISH**.—"On July 18, 1916, . . . [Great Britain] made public a 'blacklist' of eighty-three firms and individuals of enemy nationality of associations, resident in [the United States], and forbade British subjects to trade with them under the same penalties as if trading with the enemy. This prohibition it was explained applied to German firms with head offices in Germany; to German firms incorporated in the United States and technically American; and those that made use of a secret code or cloak to cover the fact that they were using the cables in the interest of the enemy. Mr. Lansing [Secretary of State] at once instructed Mr. Page [ambassador to Great Britain] to protest. British steamships would not accept cargoes from the persons and firms proscribed; neutral bankers refused them loans; neutral merchants would not contract for their goods, fearing a like proscription, and steamship lines under neutral ownership were given to understand that if they accepted freight from the 'blacklisted,' coal could not be had at British ports and they might themselves be put on the list. Among the proscribed were American firms, importers of foreign products or distributors in foreign lands of American products. These foreign connections, fostered during many years, when once broken, could not easily be resumed. All such citizens of the United States [then a neutral nation], the Government begged to remind the Government of His Britannic Majesty, were quite within their rights in trading with the people of any of the nations now at war, subject to the well-known and well-defined rules of international law. For breaches of blockade when the blockade is real and effective, for every unneutral act by whomsoever attempted there were well-established

remedies and penalties, which the Government of the United States could not consent to see altered or extended at the will of a single Power or group of Powers. That neutrals must not be condemned nor their goods confiscated, save on fair adjudication and full opportunity to be heard in prize court or elsewhere, was a just and honorable principle accepted by all civilized nations as a safeguard of the rights of neutrals. This the blacklist brushed aside. It condemned without notice, without hearing and in advance. Manifestly the United States could not acquiesce in such methods of punishment of its citizens. The Government of the United States had no intention, no inclination to shield its citizens from the just consequences of unneutral acts. It was quite willing they should suffer the penalties which international law has sanctioned. . . . In course of time the names of seven firms were removed from the blacklist; but vessels were blacklisted and British subjects forbidden to furnish them with bunker coal or handle the goods they transported. October 10, 1916, the British Government made a long reply. 'The trading with the enemy (extension of powers) act, 1915,' Viscount Grey said, 'is a piece of purely municipal legislation which provides that His Majesty, by proclamation, may prohibit persons in the United Kingdom from trading with any persons in foreign countries who might be named in that proclamation or subsequent order. That is all.' The Government neither attempted nor claimed to lay penalties on neutral individuals or neutral commerce. The measure simply bade those owing allegiance to Great Britain to cease trading with persons found to be assisting or rendering service to the enemy. 'Neither the rights nor property of the persons specified is interfered with, condemned or confiscated; they are as free as before to carry on their business.' The right of the Government to prohibit British subjects to trade with such firms as it saw fit was held to be beyond dispute. The measure in question was justified as a military necessity. The modern means of transport and communication, opening new, easy methods for an enemy subject residing in a neutral country to render aid to his Government, was cited as another justifying reason. That German business houses in foreign lands had been not merely agents active in spreading espionage was common knowledge. They had been used as bases to supply German cruisers, they were paymasters of miscreants hired 'to destroy by foul means factories engaged in making, or ships engaged in carrying, supplies required by the Allies. Such operations have been carried out even in the territory of the United States itself,' and His Majesty's Government was bound to say 'that no adequate action has yet been taken by the Government of the United States to suppress breaches of neutrality of this particularly criminal kind.' And so the matter stood when we entered the war."—J. B. McMaster, *United States in the World War*, pp. 274-276.—"For the time American feeling against Great Britain was strong, but the continued wrongs we sustained from Germany, were even more resented, and the feeling against the British had no opportunity to develop normally. It disappeared so far as this matter was concerned, when we prepared a blacklist of our own after we entered the war. . . . We limited trade with the northern neutrals as serenely as Great Britain had limited it before 1917; we had a 'blacklist' of our own, and we sent our navy to help keep the cordon blockade of the North Sea side by side with the navies of Britain and France."—J. S. Bassett, *Our war with Germany*, p. 29.—The British in April 27, 1917, and

during 1917 the other Allied governments which had promulgated blacklists, removed the names of all persons and firms in the United States.—See also **BLOCKADE**; and **BOYCOTT**: 1880-1892.

AMERICAN.—"On December 4, 1917, the War Trade Board made public a list . . . of more than 1,600 German controlled banks and industries in South America, Cuba, and Mexico which are accused of aiding and fomenting uprisings and spreading propaganda and otherwise aiding the Central Powers. Henceforth all shipments from the United States to these concerns will be stopped entirely, and imports from them will be allowed to enter the United States only to liquidate American-held debts. In the list are included the great banks, manufactories, and public utilities of Argentina, representing the most powerful and dangerous combination of German capital in Latin America."—*War cyclopedia*, pp. 38-39.

BLACKLIST, Industrial.—"The Blacklist . . . may be defined as an agreement of employers to refuse employment to certain workmen obnoxious to them, generally on account of their activities in behalf of labor. In organizing a system of blacklisting, a list of names of workmen is prepared by the employers, accompanied by a number of statements regarding their personal appearance, qualifications, the reasons for their discharge—if they have been dismissed—and other information deemed desirable, which list is open to the inspection of certain other employers. At times a central bureau is maintained where this information is placed on file by all of the business men within the agreement. By means of this list manufacturers and others can readily discover whether or not applicants for work are likely to prove 'dangerous labor agitators.' Many are the cases in which workers have been refused employment or have been suddenly discharged as a result of the secret use of this weapon. . . . Since 1832, when a group of merchants and ship owners of Boston resolved to employ no journeymen who belonged to a labor union, or to deal with any master mechanic who gave work to such journeyman, this weapon has been used with great effect in many parts of the country. Prof. Ely cites an instance a score of years ago in which thirty-three men were blacklisted in Fall River for asking for an increase of wages, and were compelled to seek work under assumed names. . . . Much evidence of blacklisting, especially in the mining regions and on the railroads, was adduced by the Industrial Commission in their hearings of 1890. Before this commission, D. C. Coates, president of the Colorado Federation of Labor, testified that, in spite of prohibitory laws, wage earners were blacklisted from one end of the state to the other. . . . In several instances during the nineties, railroads were held guilty of this practice. Workers prominent in the 1894 strike of the American Railway Union declare that for years numbers of them were victims of the blacklist. To what extent this device has been used during the last ten years, it is extremely difficult to state, because of the secrecy surrounding its employment. In an effort to gain a more adequate idea of its use, the writer communicated with a number of prominent officers of the national and international unions. Of the twenty who replied, twelve, or more than one-half, stated that blacklists were used more or less effectively, while eight replied that they could not cite particular instances. . . . One of the most recent charges of the extensive use of this weapon was made in 1912, in connection with the Steel Trust investigation, by Mr. H. H. Eagle, city editor of the *Pittsburgh Leader*. Mr. Eagle testi-

fied that he had in his possession a list of 3,000 former employees of the Carnegie Steel Company, who had caused disturbance in the ranks of labor. . . . Again, in a recent strike against lumber firms of Louisiana, in the summer of 1912, the strikers accused the Operators' Association of blacklisting over a thousand men, and of forcing every man applying for a job in the lumber industry to take an anti-union labor oath. . . . In view of the many proved instances of the use of the blacklist, the blacklisting possibilities of many of the publications and employment bureaus of the employers' associations have special significance."—H. W. Laidler, *Boycotts and the labor struggle*, pp. 39-46.

"The blacklist is a weapon used by employers corresponding to the boycott used by labor. Contrary to the boycott, however, the blacklist is generally most effective when its use is secret. Laws have been passed against the blacklist in twenty-six states as follows: Connecticut . . . Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, North Carolina and Virginia . . . Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Texas, Utah and Wisconsin . . . California, Oregon and Washington."—*American labor year book*, 1916, *Blacklist*, p. 88.

BLACKLOCK, Thomas (1721-1791), blind Scottish poet, of humble birth. Lost his sight by smallpox before he was six months old. Because of his poetic ability, special care was taken of his education at grammar-school and later at the divinity school at the University of Edinburgh. The degree of Doctor of Divinity was conferred on him by Marischal College, Aberdeen. His work influenced education for the blind in Scotland. See **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

BLACKS, Austrian parliament. See **AUSTRIA**: 1906-1909.

BLACKS AND WHITES (Bianchi and Neri), divisions of the Gueff political party in Florence. See **FLORENCE**: 1295-1300.

BLACKSTONE, Sir William (1723-1780), English jurist. His "Commentaries," while not free from technical imperfections, have long been regarded in England and America as an excellent compendium of the common law (see **DEMOCRACY**: Genesis of modern democracy). Now in large part out of date, the work is still interesting for its literary qualities and details of legal history.

BLADENSBURG, Battle of (1814). See **U. S. A.**: 1814 (August-September).

BLAINE, James Gillespie (1830-1893), American statesman and party leader. Member Maine legislature, 1859-1862, speaker, 1861-1862; chairman Republican state committee, 1859-1881; member House of Representatives, 1862-1877; speaker, 1869-1875; member United States senate, 1876-1880; secretary of state under Garfield, 1881; unsuccessful Republican candidate for president, 1884; secretary of state under Harrison, 1888-1892. For his criticism of the McKinley Tariff Bill, see **TARIFF**: 1890.—See also **U. S. A.**: 1884: Twenty-fifth presidential election; and **CONGRESS OF THE U. S.**: House of Representatives: The speaker and committee system.

BLAIR, Albion Zelophehad (1861-1919), American judge, who attempted political reforms in Ohio. See **OHIO**: 1900-1911.

BLAIR, Francis Preston (1791-1876), American journalist and politician. In the "kitchen cabinet" of President Jackson. See

U. S. A. 1829. Editor of *Washington Globe*, recognized organ of the Jackson party, 1830-1845; presided over Pennsylvania Republican convention, 1856.

BLAIR, Francis Preston, Jr. (1821-1875), American soldier and politician. Served as private in Mexican War; member Missouri legislature, 1852-1856; member House of Representatives, 1857-1859. Helped to control St. Louis for the Union cause in 1861. (See *MISSOURI*: 1861.) For his difficulties with General Fremont, see U. S. A.: 1861 (August-October: *MISSOURI*). Served in Federal army during Civil War, rising to rank of major general; unsuccessful candidate for vice president on Democratic ticket, 1868; member United States senate, 1871-1873.

BLAKE, Robert (1599-1657), British admiral; leader of successful expeditions against the Dutch and Spanish. See *ENGLAND*: 1652-1654; 1655-1658.

BLAKE, William (1757-1827), English poet. See *ENGLISH LITERATURE*: 1780-1830.

BLAKENEY, William (1672-1761), British general and governor of Minorca who surrendered it to the French in 1756. See *MINORCA*: 1756.

BLANC, Jean Joseph Charles Louis (1811-1882), French politician and writer. Was prominent in the revolution of 1848; wrote many historical works and socialistic articles; was in exile in England during the Second Empire.—See also *FRANCE*: 1848; *SOCIALISM*: 1840-1848.

BLANCHARD, Thomas (1788-1864), American automobile pioneer. See *AUTOMOBILE*: 1826-1895.

BLANCHE OF CASTILE (1188-1252), wife of Louis VIII of France who laid claim to English crown in her right (1216) and invaded England. Blanche established herself at Calais and organized two fleets, but her efforts were in vain. On the death of Louis in 1226 she became regent (1226-1236). She broke up league of barons, 1226; repelled attack of English king, 1230.—See also *ALBIGENSES*: 1217-1229; *FRANCE*: 1226-1270.

BLANCHE OF CASTILE (d. 1404), divorced wife of Henry IV of Castile and daughter of Blanche of Navarre, was prevented by intrigue of her father and sister from succeeding to the crown of Navarre; finally poisoned about 1464. See *NAVARRÉ*: 1442-1521.

BLANCO, Antonio Guzman (1829-1899), Liberal party leader and later dictator in Venezuela. See *VENEZUELA*: 1829-1886; 1869-1892.

BLANCO, Ramon (1831-1906), Spanish general and colonial governor of Cuba. See *CUBA*: 1896-1897.

BLANCOS, political party in Uruguay, active in the civil war of 1904. See *URUGUAY*: 1896-1899; 1904.

BLAND, Richard (1710-1776), delegate to first Continental Congress. See U. S. A.: 1774 (September).

BLAND, Richard Parks (1835-1899), American legislator; member House of Representatives, 1872-1895 and 1897-1899. Connected with free-silver movement; introduced the Bland silver bill in 1878.

BLAND-ALLISON ACT (1878), often termed Bland silver bill, which provided for the free coinage of silver. See *MONEY AND BANKING*: Modern: 1848-1893, 1870-1890; U. S. A.: 1878.

BLANGY, a village a mile east of Arras, north-eastern France; captured from the Germans by the British in their 1917 offensive during the World War.

BLANKETEERS, nickname applied to a group of laborers, who in 1817 met near Manchester to march to London (each carrying a blanket), and

lay their grievances before the prince-regent. See *ENGLAND*: 1816-1820.

BLANQUI, Louis Auguste (1805-1881), French revolutionist and socialist leader. See *SOCIALISM*: 1871-1904.

BLASCO IBÁÑEZ, Vincente (1867-), Spanish novelist. In his newspaper, *El Pueblo*, as well as his novels, he has emphasized the rôle of labor in modern life. He is generally recognized as the foremost of the Spanish novelists, and the publication of "Four Horsemen of the Apocalypse" in 1918 gained him world-wide fame.—See also *SPANISH LITERATURE*: 19th-20th centuries.

BLASHFIELD, Edwin Howland (1848-), American mural painter. See *PAINTING*: American.

BLASPHEMY ACT (1697). See *DEISM*: English Deism.

BLASPHEMY LAWS.—"Spinoza had laid down the principle that Scripture must be interpreted like any other book (1670), and with the deists this principle was fundamental. In order to avoid persecution they generally veiled their conclusions under sufficiently thin disguises. Hitherto the Press Licensing Act (1662) had very effectively prevented the publication of heterodox works, and it is from orthodox works denouncing idol opinions that we know how rationalism was spreading. But in 1695, the Press Law was allowed to drop, and immediately deistic literature began to appear. There was, however, the danger of prosecution under the Blasphemy laws. There were three legal weapons for coercing those who attacked Christianity: (1) The Ecclesiastical Courts had and have the power of imprisoning for a maximum term of six months, for atheism, blasphemy, heresy, and damnable opinions. (2) The common law as interpreted by Lord Chief Justice Hale in 1676, when a certain Taylor was charged with having said that religion was a cheat and blasphemed against Christ. The accused was condemned to a fine and the pillory by the Judge, who ruled that the Court of King's Bench has jurisdiction in such a case, inasmuch as blasphemous words of the kind are an offence against the laws and the State, and to speak against Christianity is to speak in subversion of the law, since Christianity is 'parcel of the laws of England.' (3) The statute of 1698 enacts that if any person educated in the Christian religion 'shall by writing, printing, teaching, or advised speaking deny any one of the persons in the Holy Trinity to be God, or shall assert or maintain there are more gods than one, or shall deny the Christian religion to be true, or shall deny the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be of divine authority,' is convicted, he shall for the first offence be adjudged incapable to hold any public offices or employments, and on the second shall lose his civil rights and be imprisoned for three years. This Statute expressly states as its motive the fact that 'many persons have of late years openly avowed and published many blasphemous and impious opinions contrary to the doctrine and principles of the Christian religion.' As a matter of fact, most trials for blasphemy during the past two hundred years [written in 1913] fall under the second head. But the new Statute of 1698 was very intimidating, and we can easily understand how it drove heterodox writers to ambiguous disguises. One of these disguises was allegorical interpretation of Scripture. They showed that literal interpretation led to absurdities or to inconsistencies with the wisdom and justice of God, and pretended to infer that allegorical interpretation must be substituted. But they meant the reader to reject their pretended solution and draw a conclusion damaging to Revelation."—

J. B. Bury, *History of freedom of thought*, pp. 138-141.—In England an act of 1812-1813 has been the only statutory modification of the blasphemy act of 1607-1608. The law in recent years has very seldom been enforced. In 1841 Edward Moxon was convicted of the publication of a blasphemous libel, in having published Shelley's "Queen Mab."

BLAVATSKY, Helena P. (1831-1891), a student of occult science. She was born in Russia, and spent a long period in India and Tibet, returning to Europe with esoteric teachings derived from eastern mystics. Founder of the Theosophical Society.—See also THEOSOPHY.

BLEASE, Colman Livingston (1868-), governor of South Carolina. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1910-1915.

BLECOURT, a village in France, north of Cambrai; captured from the Germans by the Canadians, October 1, 1918, during the World War.

BLEEK, Wilhelm Heinrich Immanuel (1827-1875), African linguist, working on the Bushmen languages. See PHILLOLOGY: 24.

BLEGNY TREMBLEUR, town in France which in 1914 was the scene of German atrocities. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a, 2.

BLEKINGE, province in Sweden, gained from Denmark in 1658. See SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

BLENEAU, Battle of (1652). See FRANCE: 1651-1653.

BLENHEIM, a village of Bavaria on the Danube, thirty miles northeast of Ulm. Here in 1704 the duke of Marlborough with English troops and Prince Eugene with the Austrians defeated the French and Bavarians under Tallard and Marsin. The battle is also known as the battle of Höchstädt. (See GERMANY: 1704.) Near here also in 1800 the French defeated the Austrians.

BLENNERHASSETT'S ISLAND, an island in the Ohio, near Marietta, on which Harman Blennerhassett, a gentleman from Ireland, had created a charming home, at the beginning of the nineteenth century. He was drawn into Aaron Burr's mysterious scheme (see U. S. A.: 1806-1807); his island became the rendezvous of the expedition, and he was involved in the ruin of the treasonable project.

BLÉRIOT, Louis (1872-), French aviator. Made the first trans-Channel flight from Calais to Dover, in 1909, winning the *Daily Mail* £10,000 prize. For his airplane experiments and flights, see AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1806-1910.

BLIGNIÈRES, M. de, French controller in the Egyptian cabinet, 1878-1882, to administer the debt. See EGYPT: 1875-1882.

BLIGNY, a village in France southwest of Rheims, captured by the Germans in their last offensive and recaptured by the British, June 6, 1918, during the World War.

BLIMP AIRSHIPS. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1806-1914.

BLIND, Education of. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

BLISS, Cornelius Newton (1833-1911), American merchant and politician. Organizer and for many years president of American protective tariff league. Chairman New York Republican state committee, 1887-1888; treasurer of Republican national committee, 1892-1904. Secretary of the interior, 1897-1899. See U. S. A.: 1897 (March).

BLISS, Tasker Howard (1853-), American general. Served in Porto Rico campaign, 1898; served in the Philippines, 1905-1909; commanded

brigade on Mexican border, 1911; made major-general, 1915; chief of staff and commanding general of the army, 1917; retired, 1917; member of the allied conference, 1917; member supreme war council in France, 1918; member of American commission to negotiate peace, Paris, 1918-1919.—See also AMERICAN COMMISSION TO NEGOTIATE PEACE; U. S. A.: 1917 (November); VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: e, 1.

BLOC, a coalition of minority parties to form a working majority; the word was coined in France by M. Waldeck-Rousseau in 1899.

French bloc.—The place of a Center party was for a long time held by a remarkable coalition of parties, called the *Bloc*. The group was welded together [in 1899] by the heat of the Dreyfus trial (see FRANCE: 1897-1899) in order to protect the Republic, and was the first sign in France of a party in the Anglo-American sense, with a definite program and a strong organization. Its ministries ruled France for upwards of fifteen years. Like all coalitions the *Bloc* suffers from organic weaknesses in the diversity of its component parts. The more conservative part of the *Bloc* opposes social legislation, on the plea that it contravenes the sacred principles of the Revolution, which maintained the rights of individualism, not of communism, in property. In the center of the *Bloc*, and numerically its strongest part, were the Radicals, the earliest and most zealous Republicans. On its left the *Bloc* attracted a certain faction of the Socialists, led by Briand, Millerand, and Viviani, who called themselves Socialist Radicals. So far as concerns social legislation, they are the motor of the machine of which the conservative members are the brake. The Radical Socialists desire a readjustment of the doctrines of the Revolution to fit the social needs of the present; they distinctly favor some of the features of the Socialist program, such as Government ownership of public utilities and monopolies. One sees the justice of Ferdinand Buisson's definition of the *Bloc*: 'A bourgeois party with a Radical soul.' It has been called, too, 'capitalism touched with social emotion.' Its ambiguous attitude towards socialism was a great source of weakness to the *Bloc*, after its *raison d'être* had ceased to be vital because of the decay of royalism. Timid and rent within itself, it has been during the later years of its existence continually on the verge of a break-up. In truth the *Bloc* has exhausted the reservoir of its ideas, watchwords, and other stock in trade, which it appropriated from the Revolution-royalism, the Church, the republicanism of the army, the schools, and the democratization of the suffrage. It has been struck with sterility, and its three ministries since 1910 were absolutely stagnant. It is perhaps too early [1918] to pronounce the *Bloc* dead, but it has at any rate lost a great part of its former adherents and its ability to expand and to adapt itself.—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, pp. 388-389.—"Anti-Clericalism was the issue which held the *bloc* together from 1900 to 1910 and enabled it to expel the religious orders from France, to separate church and state, and to strengthen non-religious education. But by 1913 other questions had arisen which tended to produce a different alignment of political groups. There was first the question of an income tax and further social reform, which was urged by the Socialists, Radical Socialists, and *Action Libérale*, and resisted by many Radicals and Moderates. There was secondly the question of militarism, for many Radicals joined with the Socialists in offering a wordy, though vain, opposition to the enact-

ment and enforcement of a new army bill (1913), which this time, in view of particularly troubled international relations, lengthened the term of active service in the French army from two to three years. Thirdly, there was still the question of Anti-Clericalism in its various phases: many Radical Socialists felt that the dangers of Clericalism were now sufficiently remote to allow the Republic to turn its attention and energy elsewhere; many Radicals thought otherwise and were resolved to maintain against the Catholic Church a fight which was already proving advantageous to them in distracting public attention from grave economic ills; while the *Action Libérale* was growing more vehement in its demand for the repeal of past Anti-Clerical legislation. Finally, there was the newly raised political question of electoral reform: proposals for the revival of the *scrutin de liste*, with provisions for proportional representation of minorities, received powerful support from the *Action Libérale*, the Moderates, and the Radical Socialists, who believed them more fundamentally democratic than the existing system of elections to the Chamber of Deputies; on the other hand, many Radicals and most Socialists denounced them as tending to increase the strength of the Right and to imperil the Anti-Clerical legislation of the preceding decade. . . . Differences of opinion among members of the *bloc* upon the three other questions were quite apparent in the elections of April-May, 1914. Of the bourgeois groups formerly included in the *bloc*, the Progressists (Federated Republicans) adhered to their earlier principles and maintained their strength practically unimpaired. But the Radicals and Radical Socialists were split up into a number of groups, which tended, both in the parliament and in the country at large, to gravitate toward one or other of two new and rival combinations. The first was the Unified Radicals, including such men as Caillaux, Combes, and Clémenceau, bent upon the vigorous prosecution of more extreme Anti-Clerical legislation, especially legislation against private church schools, generally hostile to electoral reform, and lukewarm in the cause of labor legislation. The second new coalition was the Federation of the Left, whose principles were championed by Briand and by Poincaré, who had been elected to the presidency in January, 1913; it urged both labor legislation and parliamentary reform, and while not favoring any repeal of Anti-Clerical legislation, it was unwilling further to open the breach between Catholics and non-Catholics."—C. J. H. Hayes, *Political and social history of modern Europe*, v. 2, pp. 365-367.—See also FRANCE: 1000.

ALSO IN: J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, pp. 235, 256, 258, 264.

German bloc.—"Germany has no bi-party system, but rather a multiplicity of parties and party groups, so that, as in France and Italy, no one party is ever able to command a majority in the Reichstag. Practically, of course, the Government must have sufficient support there to insure the enactment of its budgets and of its legislative proposals. To be effective and trustworthy, this support must be organized, and hence, in practice, there is always a recognized 'government majority.' Party division, however, is carried so far that this majority must at all times be composed of two or three groups, more or less precariously united in a *bloc*. Thus Bismarck at one time governed with the combined aid of the Conservatives, Free Conservatives and National Liberals, and von Bülow worked first with a 'Blue-Black' (Conservative-Center) *bloc*, and later with a similar affiliation

of Conservatives and Liberals."—F. A. Ogg and C. A. Beard, *National governments and the World War*, p. 513.—See also GERMANY: 1900-1909.

Russian progressive bloc (1915). See RUSSIA: 1915-1916.

United States agricultural bloc.—"The first real bloc . . . [in the United States] was the Agricultural bloc. It began operations soon after this [68th] Congress went into session (in the spring of 1921). Those who know of its origin say that it had its beginnings in a Senate smoking-room conversation between two or three senators who were of the opinion that the needs of the farmers were not adequately cared for in the organization legislative program for the session, nor the needs of these senators, either, in a political way. . . . The Agricultural bloc developed into a formidable political and legislative agency. . . . They put through this program of legislation for the benefit of the farmers:

"The Emergency Tariff Act, in which duties on importations of agricultural products are increased and the farmer is protected from competition from abroad, where costs of production are much less;

"The act providing for a credit of a billion dollars for farm exports;

"The act that gives the Secretary of Agriculture supervision over the packing houses and the stockyards of the country;

"The Kenyon Bill, which provides for an increased rate of interest for bonds issued by farm-loan banks but without increase of interest rate to the farmers, thus affording a better market for the farm-bank loans;

"The Copper-Tincher Bill, for the regulation of all the grain exchanges in the country;

"The Curtis Bill, which authorizes the appropriation of twenty-five million dollars to be used as a revolving fund by the farm-loan banks."—S. C. Blythe, *En Bloc*, *Saturday Evening Post*, Nov. 5, 1921.

BLOCH, Ivan Stanislavovich, or Jean de Bloch (1836-1901), Russian peace advocate. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Typical views against war.

BLOCK, Adriaen (fl. 1614), Dutch navigator who explored New York and discovered the Connecticut River. See CONNECTICUT: River and name; NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

BLOCK BOOKS. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1430-1456.

BLOCK ISLAND, an island in the Atlantic ocean, about ten miles off the Rhode Island coast. See NEW YORK: 1610-1614.

BLOCKADE.—Meaning and ancient usage.—Blockades in the Napoleonic wars.—Lord Stowell's decision.—Blockade of the Confederate ports, 1861.—"The right of a nation at war to close the ports of its enemy so as to prevent him securing food or military supplies is as old as war itself. This is known as a blockade. It was practised by the Greeks and the Romans. . . . International law sanctions blockade and provides a penalty for its violation. When a port is blockaded and a neutral vessel attempts to enter, it may be seized and the vessel and cargo become 'lawful prize.' . . . If the coast has not been blockaded neutrals may trade, provided their ships do not carry contraband, which may be roughly defined . . . as anything that can be used to carry on war. . . . International law requires that a blockade to be recognised by neutrals must be physically effective, that is it must not be a mere declaration for blockade ["paper blockade"], but the blockading nation must have enough ships to prevent ingress and egress from the enemy's port. This requirement . . . was the outcome of that

long conflict between England and France in the early years of the last [19th century]. Napoleon did not have a navy powerful enough to blockade England and her colonial possessions so he promulgated various decrees interdicting trade between England and neutrals [see BERLIN AND MILAN DECREES]; England retorted by Orders in Council, which interfered with American commerce and aroused bitter resentment in this country. The injustice was obvious but it was not until 1856 that international law crystallized this sentiment into principle. Following the Crimean War, an International Congress was held in Paris, and it was agreed that: 'Blockades, in order to be binding must be effective; that is to say, maintained by forces really sufficient to prevent access to the coast of the enemy.' In the opening years of the last century Lord Stowell, a great English jurist and Judge of the Court of Admiralty delivered a momentous decision. . . . Lord Stowell's decision, which has had the most far reaching consequences in England and America, and revolutionized the English and American maritime code of war, was that when a vessel merely touched at an American port it was simply an incident in the voyage; that the voyage began when the cargo was originally loaded and ended only when the cargo was discharged at the place of sale. . . . This is known to lawyers as the doctrine of continuous voyage. . . . In 1861 United States was at war and President Lincoln proclaimed a blockade of the Confederate ports. To circumvent the North England merchants resorted to the same device which more than half a century earlier made Lord Stowell promulgate his historical doctrine of the continuous voyage. [English ships sailing to Bermuda were seized on the high seas] . . . In legal proceedings that followed the Supreme Court of the United States upheld the legality of capture, basing its decision on the doctrine enunciated by Lord Stowell, . . . and to the English doctrine of the continuous voyage it added the American invention of 'ultimate destination.'—A. M. Low, *Law of Blockade*, pp. 3, 4-5, 6.—See also CONTINUOUS VOYAGE; Origin; ENGLAND: 1861-1865.

Extent of.—Conditions during its continuance.—Laws of the Declaration of London (1909).—"The conditions of a blockade are treated in one phase or another by the first seven articles of the declaration of London [see LONDON, DECLARATION OF], though amplifications also follow later. It is provided, first, that a blockade must not extend beyond the ports and coasts belonging to or occupied by the enemy, which Article 18 amplifies by stating that the blockading forces must not bar access to neutral ports or coasts. Ports of a neutral and belligerent may easily be so placed geographically that without care a blockade may interfere with the entry to and trade of a neutral port; in fact, such proximity may compel a limitation in blockading operations affecting it in both area and efficiency. The neutral rights to innocent free trade and passage compels, in case of this kind, such limitations. There is another reason for the ruling just given, and that is that a neutral port may be a port of departure and supplies of blockade-runners and yet within the zone of blockading operations. In this case too close supervision of such a port may be beyond belligerent rights and injurious to the commerce of the port. [See BELLIGERENCY; and NEUTRALITY.] A blockade must be impartially applied to the ships of all nations. The commander of a blockading force may, however, give permission to a neutral war vessel to enter and subsequently to leave a blockaded port. Although the senior officer of

the blockading force must act impartially, as just stated, the accompanying report of the declaration of London states that, 'nevertheless, the mere fact that he has let a war-ship pass does not oblige him to let pass all neutral war-ships which may desire to enter. It is a question of judgment. The presence of a neutral war-ship in a blockaded port may not have the same consequences at all stages of the blockade, and the blockading commander must be left free to judge whether he can be courteous without making any sacrifice of his military interests.' This question has been at times a seriously disputed one. During the Spanish-American War of 1898 it was a source of considerable irritation and friction at Manila by the assumption on the part of the German naval forces of a right to entry and stay within the blockading lines in Manila Bay. One of the best opinions upon the matter which was quoted authoritatively at that time is that of Ferguson, a Dutch authority. He says: 'During the continuance of the state of blockade, no vessels are allowed to enter or leave the blockaded place without special license or consent of the blockading authority. Public vessels or vessels of war of neutral powers are equally bound by the same obligation to respect the blockade. When the public vessel of a neutral state is allowed to have communication with a blockaded place, the neutral commanding officer is obliged to observe strict neutrality and to comply with the conditions under which such permission has been granted to cross the lines of the blockading belligerent. The impartiality which must be the prevailing feature of an effective blockade prohibits, except to public vessels, permission to enter the blockaded place to be given except in extreme cases of positive necessity. Diplomatic agents and consular officers of a neutral state are also allowed the amount of communication necessary for the fulfilment of their official duties.' (Ferguson, 1884, v. 2, pp. 486, 487.) In case of distress, which must be verified by an officer of the blockading force, a neutral vessel may enter a place under blockade and subsequently leave it, provided that she has neither discharged nor shipped any cargo there. (*Declaration of London, Art. 7, Appendix IV.*) . . . The final article (No. 21) of the chapter on blockade of the declaration states that 'a vessel found guilty of breach of blockade is liable to condemnation. The cargo is also condemned unless it is proved that at the time of shipment of the goods the shipper neither knew nor could have known of the intention to break the blockade.' The vessel is condemned in all cases. [See ADMIRALTY LAW.] Doctor James Brown Scott, in reviewing this chapter on blockade of the declaration of London, says: 'The provisions of the chapter dealing with blockade seem to be reasonable in their terms and effects, fair to belligerents and neutrals, supposing that enemy ports are to be blockaded and neutrals prevented from trading with them as in times of peace, and so clear and precise, except perhaps in the matter of the area of pursuit and capture of blockade-runners, as to make the rights and duties alike of belligerents and neutrals certain and known in advance of hostilities. No serious or insurmountable objection to their acceptance has been stated.'—C. H. Stockton, *Outlines of international law*, pp. 418-421; 425-426.

Effectiveness.—Rules (English) covering the World War.—"The manner in which a blockade shall be made physically effective is optional with the blockader. He may post his ships at the entrance of a port or place them a thousand miles off shore. The penalty for attempting to violate a blockade is the condemnation of ship and cargo.

Absolute proof that a vessel contemplates running the blockade is not necessary. Presumption may be inferred. Neutrals may trade with a belligerent, but at their own risk. Contraband intended for the enemy is lawful prize wherever found and under any circumstances. Non-contraband neutral goods to any enemy port not under blockade are free from seizure."—A. M. Low, *Law of blockade*, p. 9.—See also CONTRABAND: Origin; EMBARGO: During World War. "Effectiveness is a matter of conclusion from facts. 'Only such blockades as shall be duly proclaimed and maintained by adequate force, in conformity with the law of nations, will be observed and respected by the United States,' wrote Mr. Seward, United States Secretary of State, to Mr. Sullivan, Minister to Colombia, in 1867 (June 13). If the neutral and belligerent States in question do not agree about the facts, or do not agree as to whether the admitted facts constitute 'effectiveness,' an international difference at once arises. As regards the requisite notice, the following provisions in the instructions given to the United States blockading vessels and cruisers in June, 1808, sum up the latest Anglo-Saxon practice: 'Neutral vessels are entitled to notification of a blockade before they can be made prize for its attempted violation. The character of this notification is not material. It may be actual, as by a vessel of the blockading force, or *constructive*, as by a proclamation of the Government maintaining the blockade, or by common notoriety. If a neutral vessel can be shown to have had notice of the blockade *in any way*, she is good prize, and should be sent in for adjudication; but should formal notice not have been given, *the rule of constructive knowledge arising from notoriety* should be construed in a manner liberal to the neutral. . . . The subject of the international regulation of blockade was brought up at the second Hague Conference. The Italian and Mexican delegates submitted projects, but after a declaration by the British delegate in charge of the subject (Sir E. Satow) that blockade not having been one of the subjects included in the Russian programme, his Government had given him no instructions upon it, the subject, at his request, was dropped. [See HAGUE CONFERENCES.] It was taken up again, however, at the Conference of London, 1908-09, and the rules adopted at that Conference . . . [see LONDON, DECLARATION OF], have now been made operative for the duration of the war of 1914 by an Order in Council, dated August 20, 1914, subject to certain modifications as regards blockade, which are evidently intended to bring the London Rules as much as possible into harmony with both British and French practice. The addition made as regards blockade, is explanatory of the British rule of constructive notice. It leaves the Continental practice as set out in Art. 16, respecting individual notice, intact, and mere notoriety will not be regarded as sufficient to support a presumption of knowledge. The penalty for breach of the blockade is confiscation of the ship and of the cargo, unless the consignor 'was not or could not be aware of the intention to break the blockade.' The rules as to blockade as settled by Order in Council for the war of 1914 are as follows:

"ART. 1. A blockade must not extend beyond the ports and coasts belonging to or occupied by the enemy. ART. 2. In accordance with the Declaration of Paris of 1856 a blockade, in order to be binding, must be effective—that is to say, it must be maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the enemy coast-line. ART. 3. The question whether a blockade is effective is a ques-

tion of fact. ART. 4. A blockade is not regarded as raised if the blockading force is temporarily withdrawn on account of stress of weather. ART. 5. A blockade must be applied impartially to the ships of all nations. ART. 6. The commander of a blockading force may give permission to a warship to enter, and subsequently to leave, a blockaded port. ART. 7. In circumstances of distress, acknowledged by an officer of the blockading force, a neutral vessel may enter a place under blockade and subsequently leave it, provided that she has neither discharged nor shipped any cargo there. ART. 8. A blockade in order to be binding, must be declared in accordance with Article 9, and notified in accordance with Articles 11 and 16. ART. 9. A declaration of blockade is made either by the blockading Power or by the naval authorities acting in its name. It specifies—(1) The date when the blockade begins; (2) The geographical limits of the coast-line under blockade; (3) The period within which neutral vessels may come out. ART. 10. If the operations of the blockading Power, or of the naval authorities acting in its name, do not tally with the particulars, which in accordance with Article 9 (1) and (2), must be inserted in the declaration of blockade, the declaration is void, and a new declaration is necessary in order to make the blockade operative. ART. 11. A declaration of the blockade is notified—(1) To neutral Powers, by the blockading Power by means of a communication addressed to the Governments direct, or to their representatives accredited to it; (2) To the local authorities, by the officer commanding the blockading force. The local authorities will in turn inform the foreign consular officers at the port or on the coast-line under blockade as soon as possible. ART. 12. The rules as to declaration and notification of blockade apply to cases where the limits of a blockade are extended, or where a blockade is reestablished after having been raised. ART. 13. The voluntary raising of a blockade, as also any restriction in the limits of a blockade, must be notified in the manner prescribed by Article 2. ART. 14. The liability of a neutral vessel to capture for breach of blockade is contingent on her knowledge, actual or presumptive, of the blockade. ART. 15. Failing proof to the contrary, knowledge of the blockade is presumed if the vessel left a neutral port subsequently to the notification of the blockade to the Power to which such port belongs, provided that such notification was made in sufficient time. *The existence of a blockade shall be presumed to be known:—(a) To all ships which sailed from or touched at an enemy port a sufficient time after the notification of the blockade to the local authorities to have enabled the enemy Government to make known the existence of the blockade. (b) To all ships which sailed from or touched at a British or allied port after the publication of the declaration of blockade.* (Note.—This is the clause which has been added by the Order on Council to the articles of the DECLARATION OF LONDON.) ART. 16. If a vessel approaching a blockaded port has no knowledge, actual or presumptive, of the blockade, the notification must be made to the vessel itself by an officer of one of the ships of the blockading force. This notification should be entered in the vessel's logbook, and must state the day and hour, and the geographical position of the vessel at the time. If through the negligence of the officer commanding the blockading force no declaration of blockade has been notified to the local authorities, or if in the declaration, as notified, no period has been mentioned within which neu-

tral vessels may come out, a neutral vessel coming out of the blockaded port must be allowed to pass free. ART. 17. Neutral vessels may not be captured for breach of blockade except within the area of operations of the warships detailed to render the blockade effective. ART. 18. The blockading forces must not bar access to neutral ports or coasts. ART. 19. Whatever may be the ulterior destination of a vessel or of her cargo she cannot be captured for breach of blockade if, at the moment, she is on her way to a non-blockaded port. ART. 20. A vessel which has broken blockade outwards, or which has attempted to break blockade inwards, is liable to capture so long as she is pursued by a ship of the blockading force. If the pursuit is abandoned, or if the blockade is raised, her capture can no longer be effected. ART. 21. A vessel found guilty of breach of blockade is liable to condemnation. The cargo is also condemned, unless it is proved that at the time of the shipment of the goods the shipper neither knew nor could have known of the intention to break the blockade."—T. Barclay, *Law and usages of war*, pp. 11-13.—See also ADMIRALTY LAW; BLACKLIST; FREEDOM OF THE SEAS; and INTERNATIONAL LAW.

Use in World War. See GREECE: 1916: Independent Cabinet of Venizelos; LATIN AMERICA: 1914; U. S. A.: 1915 (March); Blockade of German commerce; WORLD WAR: 1915: XI. Politics and diplomacy: a, 1; b; 1917: VIII. United States and the war: a, 2; a, 3; miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship: a, 1.

Also in: J. Sprunt, *Derelicts* (1919).—A. M. Low, *Law of blockade.—United States, Laws of the United States relating to war, diplomatic intercourse, blockades and neutrality* (Superintendent of Documents).—S. G. Nuñez, *Spanish-American War, blockades and coast defense.—Scott's Cases in international law*, pp. 798, 817, 835, etc.—Westlake, 2d ed., v. 2, pp. 256-268.—E. Loreburn, *Capture at sea* (1913), ch. 4.—Stockton, *Manual for naval officers*, pp. 236-238.—Ferguson, *International law*, 1884, pp. 491-492.—Hall, 6th ed., ch. 8.—Oppenheim, 2d ed., v. 2, pp. 466-478.—Moore's Digest, v. 7, pp. 820-839.—Wilson, ch. 25.—Scott, *Declaration of London*, A. J. L., v. 8, no. 2, p. 302.

BLOCKADE, PAPER.—This term has been applied to the assumption by a belligerent power, in war, of the right to declare a given coast or certain enumerated ports, to be in the state of blockade, without actual presence of blockading squadrons to enforce the declaration; as by the British "Orders in Council" and the "Berlin" and "Milan Decrees" of Napoleon, in 1806-1807. See U. S. A.: 1804-1809.—See also BLOCKADE: Meaning, etc.

BLOCK-HOUSE SYSTEM OF LORD KITCHENER. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901-1902.

BLOCK-INDEXING ACT. See COMMON LAW: 1889.

"BLOCKS OF FIVE."—During the presidential campaign of 1888, "a great scandal was caused by the publication of a letter sent out by the National Republican Committee to party workers in Indiana. The letter bore the name of W. W. Dudley, treasurer of the committee, and contained the following significant instructions: 'Divide the floaters into blocks of five and put a trusted man with the necessary funds in charge of these five, and make him responsible that none get away, and that all vote our ticket.' 'Floaters,' of course, were purchasable voters, and Democrats charged that the letter furnished evidence of a purpose to bribe the Indiana electorate on a large scale."—P. L. Haworth, *United States in our own time*, 1865-1920.

BLOEMFONTEIN, city in South Africa, capital of the Orange Free State. It was taken by the British in 1900. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (March-May).

Bloemfontein conference. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (May-June).

Conference held at (1905). See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

Congress held at (1920). See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1920-1921.

BLOIS, Charles de. See CHARLES DE BLOIS.

BLOIS, a town on the Loire in central France, capital of the department of Loir-et-cher.

9th century.—The town had very little historical importance until it became the seat of a countship in the 9th century.

1196.—Privileges were granted to the townsmen by Count Louis of Blois.

13th century.—During this century the famous castle was built which was the scene of many historical events.

1429.—Joan of Arc used the town as a base for her attacks on the English who were besieging Orleans.

1444-1588.—Charles of Orleans lived here after leaving England and Louis XII was born in Blois. The sixteenth century saw the French court frequently established here. Francis I, Henry II, Charles IX and Henry III held their courts in Blois. Henry III called the Estates general to meet here, and it was during his reign that Henry of Guise and his brother were murdered in the castle.

1504.—Treaty of Blois. See ITALY: 1504-1506.

1617-1619.—Marie de' Medici (wife of Henry IV) lived for a time in the old chateau.

17th century.—At the close of the seventeenth century, it became the seat of a bishopric.

1814.—Blois was the residence of Marie Louise (wife of Napoleon I) after Paris surrendered.

BLONIE, a village on the line of defense west of Warsaw, Poland; captured from the Russians by the Germans, 1915, during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 7.

BLOOD, study of its circulation and transfusion. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Harvey and the discovery, etc.; 19th century: Opsonins; 20th century: Advance in surgical methods.

"BLOOD AND IRON": Speech of Bismarck. See GERMANY: 1861-1866.

BLOOD BATH OF THORN. See THORN.

BLOOD COUNCIL. See NETHERLANDS: 1567-1573.

BLOOD INDIANS. See BLACKFEET INDIANS.

BLOODY ANGLE. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May: Virginia): Grant's movement upon Richmond: Spottsylvania court house.

BLOODY ARTICLES, England (1539). See CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 1534-1563.

BLOODY ASSIZE. See ENGLAND: 1685 (September).

BLOODY BRIDGE, Ambuscade at (1763). See PONTIAC'S WAR.

BLOODY BROOK, Battle of (1675). See NEW ENGLAND: 1675.

BLOODY DIET. See BOHEMIA: 1516-1576.

BLOODY MARSH, Battle of the (1742). See GEORGIA: 1738-1743.

BLOODY MARY, name applied by Protestants to Mary of England (1553-1558) because of her persecutions of non-Catholics. See ENGLAND: 1553-1558.

BLOODY MONDAY. See U. S. A.: 1829-1832.

BLOODY SHIRT.—"Waving the bloody shirt" was an expression commonly used about 1880;

it meant reviving the sectional spirit of Civil War days, usually by impassioned allusions in Congress.

BLOODY SUNDAY.—"If the intention of Nicholas the Second and his advisers had been to terrorize the working classes, the effect of the January [22, 1905] slaughter was entirely in the opposite direction. It gave a new force to the labour movement all over Russia. Five days after the terrible 'Vladimir' Sunday, a mass strike broke out at Warsaw, and was followed by mass strikes at Lodz and in all the industrial and mining centers of Poland. In a day or two the Warsaw strike was joined by 100,000 operatives and became general. All factories were closed, no tramways were running, no papers were published. The students joined the movement, and were followed by the pupils of the secondary schools. The shop assistants, the clerks in the banks and in all public and private commercial establishments, the waiters in the restaurants—all gradually came out to support the strikers."—P. A. Kropotkin *Nineteenth Century*, Dec., 1905.—See also RUSSIA: 1905 (January.)

BLOODY TRIBUNAL OF ALVA, Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1567-1573.

BLOREHEATH, Battle of (1450).—Fought on a plain called Bloreheath, near Drayton, in Staffordshire, England, Sept. 23, 1459, between 10,000 Lancastrians, commanded by Lord Audley, and about half that number of Yorkists under the earl of Salisbury. See also ENGLAND: 1455-1471.

BLOUNT, Charles, Lord Mountjoy (1563-1606), military commander at defeat of Ulster in 1601. See ULSTER: 1585-1608.

BLOUNT, James H. (1837-1903), American politician. Member of House of Representatives 1873-1893. Special commissioner to investigate affairs in Hawaii and the connection of American officials with the revolution there, 1893. His report that the revolution had been effected by the aid of the United States minister and the landing of United States marines caused President Cleveland to reject the pleas of the annexationists, and leave Hawaii alone. Held for a short time the position of minister to the Hawaiian islands.—See also HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

BLUCHER, Gebhard Leberecht von, Prince of Wahlstadt (1742-1819), Prussian field-marshal. Showed great energy in the Napoleonic campaigns, and struck the deciding blows at Waterloo (1815). See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March); 1815 (June); GERMANY: 1806 (October); 1812-1813; 1813 (April-May) to (October-December).

BLUCHER, the German battle-cruiser which was reduced to a wreck and torpedoed by the British in the battle off Dogger bank in the North sea, January 24, 1915, during World War.

BLUE, Boys in, name for Federal soldiers in Civil War, also nicknamed "Blue Bellies" and "Blue Birds." See BOYS IN BLUE.

BLUE AND GRAY. See BOYS IN BLUE.

BLUE BOOKS, named from the color of the covers, are generally government reports and other papers. In England, the official reports of Parliament and the Privy Council, and in the United States, the register of all persons holding office under the government are known as "blue books." The Serbian diplomatic correspondence of the World War is also known by this term. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 3.

BLUE FLAG WAR. See CALIFORNIA: 1846-1847: American conquest.

BLUE LAWS, a popular term applied first to certain laws, alleged or real, of the Connecticut colonists, either because the laws seemed to be a genuine, "true blue" reflection of their austere religion or because blue has often been associated

with a melancholy feeling; more recently the term has been applied to any laws imposing vexatious or unreasonable restrictions in regulation of the personal habits or private morals of people. In 1781 the Rev. Samuel Peters, a Tory minister who had been in Connecticut, published in England a "General history of Connecticut," which was obviously exaggerated and spiteful. A little later a small book appeared, ostensibly giving the colony's laws; actually these regulations were taken from Peters' book. That, however, need not entirely discredit them, since later research has discovered that almost all of the forty-five laws given appeared either in earlier, more dependable authorities or among the statutes of other New England colonies. They had to do with Sabbath observance, attendance at church, profanity and blasphemy, and similar subjects, and prescribed very harsh penalties. The laws of Virginia under the rule of Sir Thomas Dale were also quite severe in the matter of church attendance. After the United States prohibition amendment went into effect in 1920, certain reform organizations inaugurated campaigns for further restrictive legislation of such a nature as to revive the popular cry of "blue laws." See CONNECTICUT: 1639-1662; SUNDAY OBSERVANCES: UNITED STATES.

ALSO IN: *Grotesque in American law (Law Review, v. 54 [1920])*.—*European blue laws (Annual report American historical association, 1897, pp. 357-372)*.—*Examination of Peters' "blue laws" (Annual report American historical association, 1898, pp. 97-138)*.—R. F. Dixon, *Blue laws of Nova Scotia (Canadian Magazine, Jan., 1920)*.

BLUE LICKS, Battle of (1782). See KENTUCKY: 1775-1784.

BLUELIGHT FEDERALISTS.—This term arose from an incident in the harbor of New London, Conn., during the War of 1812. With a blockading squadron Sir Thomas Hardy had hemmed in the United States frigates. Decatur had prepared secretly to run these frigates out of the harbor on a dark Sunday night. He saw blue lights burning in sight of the British blockaders near the mouth of the river and abandoned his project, as he believed these signals to be concerted with the enemy to betray his plans. He complained to the navy department, but in the absence of positive information, Congress thought the matter too trivial for action. Public suspicion was strong against the New England peace faction and the term "blue-light Federalists," like "British faction" earlier and "Hartford convention Federalist" later, was one of reproach that injured the party.

BLUE PARTY (of Venezuela). See VENEZUELA: 1820-1886.

"BLUE RIBBON," Order of. See SERAPHIM, or "BLUE RIBBON."

BLUE SKY LAWS.—"Laws regulating the issuance of securities, the so-called 'Blue Sky Laws,' are of very recent origin, and constitute an important addition to the statutory law of the United States. These laws were made necessary by the greed of the unscrupulous promoter, whose activity they are designed to curb. . . . The intent of the statute is to protect . . . people, under the police power, from fraud and imposition by irresponsible, non-resident parties. These instances have been so frequent that the United States Post Office Department has estimated that the people of this country have been losing annually more than one hundred millions of dollars by speculative schemes which have no more substantial basis than so many feet of 'blue sky.' Experience has demonstrated the fact that some of the grossest frauds have been

perpetrated on the public by investment companies by extravagant expenditures for salaries, agents' commissions, and other apparently legitimate purposes, through officers who had practically nothing invested in the association and whose character and reputation stamped them as adventurers and cheats. Such regulations are proper and wholesome. The dockets of the national courts have been crowded for the last few years with criminal prosecutions of persons charged with use of mails of the United States in carrying out fraudulent schemes, by so-called investment companies and persons offering allurements to get rich quick. But those courts are only clothed with jurisdiction to prosecute those who, in carrying out their fraudulent schemes, make use of the mails, and only after the commission of the offense. This necessarily affects only a small portion of those engaged in such schemes, and can in no wise act as a preventative. The state alone can provide for the prevention and punishment of all who commit frauds, although the mails are not used for their accomplishment, and enact laws to prevent the commission of these crimes. The Postmaster General in his report for 1913 says, 'The stock selling proposition appears to appeal to the public more than any other one fraud scheme conducted and the amount of money taken in by promoters operating this class of schemes is enormous.' In the report of the Postmaster General for 1914 it is said, 'the conditions of business in this country have been revolutionized in the past few years. The old common law rule of *caveat emptor* [Latin, *let the buyer beware*] cannot apply to mail order sales. At the present time sales are being made at a great distance from the purchaser who must pay out his money upon the faith of representations found in advertisements, catalogs and other literature with no opportunity to examine the article before purchase.'—J. M. Elliott, *Annotated blue sky laws of the United States*, pp. 1, 2, 3.

Ohio Law.—"The Attorney General of Ohio in an opinion says: 'The sole purpose of the Blue Sky Law is the protection of the prospective investor. The enactment of such a law in Ohio and other states grew out of pressing necessity. The vulturous tribe, whose members have come to be known as "Wallingsfords," had so successfully preyed upon society that the checking of their activities became imperative. Hence the State of Ohio stepped in and for the protection of its citizens said:

"(1) That, excepting public service company securities authorized by some public service commission, securities purchased in good faith by an underwriter at not less than ninety per cent of the price afterwards to be charged the public, or the securities of a going manufacturing, coal-mining or quarrying concern in this state, the sale of all securities is prohibited, even by a licensed dealer, until a certificate has been obtained from the state; that before such certificate may issue full detailed information concerning the institution must be furnished and it must affirmatively appear that the law has been complied with, that the business is not fraudulently conducted, that the issuer or vendor is solvent, and that the disposal is not on grossly unfair terms. Inquisitorial powers are given the 'commissioner' to insure his possession of the necessary information, and the right is reserved the state to revoke the certificate.

"(2) That, with certain exceptions, no person may dispose of securities evidencing title to or interest in property without being first licensed.

"(3) That, before such license to a dealer in securities may issue:

"(a) The applicant must furnish full information concerning not only his business, but himself and his agents.

"(b) The state, however, is not bound to be satisfied with the claims of the applicant in this respect but the legislature went further and placed the positive duty upon the "commissioner" to confirm, by such investigation as may be necessary to establish good repute in business of all concerned.

"(c) The notice of the application for a license must be published and no action taken by the "commissioner" until a definite time thereafter has elapsed.

"(d) If, after all this, the "commissioner" be satisfied of the good repute in business of the applicant and his agents, a license to sell securities may issue.

"(4) That any person who, without disclosing that he is to profit thereby, advises or procures any person to purchase any security shall be liable in damages to the person so purchasing such security.'

"The controlling purpose of the 'commissioner' should be to protect the investors of the state by driving out of business every person, firm, or corporation that conducts the business of selling securities unfairly or fraudulently, to the end that when the citizens of this state deal with persons or concerns holding a license from your department to sell securities, they may rely upon the truth of the representations made as to existing facts and the promises made as to what shall obtain in the future in concerns whose securities are being offered."—Foot note, *Opinions Ohio Attorney General*, 1915, v. 3, 2074.

"Almost from the dates of their enactment the constitutionality of the laws regulating the disposal of securities has been assailed. These attacks have generally been based on the grounds that they are violative of the commerce clause of the federal constitution; that they deprive one of property without due process of law; that they deny the equal protection of the laws; that they delegate legislative and judicial power to an executive officer; that they are laws of a general nature but do not operate uniformly; that they are not within the police power of the state, being unnecessary for the protection of health, safety, morals or the welfare of the people; or that they grant to citizens of one state rights, privileges or immunities not granted to the citizens of another state."—J. M. Elliott, *Annotated blue sky laws of the United States*, pp. 3, 4, 8.

Illinois law.—"The passage of the Illinois Securities Law, June 11, 1919, marks the advent of a new principle in American effort to solve the problem of misrepresentation and fraud in the handling of securities—the principle of classification. At the same time it represents an attempt to approach the problem from a somewhat new angle. Previous to the passage of the act, the thirty-nine states which had enacted blue sky legislation had largely contented themselves with supervising, in rather half-hearted fashion, merely the dealers themselves. This they had attempted to accomplish by various systems of inspection and through the exercise of a modicum of discretionary executive control in the granting of licenses. Illinois itself had such an act, passed in 1918. Taken as a whole, these measures were far from effective. In the first place the wide variations between the laws of the several states left many loopholes for evasion and fraud; and in the second place the laws all approached the problem from its most complex and difficult side. The new Illinois law, however, attempts to remedy this second difficulty. It considers not only the dealers

but also the issuers of the securities, and makes them to some extent responsible for compliance with the law. England has for many years had an effective law of this general type, designed primarily to enforce publicity, and Illinois has followed a part at least of its provisions. In general terms, classification simply means that the government arbitrarily divides the securities handled within its jurisdiction into various broadly defined groups, basing the division largely on the speculative or non-speculative character of the securities themselves. Having done this, it then contents itself with the effort to make sure that the purchaser knows beyond mistake into what particular group his proposed investment falls. The government's function is thus essentially that of information; it makes no attempt to restrict the sale of even the most doubtful and highly speculative security, provided that there is no actual evidence of fraud and that the speculative character of the investment has been adequately presented to the public. The Illinois act is quite long, and to the layman not over-lucid. Its general scheme and main provisions can perhaps be most clearly presented in the form of a summarized outline. For the purposes of the act, securities are divided into four classes, alphabetically designated:

"A. Securities, the inherent qualities of which ensure their sale and disposition without fraud. Within this group are included: (1) Securities issued by a government or governmental agency. (2) Securities issued by any national or state bank or trust company, building or loan association, or insurance company of the state. (3) Securities issued by any corporation operating any public utility, in any state where the issues of such utilities are regulated by law. (4) Securities dealt in on the New York, Chicago, Boston, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, or Detroit stock exchanges. (5) Securities whose prices have been quoted from time to time for at least a year in tabulated market reports published as news items, and not as advertising, in a daily newspaper of general circulation, published in Illinois or an adjoining state, including Michigan. (6) Securities issued by any corporation organized for non-profit-making purposes.

"B. Securities, where the inherent qualities are such or the nature of one or both parties to the sale thereof such that their sale and disposition without fraud are assured. This comprises the following types of securities: 1. Those sold by the owner for the owner's account exclusively, when not in the course of continued and repeated transactions of a similar nature. 2. Increased capital stock of a corporation, distributed directly among its stockholders, without the payment of any commission or expense to agents, brokers, etc. 3. Those sold by or to any bank, trust company, or insurance company or association, organized under the laws of Illinois, of the United States, or under the supervision of the Department of Trade and Commerce or the Auditor of Public Accounts of Illinois; or by or to any building or loan association of the state; or any public sinking fund, trustees, or to any corporation or dealer or broker in securities. 4. Those sold or offered for sale at any judicial, executor's, or administrator's sale or any bankruptcy or public sale or auction held at any advertised time or place.

"C. Securities based on an established income. This class includes the securities issued by any business which has been in continuous operation not less than two years and which has shown net profits, exclusive of all prior charges, as follows: 1. One and one-half times the annual interest

charges upon all outstanding interest-bearing obligations. 2. In the case of preferred stock, not less than one and one-half times the annual dividend. 3. In the case of common stock, not less than 3 per cent per annum.

"D. All securities not falling within Classes A, B, and C. The main provisions of the law may be summarized as follows:

"I. Provisions governing the offer of securities for sale: Securities in Classes A and B are exempt from the provisions of the Blue Sky Law. Securities in Class C may be sold only after filing a sworn statement in the office of the Secretary of State describing the securities to be sold, stating the law under which, and the time when, the corporation or business was organized, giving a balance sheet of assets and liabilities, an income or profit-and-loss statement, and an analysis of the surplus account, together with the names and addresses of its principal officers, directors, or trustees and other pertinent facts, data, and information, establishing the character of such securities. Before any Class D securities may be offered for sale, there must be filed, in the office of the Secretary of State, statements and documents as follows: (1) A description and the amount of the securities intended to be offered for sale. (2) If the issuer is a corporation, a certified copy of the charter or articles of incorporation and by-laws. (3) If the issuer is a firm, trust, partnership, or unincorporated association, a copy of the articles of partnership, association, or trust agreement. (4) The names, addresses, and prior occupations during a period of not less than ten years prior to filing such statement (giving details as to time, place, and address of employer and reasons for discontinuance of employment) of the officers, directors, or trustees of the issuer, if it be a corporation, or of the persons composing the issuer, if the issuer be a non-incorporated association. (5) A description of the nature of the industry engaged in or intended to be engaged in and the approximate time when such industry was or will be established. (6) An inventory showing the assets of the issuer. (7) An appraisal of the assets of the issuer. (8) A statement in detail of the gross income of the issuer and the source or sources thereof, and of its operating and other expenses, for a period of twelve months prior to the date of filing such statement; or for the period of the existence of the issuer if less than two years prior to the date of filing. (9) A copy of the most recent balance sheet of the issuer, showing the financial condition of the issuer at a date not more than thirty days prior to the date of filing, and giving an analysis of surplus account from inception of such issuer. (10) A copy of the mortgage, trust deed, indenture, or writing securing the securities, whereunder the same are issued, if any such instruments there be. (11) A copy of the form of the securities intended to be offered. (12) A copy of any and all subscription blanks to be used in the sale thereof, which subscription blanks shall have printed thereon, "These are speculative securities." (13) A statement as to the manner in which the securities are to be offered and sold. At any time, either before or after the filing of such statements, the Secretary of State may designate a certified public accountant to make an examination of the books, records, and documents of the issuer, and make a report thereof. If the statement discloses that any of such securities are intended to be issued for any patent right, copyright, trade-mark, process, or good-will, or for promotion fees or expenses, or for other intangible assets, the amount and nature thereof should be

fully set forth and the securities issued in payment therefor should be delivered in escrow to a bank or trust company designated by the Secretary of State, under an escrow agreement that the owners of such securities shall in the case of dissolution or insolvency not participate in the assets of the corporation until after the owners of all other securities have been paid in full. In case any statement or document filed in the office of the Secretary of State shall in his judgment be inadequate or not in compliance with the act, or in case the plan disclosed by such documents would in his judgment tend to work a fraud upon the people, or if it appears that the documents are false in any material particular, the Secretary of State shall apply for an injunction to restrain the further sale of such securities.

"II. Provisions affecting dealers in securities: When Class D securities are to be sold through a solicitor, agent, or broker, a statement must be rendered giving the names, residences, qualifications, occupations, and business experience of such solicitor, agent, or broker for the preceding ten years. The signatures of each and every solicitor, agent, or broker shall be attached to such statement. Any dealer, or owner, may sell Class D securities only after filing in the office of the Secretary of State a statement of the amount and description of the securities to be sold by him, the maximum price for which they are to be sold, and giving his address by street and number, qualifications, occupations, and business experience for the preceding ten years. An irrevocable contract must be executed by such solicitor, agent, and broker authorized to offer or sell such securities, to the effect that the issuer will receive in cash not less than 80 per cent of the proceeds of the sale of the securities without liability for any further expenses or commission. So long as any security continues to be offered for sale, new and supplementary statements must be filed at the expiration of each six months' period, showing (1) the amount of securities sold, sale price, the amount of cash proceeds received therefor, (2) all changes in the financial conditions of the issuer or in its management of property, accompanied by a copy of the most recent balance sheet, which must be not more than thirty days prior to the date of filing. Each financial statement, prospectus, advertisement, etc., published or distributed for the purpose of selling securities in Class D shall contain the following words in bold-face type: 'Securities in Class "D" under Illinois Securities Law. These are speculative securities.' But it shall be unlawful to make any other reference to the fact that the provisions of the law have been complied with. Furthermore, all such advertising literature shall contain a statement of the assets, liabilities, income, and expenses of the issuer, the law under which the issuer was incorporated or organized, and the names and addresses of all officers, directors, and trustees of the company. A copy of such financial prospectus, etc., shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of State within ten days after the first circulation, publication, or distribution. It shall be unlawful to publish or circulate therewith a statement of the earnings of other companies engaged in a similar business. Under a recent ruling by the Secretary of State, dealers may offer and provisionally sell all classes of securities before they have been accepted by the Secretary as properly qualified, actual delivery of the securities themselves not being made until after qualification.

"III. Penalties: The penalties attached to the act are severe. Attempts to sell securities without

full compliance with the provisions of the act are punishable, in the case of dealers, with fines as high as \$10,000, or one year's imprisonment, or both; and for sale of securities in case the issuer is known to be insolvent, when the purchaser loses by such sale, \$10,000, or five years, or both. In addition, dealers who sell in violation of any provision are liable for the full purchase price to the purchaser, plus reasonable attorney's fees; and for misrepresentation of the facts contained in the filed statements, to a maximum fine of \$5,000, or one year's imprisonment, or both. These are the more important provisions of the new law. In theory, it combines the principle of classification with an attempt to prevent the sale of securities that show evidence of fraud or misrepresentation. In practice, it appears to do little more than group securities, and to secure some measure of publicity for the grouping established. The actual effect of this publicity on the purchase of securities is very doubtful. According to the law, twenty-five copies of all statements, documents, etc., must be filed with the Secretary, and are theoretically accessible to the public; but in point of fact the investing class does not seem to be aware of this, and makes no attempt to use this information in passing judgment on issues. Moreover, it is only for Class D that a statement is required on advertisements and prospectuses, giving the state classification of the issue; and, as we shall show later, evasion of even this provision is easy. As to prohibition of sale, relatively few issues have been forbidden, perhaps because most of the questionable securities of the state never come up for judgment by the Secretary."—J. W. Angell, *Journal of Political Economy*, April, 1920.

Minnesota law. See MINNESOTA: 1917.

Wisconsin law. See WISCONSIN: 1912-1917.

See also CALDWELL vs. SIOUX FALLS Co. 1894-1905.

ALSO IN: Sonnenschein, *and others*, *Summary and abstract of the blue sky laws in force in the various states of the United States*.

BLUEFIELDS INCIDENT. See NICARAGUA: 1894-1895.

BLUES, political party in Venezuela who opposed the Yellows. See VENEZUELA: 1829-1886.

BLUES, Roman faction of the. See CIRCUS, FACTIONS OF THE ROMAN.

BLUM, Robert (1807-1848), German bookseller, publisher and writer of Leipzig, executed at Vienna for leadership in an anti-imperialistic uprising of the Viennese in 1848. As he was there as a deputy of the German democrats to express the sympathy of their national assembly at Frankfort with the cause of the Austrians, the sentence stirred all Germany. For work and failure of the National Assembly at Frankfort, see AUSTRIA: 1848; and GERMANY: 1848-1850.

BLUMENBACH, Johann Friederich (1752-1840), German physiologist and anthropologist. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Definition.

BOABDIL, or Abu Abdullah (d. 1493), last Moorish king of Granada, who usurped the throne of his father. In 1491-1492 he was attacked and defeated by Ferdinand and Isabella. See SPAIN: 1476-1492.

BOADICEA (d. 62), British queen who revolted against the Romans. See BRITAIN: A. D. 61.

BOAIRE, "cow-lord," having certain wealth in cattle, among the ancient Irish.

BOANES, or Bohanes. See URUGUAY: Aborigines.

BOARD OF INDIAN COMMISSIONERS, United States. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1865-1876.

BOARD SCHOOLS, English. See ENGLAND: 1896-1897; EDUCATION: Modern: 10th century: England: Voluntary and board schools.

BOARIAN TRIBUTE, also called the *Borruwa*, or cow-tribute. A humiliating exaction said to have been levied on the province of Leinster by a King Tuathal of Erin, in the second century; it was maintained for five hundred years.

BOAS, Franz (1858-), German-American anthropologist. See ACADEMIC FREEDOM: Practical proposals; and ANTHROPOLOGY: Definition.

BOBOVATZ, or Bobovac, a town of Bosnia, north of Visoko. It was taken by Turks under Mohammed II in 1463. See BOSNIA: 1453-1528.

BOBR RIVER, in southwestern Russia. Region of fighting in 1915. See WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i.

BOBRIKOV, Nikolaï Ivanovitch (1839-1904), governor-general of Finland; assassinated in 1904. See FINLAND: 1904.

BOCAGE, district in Poitou, France, which in 1793 was in the insurrection with La Vendée. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-April).

BOCASTI, branch of the Fratricelli, of the Franciscan order. See BEGUINES.

BOCCACCIO, Giovanni (1313-1375), Italian author, famous for his prose style, which is especially great in the "Decameron." See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1283-1375.

BOCHARI. See BUKHARI.

BOCHE (noun or adjective), French slang word of uncertain origin, used as a synonym for "German." It was employed at least as early as 1870, but came into prominence in the World War, when it attained currency among writers favoring the Allies. Like all epithets applied to enemies, it connotes contempt.

BOCKELSON, John (1508-1535), Dutch Anabaptist fanatic. See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.

BOCKHOLZ, Battle of. See SAXONS: 772-804.

BOCLAND, Bockland, Bokland, or Boakland, ancient word for an estate created by legal process, not inherited. See ALOD, ALODIAL, FOLCLAND.

BOCSKAY, Stephen (1557-1606), Hungarian statesman, leader of an insurrection against the Hapsburgs in 1604. He was proclaimed Prince of Transylvania in the following year. See HUNGARY: 1567-1604; 1606-1660.

BODELSCHWINGH, Friedrich von (1830-1910), German social worker and founder of Bethel. See CHARITIES: Germany: 1872-1914.

BODHISATTVA, one who will become a Buddhist after several rebirths. See MYTHOLOGY: Eastern Asia: Indian and Chinese influence; SCULPTURE: Indian, China, Japan.

BODIN, Jean (1520-1596), French philosophical writer. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1552-1610.

BODLEIAN LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Modern: England.

BODLEY, Sir Thomas (1545-1613), English diplomatist, scholar, and founder of Bodleian Library at Oxford. See LIBRARIES: Modern: England.

BODY OF LIBERTIES, Massachusetts. See SLAVERY: 1638-1781.

BOEHM-ERMOLLI, Eduard von, Austrian general of Arab descent who participated in campaigns in Galicia and the Carpathians, during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Eastern front: c; f, 4; f, 6; g, 2; i, 6.

BOEHN, Hans Mathias Ludwig von, German general in the Aisne and second Marne battles. See WORLD WAR: II. Western front: f, 3; 1918: II. Western front: g, 6; g, 12.

BOELKE, German captain of aviation famed

for his daring and exploits. See WORLD WAR: 1916: XIII. War in the air.

BÆOTARCHS. See BÆOTIAN LEAGUE; GREECE: B. C. 432-431.

BÆOTIA, BÆOTIANS.—"Between Phokis and Lokris on one side, and Attica (from which it is divided by the mountains Kitharôn and Parnes) on the other, we find the important territory called Bæotia, with its ten or twelve autonomous cities, forming a sort of confederacy under the presidency of Thebes, the most powerful among them. Even of this territory, destined during the second period of this history to play a part so conspicuous and effective, we know nothing during the first two centuries after 776 B. C. We first acquire some insight into it on occasion of the disputes between Thebes and Plataea, about the year 520 B. C."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 3.—In the Greek legendary period one part of this territory, subsequently Bæotian—the Copaic valley in the north—was occupied by the enterprising people called the Minyi, whose chief city was Orchomenus. Their neighbors were the Cadmeians of Thebes, who are "rich," as Grote expresses it, "in legendary antiquities." The reputed founder of Thebes was Cadmus, bringer of letters to Hellas, from Phœnicia or from Egypt, according to different representations. Dionysus (Bacchus) and Hēraklēs were both supposed to recognize the Cadmeian city as their birth-place. The terrible legends of Œdipus and his unhappy family connect themselves with the same place, and the incident wars between Thebes and Argos—the assaults of the seven Argive chiefs and of their sons, the Epigoni—were, perhaps, real causes of a real destruction of the power of some race for whom the Cadmeians stand. They and their neighbors, the Minyi of Orchomenus, appear to have given way before another people, from Thessaly, who gave the name Bæotia to the country of both and who were the inhabitants of the Thebes of historic times.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 1, ch. 14.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"That the Bæotia of history should never have attained to a significance corresponding to the natural advantages of the locality, and to the prosperity of the district in the pre-Homeric age, is due above all to one principal cause. The immigration of the Thessalian Bæotians, from which the country derived its name and the beginnings of its connected history, destroyed the earlier civilization of the land, without succeeding in establishing a new civilization capable of conducting the entire district to a prosperous and harmonious development. It cannot be said that the ancient germs of culture were suppressed, or that barbarous times supervened. The ancient seats of the gods and oracles continued to be honoured and the ancient festivals of the Muses on Mount Helicon, and of the Charities at Orchomenus, to be celebrated. In Bæotia too the beneficent influence of Delphi was at work, and the poetic school of Hesiod, connected as it was with Delphi, long maintained itself here. And a yet stronger inclination was displayed by the Æolian immigrants towards music and lyric poetry. The cultivation of the music of the flute was encouraged by the excellent reeds of the Copaic morasses. This was the genuinely national species of music in Bæotia. . . . And yet the Bæotians lacked the capacity for attracting to themselves the earlier elements of population in such a way as to bring about a happy amalgamation. . . . The Bæotian lords were not much preferable to the Thessalian; nor was there any region far or near, inhabited by Greek tribes, which presented a harsher contrast in culture or manners, than the

district where the road led from the Attic side of Mount Parnes across to the Bœotian."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 6, ch. 1.—See also GREECE: Migrations.

B. C. 480-479.—In War with Persia. See GREECE: B. C. 480: Wars: Thermopylae; and B. C. 479: Persian Wars: Plataea.

B. C. 458-456.—Spartan Victory. See GREECE: B. C. 458-456.

B. C. 457-456.—Alliance with Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 457-456.

B. C. 447.—Freedom from Athens. See ATHENS: B. C. 447.

B. C. 424-421.—Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

B. C. 421-418.—Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B. C. 421-418.

1146.—Ravaged by Roger of Sicily. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1146.

1205-1308.—Rule by Otto de la Roche. See ATHENS: 1205-1308.

BŒOTIAN LEAGUE.—"The old Bœotian League, as far as its outward forms went, seems to have been fairly entitled to the name of a Federal Government, but in its whole history we trace little more than the gradual advance of Thebes to a practical supremacy over the other cities. . . . The common government was carried on in the name of the whole Bœotian nation. Its most important magistrates bore the title of Bœotarchs; their exact number, eleven or thirteen, is a disputed point. . . . Thebes chose two Bœotarchs and each of the other cities one."—E. A. Freeman, *History of federal government*, ch. 4, sect. 2.

BOER (Dutch, *boer*, a farmer; German, *bauer*, a peasant), the name given to the descendants of the Dutch settlers of the Cape of Good Hope. "The original stock of the Boer or Dutch Afrikaner people contained a considerable admixture of French blood. The foundation of the predominant white population . . . laid almost exclusively between the years 1052 and 1090 . . . was composed as follows: (1) The discharged soldiers, sailors and other servants of the company . . . (2) parties of young women from the public orphanages of Holland . . . (3) a community of Huguenot refugees (1688-1699) . . . (4) Dutch families sent out from Holland concurrently with the French. . . . In the compulsory abandonment of French . . . [is] found the origin of the clipped and broken Dutch dialect known as the *Taal* . . . which for two centuries has been the national tongue of the South African Dutch. The barrier of the *Taal* and the Liberal and monopolist system of the Dutch East India Co., under which all external trade was carried on by the officials of the company, together cut off the settlers almost completely from social and intellectual intercourse with Europe, and at the close of the Company's regime, when Britain temporarily occupied the Cape Colony (1795), the white inhabitants formed to all intents and purposes a 17th century community."—W. B. Worsfold, *Africa*, ch. vii, pp. 158-159. (*Oxford survey of the British empire*.)

"The English came back to stay in 1806 and . . . in the Boers [they] had to deal with a strong, tenacious race, suspicious of newcomers, inheriting traditions of successful rivalry to England, sore at being severed from their mother country, minded, whether under the Dutch or the English flag, to go their own ways and live their own lives. Governors were not always wise. . . . Missionaries from England preached doctrines with regard to the treatment of natives which did not

harmonize with Boer views. Slave emancipation impoverished the slave owners, who received inadequate compensation for the value of their slaves. The climax of discontent was reached at the conclusion of one of the many Kaffir wars in which South Africa and the 19th century abounded. . . . The South African Boers found their remedy in emigration. In 1836 began the Great Trek, . . . out into the land between the Orange and the Vaal River and beyond the Vaal. They founded little republics, the nuclei of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal Republic [also founding Natal (q. v.)]."—C. P. Lucas, *British empire*, pp. 125-127.—"For many years the Boers of the Free State and the South African Republic remained isolated from the rest of the world, until the discovery of diamonds and gold brought in a new and alien element. They led a different life from that of their brethren in the Cape Colony, who were in a settled country, where they were able to attend peacefully to their agricultural and pastoral avocations. For many years the Free States and the Transvaalers carried their lives in their hands. . . . They developed an entirely different outlook, communing with nature alone in its wildest forms, learning self-reliance in the isolation of the bush, far removed from neighbors or softening or enervating influence, knowing the trail and the ways of wild beast and the wilder savage with unerring acuteness. . . . The Boer of the *Voortrekker* era and thereafter became somewhat self-assertive, regarding himself as the chosen instrument of Providence for the settlement of the interior. Such a man was sure to be deeply religious . . . his spiritual leaders had great influence over him. The piety of the Doppers, to which body many of the *Voortrekkers* belonged, was of a severely ascetic cast. . . . On the whole, however, the Dutch have remained faithful to Orthodox Calvinism."—M. Nathan, *South African commonwealth*, pp. 384-385.—"The individual Boer, in short, has been well described by a friend of his people as, according to his lights, a citizen pioneer, and a rough, God-fearing, honest, homely, uneducated Philistine. His indubitable cruelty to the natives is, perhaps, the fault of his needs and upbringing, as his political shiftiness is that of the demagogues and adventurers who have too often meddled with his national affairs."—W. E. G. Fisher, *Transvaal and the Boers*, p. 50.—"With the discovery of gold and the great increase in population the Boers became more steadfastly national and "believed that the only way to maintain the government in their own hands was to exclude the British settlers, the Uitlanders, from the suffrage. . . . War began in October of 1899 . . . against Great Britain."—L. H. Holt and S. W. Chilton, *History of Europe*, pp. 330-340.—See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (October-December); 1900 (January-February), to 1901 (April); U. S. A.: 1900 (June-August).

In spite of the general progress in education and the continued European immigration, the Boers have preserved much of their exclusiveness and provincial outlook. However, the introduction of new political issues growing out of the struggle between capital and labor has somewhat broken the solidarity of the Boer vote and many of the most influential leaders in the Boer War, like Botha and Smuts, were able later to reconcile themselves to their conquerors and advocate the continuance of the Union of South Africa within the British Empire.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Characteristics of self-governing colonies; ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881, and 1914.

BOERHAAVE, Hermann (1668-1738), Dutch physician and scientist. See **MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: Closing period of humoral pathology.**

BOESINGHE, town in Belgium, north of Ypres, which was the scene of fighting during the World War. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: h; 1017: II. Western front: d, 4.**

BOGDAN KHMELNITSKI. See **KHMELNITSKI, BOGDAN.**

BOGDANIA, early name for Moldavia. See **RUMANIA: 13th-18th centuries.**

BOGESUND, Battle of (1520). See **SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1397-1427.**

BOGITSHEVICH, Milosh, Serbian minister to Berlin. See **WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 3.**

BOGLE, Paul, riot leader in Jamaica. See **JAMAICA: 1865.**

BOGOMILIANS, a religious sect which arose among the Slavs of Thrace and Bulgaria, in the eleventh century, and suffered persecution from the orthodox of the Greek church. They sympathized with the Iconoclasts of former times, were hostile to the adoration of the Virgin and saints, and took more or less from the heretical doctrines of the Paulicians. Their name is derived by some from the two Slavic words, *Bog*, signifying God, and *milui*, "have mercy." Others say that *Bogumil*, meaning "one beloved by God," was the correct designation. Basilios, the leader of the Bogomilians, was burned by the emperor Alexius Comnenus, in the hippodrome, at Constantinople, 1118.—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, 716-1453, bk. 3, ch. 2, sect. 1.—See also **BOSNIA: 12th century; 1453-1528; 1528-1875 and SERBIA: 1200-1321.**

BOGORIS, Bulgarian king (c. 890), who accepted Christianity for the Bulgarian people. See **CHRISTIANITY: 9th century: Bulgarian church.**

BOGOTÁ or Santa Fé de Bogotá.—**Location and character.**—Capital of the republic of Colombia, of the department of Cundinamarca and the province of Bogotá, is situated 8,679 feet above sea-level, "in the midst of rolling plains on a high plateau surrounded by great mountains. . . . Served by several railways, it has an excellent network of municipal tramways, is lit by electricity, possesses two of the best theatres on the Continent (the Teatro Colón and the Teatro Municipal), large bull ring, hippodrome [and] polo club grounds. . . . Bogotá, besides being the political centre of the country, is also a busy mart where much of the imports for distribution as well as goods for exports are gathered."—V. Lévine, *Colombia*, pp. 151, 152.—See also **LATIN AMERICA: Map.**

Population.—In 1673 curiosity led the president, Melchor Leñan y Cisneros, to have a census taken of the city, which was found to contain 3,000 inhabitants. In 1850 it had 35,000 inhabitants; in 1884, it showed 95,761 inhabitants. In 1912 its population was 139,277. The chief racial element is white; negro blood is rarely evident. The original stocks are represented, together with many intermediate cross-breeds.

Commerce and industry.—"Economically Bogotá is on a sound footing, being a commercial and banking center of constantly growing importance. There are five banks of large capital, the American Mercantile Bank (Banco Mercantil Americano) having been established last year, and at present [written in 1910] the establishment of another is under consideration. Several insurance companies contribute to the success of financial enterprises. Large export houses have founded headquarters there and importation is conducted on rather a

large scale. Foreign credit companies in the United States and Europe are an added factor in Bogotá's development. Industry also is being exploited. Thread and textile industries compete with foreign establishments in the production of fabrics and cloth. Stock raising is increasing considerably on the plain, the strains having been carefully selected from stock brought from England, and the wool market is plentiful. Tanneries and shoe manufactories have grown up; tobacco is made into cigarettes which rival those of Habana."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union (Jan-June, 1919)*, p. 303.—"Bogotá and its suburbs possess a goodly number of factories; matches, plate-glass, clay-tubing, beer, flour, candles made here have dislodged their foreign competitors. Many other articles are manufactured which compete favourably in price and quality with imported goods—glassware, cotton goods, silks, linens, biscuits [and] mineral waters. . . . The largest industrial establishment in the city is [1013] the *Bavaria* brewery, employing 300 labourers, an up-to-date concern, founded in 1890. . . . The ordinary arts and crafts are well represented, supplying the town with everything for the complete comfort of life as known in European capitals, though, of course, for ultra luxuriant resort is had abroad."—P. J. Eder, *Colombia*, pp. 210-220.

Education.—"Santa Fé [Bogotá] developed rapidly. It became an intellectual center; college after college was founded. Aristotle and Plato, having traversed thorny ground, navigated fabulous rivers and ascended abrupt peaks, had at last become the patrons of the creoles of the New World. The primary academy (Seminario Menor) was opened in 1585; the College of St. Bartholomew in 1597; and Santo Domingo in 1605. The first Muisca grammar was printed by the order and at the expense of the president, Francisco de Borja. The College of San Francisco Javier was opened under the Jesuits, and eager auditors filled the lecture halls devoted to the mystic philosopher of the 'Suma Teológica' at St. Thomas College. The influential Rosario College was established by Archbishop Cristóbal de Torres in 1653. . . . [It] has had extraordinary success, and through [it] . . . some of those Colombians most famous in science, in literature and in politics have passed. This College is still in existence [1014] and flourishing, giving courses in literature and philosophy. The National University of Bogotá, founded in 1867, has Faculties of Medicine, Law and Political Science, and [with] . . . this institution are associated the Schools of Engineering and of National Sciences. The National Library, Astronomical Observatory, School of Fine Arts and the Academy of Music are also incorporated in the University. There is also in the capital a Seminary in which youths destined for the priesthood are educated. The Colegio de San Bartolomé, of ancient foundation, to-day under the direction of the Jesuit Fathers, imparts instruction to young boys. A free institute of learning, enjoying a good name in the country, and in which courses of Literature and Philosophy are held, and comprising Faculties of Law and Political Science, is the Universidad Republicana, which has withstood the assaults of political enemies, and throughout a difficult period has kept pace with the official seat of learning."—V. Lévine, *Colombia*, pp. 64-65.

Origin and early history.—"The name with which Gonzalo Ximénes de Quesada and his warring hosts christened the Andean plateau was Santa Fé. To that nobleman nothing seemed more fitting than to give to the land he had discovered the name of his birthplace—that classic Santa Fé

founded upon the royal command of Ferdinand and Isabella opposite the opulent Granada."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union* (Jan.-June, 1919), p. 373. See COLOMBIA: 1536-1731.—"Granada he commemorated in the name of the new kingdom. The site for the capital was chosen with much care, where stood the little Indian village of Tensaquillo. . . . He commenced [in 1538] with the building of twelve houses, in honour of the twelve Apostles; and, of course, a church was amongst the first requisites. [In 1540 the emperor Charles V made the settlement a city and gave it a coat of arms]. . . . Quesada died of leprosy at Mariquita, beyond the Magdalena, in 1597, and his monument is in the cathedral at the capital. The city has now lost its name of Santa Fé, being universally known by that of Bogotá, the Chibcha metropolis, which occupied a site on the river Funza, about six miles west of the modern city."—F. Petre, *Republic of Colombia*, p. 118.—"Its first lieutenant governor was Herman Pérez de Quesada, brother of the founder. . . . Following Pérez de Quesada five captains governed in quick succession; but as the Court of Spain was at variance with these governors, in 1564 it was resolved to name as president, invested with extraordinary power, Don Andrés Díaz Venero de Leiva, the founder of the Colombian nationality. Twenty-two governors later governed at intervals, administrations now lost in the shadows of time, although among the group shines the name of the noble Knight Don Francisco de Borja, nephew of the Duke of Gandia, who governed for 23 years."—*Bulletin of the Pan-American Union* (Jan.-June, 1919), p. 377.—See also COLOMBIA: 1536-1731.

1740.—Elevation of New Granada to a viceroyalty.—"A political transformation, the result of the importance of New Granada and its fiscal situation, . . . took place, adding prestige to the proud blason of New Granada—the bud which was to produce dangerous fruit for the Spanish Crown. New Granada was elevated to a viceroyalty by a decree of King Philip V, and although the chimerical attempt of former years and his Viceroy Villalonga had failed, in 1740 it was an accomplished fact, and His Excellency Don Sebastian de Esclava regally began his governorship, invested with the title of viceroy. Peaceful Santa Fé, accustomed to her simple, democratic President, bore the change in resignation, though she found herself involved in the turmoil of the court, and beheld the viceroy driven through her tortuous streets, after his customary siesta, in a coach of state drawn by mules in gay trappings."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union* (Jan.-June, 1919), p. 381.—See also COLOMBIA: 1536-1731.

1810 (July).—Junta at Bogotá declared the government of New Granada transferred from Spanish authorities to themselves.—"Of the acts of independence, that of Bogotá, the seat of the Viceroy, was the most consequential. The struggle for freedom in New Granada may be said to have had its definite beginning on the 20th day of July, 1810, when the junta at the capital, called together by the insistence of the populace . . . after an all-night session, backed up by a mob of six or seven thousand patriots assembled throughout the night in the public square, declared the supreme government of New Granada transferred from the Spanish authorities to themselves as representing the Sovereignty of the People, and further resolved that a call for the election of deputies from the several provinces be sent out to join the junta in adopting a constitution for a federation of free and independent sovereign states. . . . Not all the provinces responded to the call sent out by

the Bogotá junta. Many, like Cartagena, in their local pride, preferred their own undisturbed sway; a few, like Pasto, under the domination of a fanatical clergy, stubbornly remained loyal to the Spanish authorities. The remnants of ultra-marine rule could have been readily extinguished, but there was unhappily initiated a period, bordering on anarchy, of impotent civil strife, aptly dubbed by Colombian historians 'la patria boba'—'foolish'—in that, neglecting the opportunity to cement the foundations of the nation against the inevitable future attempt of Spain to regain her power, the country's energies were misspent in civil life."—P. J. Eder, *Colombia*, pp. 33-34.

1816-1819.—City seized by the Spanish and later delivered by Bolivar.—New republic formed.—In 1816 Bogotá was seized by the Spanish forces and subjected to a severe military rule for the next three years, until the victory of Bolivar's forces at Boyara relieved the city. On the proclamation of the independence of the viceroyalty, Bogotá became the capital of the republic of Colombia, which later split up into three states—Venezuela, Ecuador and New Granada (later Colombia). See COLOMBIA: 1819-1830.

1855.—Rule over Panama. See PANAMA: 1840-1900.

1859-1861.—Civil war in New Granada.—Bogotá captured by ex-President Mosquera.—Congress at Bogotá established a republic with the name of the United States of Colombia. See COLOMBIA: 1830-1886.

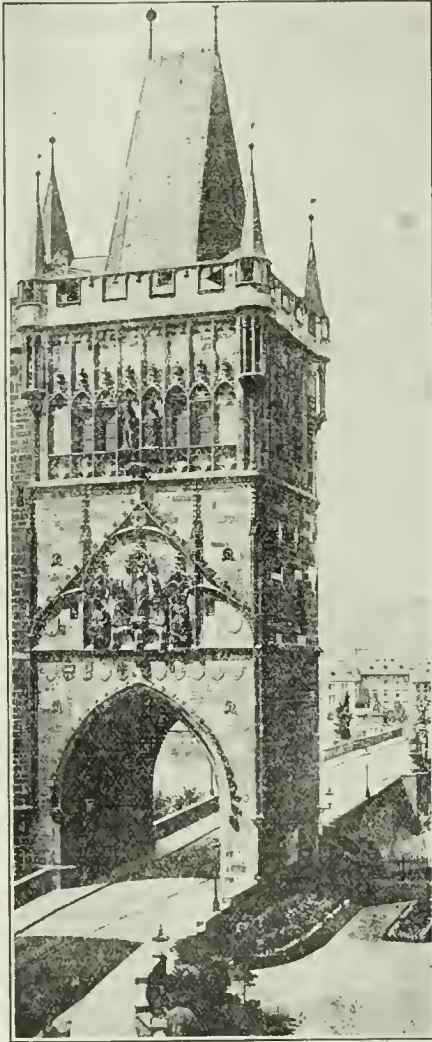
1909.—Communication with the coast established.—"In the days of Quesada and until recently [written in 1909] the route has been by boat from Barranquilla up to Magdalena to the rapids at Honda. This is about 600 miles. From here the way was by horse or mule back, or in the early days by the Silla, a chair strapped to a man's back, to Bogotá. Three high mountain ranges and as many deep valleys made the journey interesting but tedious. The trip took about 30 days at the least. Gradually this time was shortened as the steamboat service improved and connecting links of railway were built. In January of 1909 the last iron link was forged when the Girardot Railway joined the Sabana Railway at Facatativa, thus establishing direct communication with the coast. The time now is about eight days from Bogotá to Barranquilla."—*Pan American* (Bureau of American Republics, July-Dec., 1909).

1921.—Transportation.—In spite of the completion of a railroad in 1909, transportation is still extremely difficult. "Seven trans-shipments are necessary before a shipment ultimately reaches Bogotá, Colombia [from the United States]. . . . Another difficulty in connection with shipments . . . may also be of interest at this time. Consignments 'to order' are not recognized by the laws of that country [Colombia] and the only manner in which complete protection can be secured is by consigning the merchandise under previous agreement to a bank or import agent."—*Pan-American Magazine* (Jan., 1921).

BOHAIN, town in France, northeast of St. Quentin which was taken by the Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: r.

BOHEMIA.—General location.—Area.—Physical conditions.—Agricultural and mineral resources.—Population.—Cities and industries.—The physical and economic conditions of Bohemia have been outlined (1915) as follows: "Bohemia lies almost exactly half way between the Adriatic Sea and the Baltic. . . . Its area (20,065 sq. miles) is less than half that of New York State. . . . It is not, however, so nearly a plain. Almost the en-

tire surface possesses considerable relief. Only along the southeastern boundary line is the otherwise continuous mountain girdle broken. The Riesengebirge along the northeast boundary, the Erzgebirge along the northwest, and the Bohemian Forest along the southwest, are well defined ranges with a maximum altitude in the Riesengebirge of about 5,300 feet (the Schneekoppe). The Bohemian-Moravian hills along the southeast include a considerably dissected upland of approximately



BRIDGE TOWER AT PRAGUE

1000 feet elevation."—E. Van Cleef, *Overlooked Bohemia* (*Journal of Geography*, October, 1915, pp. 30-40).—These elevations slope down towards the interior, which is an undulating plain, drained by the Elbe and its tributaries. The longest of them in Bohemia is the Moldau, which is navigable and is connected by canal with the Danube and the Black sea. Besides the Elbe, the Vistula and the Oder take their rise within the limits of Bohemia. A "continental climate combined with the remarkable fertility of the soil gives to Bohemia an agricultural resource that many a country would gladly cherish. Among the numerous crops are hops, potatoes, sugar-

beets; small fruits, such as grapes, cherries, apples, and plums. Most of the grains are represented, principally wheat, rye, and flax. Geese, cattle, and swine are the most important farm animals. . . . Bohemia's mineral resources also rank high. With the exception of salt, probably no mineral is lacking in her numerous hills. Coal, particularly lignite (Braunkohle), is in abundance, especially in the Eger valley near its junction with the Elbe. Iron and coal (mostly anthracite) occur in quantity in the region about Pilsen. Silver, lead, garnets, copper, nickel, cobalt, kaolin, quartz from which glass sand is derived, tungsten, tin, and alum make a rather formidable array of minerals, a complete list of which would be too long to detail here. . . . About one-third of the 6,769,548 people is German and the remainder Czech. Along the west bank of the Elbe for considerable distances north of Prague, Czech towns predominate; along the east bank German towns. In nearly all of the cities both German and Czech schools are represented. . . . The industrial centers of the mountain areas, with the exception of the southeastern districts, are occupied by the Germans. Mining at the foot of the Erzgebirge and cotton, wool, linen, and glass manufacturing are very largely under German control. The culmination of German industry in this foreign land is perhaps best appreciated in Reichenberg (pop. 35,000) located on the Neiss River where it controls the important pass leading to Saxony and Silesia. . . . Prague (pop. 541,000), the capital city and a growing industrial center, . . . is a . . . Czech town today, although 50 years ago it was not so. Now only one-sixth of its population is German. Other towns of importance that might be mentioned in passing are Aussig (pop. 40,000), a river harbor on the Elbe for the distribution of lignite and a limited quantity of lumber; Pilsen (pop. 80,000), in the west on the Beraun River, the city which has given the world-renowned name to 'Pilsener' beer. In the southern part of the country on the upper Moldau, in control of the important road to Linz on the Danube, lies the rival city of Budweis (pop. 45,000), whose name also is well-known. Large cities are generally absent. On the other hand the many small cities give a relatively even distribution of population."—E. Van Cleef, *Overlooked Bohemia* (*Journal of Geography*, Oct., 1915, pp. 40-41).

STATUS of art and education.—"In matter of art . . . Bohemia was early in the field. The Prague school of painting that came into prominence during the reign of Charles IV. (1316-1378) took favorable rank with similar early art movements in Italy. Painters, sculptors, and architects trained in Bohemia are represented to-day at most of the great cities in Europe where art treasures are preserved. The zealous and promising artistic movement inaugurated in the country by the followers of the Prague school, like most of the other culture movements in the kingdom, was well-nigh extinguished by the attempted Teutonization of the country by the Hapsburg rulers after the fatal *Bilá Hora* [battle of the White Hill, 1620]. The political and literary activity in Bohemia during the opening years of the last century reacted favorably on the art life of the nation. A society of the fine arts, that was distinctly Bohemian and national in character, was organized at Prague in 1848; and this was followed by annual expositions of the chief productions of Bohemia and foreign artists. As an immediate result of these activities, Bohemia produced an astonishingly large number of painters who took high rank in their art, artists of the rare talent of Hellich,

Manes, Cermák, Schwaiger, Ales, Brozik, Mucha, Uprka. In sculpture, too, modern Bohemia has taken a place of distinction in the works of Myslík, Simek, Seidan, Sucharda, and Saloun. Bohemia's music is probably better known throughout the civilized world than any other branch of her creative art. This is largely due to the universal character of the language of music and to the eminence of her great tone poets, Smetana and Dvorák. Not that the history of music in the country begins with these two modern composers, but because they spoke in such musical forms and with such musical force that they arrested the attention of the world. . . . Bohemia's position in the matter of education is likewise distinctive. Education of an elementary and secondary character was general in Bohemia several centuries in advance of Austria and Germany. The University of Prague antedated similar institutions in Germany by more than half a century. John Amos Komenský (known in America and England by the Latinized form of his name, Comenius) was a Bohemian, and in the judgment of competent historians of education he was the real evangelist of modern pedagogy. Most of the school systems of progressive and cultivated European peoples are based directly upon ideas that he formulated."—T. Capek, *Bohemia under Hapsburg misrule*, pp. 157-159.—See also MUSIC: Folk Music and nationalism: Bohemia.

Derivation of the name.—Bohemia is thought to have derived its name from the Boians or Boii, who occupied that region after they were driven by the Romans from Gallia Cisalpina early in the second century.—See also BOIANS.

Its people and their early history.—"Whatever may be the inferences from the fact of Bohemia having been politically connected with the empire of the Germanic Marcomanni, whatever may be those from the element Boio-'as connecting its population with the Boii of Gaul and Bavaria (Baiovarii), the doctrine that the present Slavonic population of that kingdom—Tshekhs [or Czechs] as they call themselves—is either recent in origin or secondary to any German or Celtic aborigines, is wholly unsupported by history. In other words, at the beginning of the historical period Bohemia was as Slavonic as it is now. From 526 to 550, Bohemia belonged to the great Thuringian Empire. The notion that it was then Germanic (except in its political relations) is gratuitous. Nevertheless, Schaffarik's account is, that the ancestors of the present Tshekhs came, probably, from White Croatia: which was either north of the Carpathians, or each side of them. According to other writers, however, the parts above the river Kulpa in Croatia sent them forth. In Bohemian the verb 'ceti'='to begin,' from which Debrowsky derives the name Czekhs—the beginners, the foremost, i.e., the first Slavonians who passed westwards. The powerful Samo, the just Krok, and his daughter, the wise Libussa, the founder of Prague, begin the uncertain list of Bohemian kings, 624-700. About 722, a number of petty chiefs became united under Přemysl the husband of Libussa. Under his son Nezamysl occurs the first Constitutional Assembly at Vysehrad; and in 845, Christianity was introduced. But it took no sure footing till about 966. Till 1471 the names of the Bohemian kings and heroes are Tshekhs—Wenceslaus, Ottokar, Ziska, Podiebrad. In 1564, the Austrian connexion and the process of Germanizing began. . . . The history and ethnology of Moravia is nearly that of Bohemia, except that the Marcomannic Germans, the Turks, Huns, Avars and other less important populations may have effected a greater amount of in-

termixture. Both populations are Tshekhs, speaking the Tshekhs language—the language, probably, of the ancient Quadi."—R. G. Latham, *Ethnology of Europe*, ch. 11.—See also AVARS: 7th century; CZECHS; HISTORY: 29; PHILOLOGY: 21.

9th century-13th century.—Part of the Moravian kingdom.—Created a kingdom.—A Germanic electorate.—War of King Ottakar with the emperor Rudolph of Hapsburg.—His defeat and death.—In the ninth century Bohemia was a part of the Moravian kingdom (see MORAVIA: 9th century), but soon threw off its yoke (see also HUNGARY: 934-955). In 1088 it became a kingdom, and in the thirteenth century the king of Bohemia was made one of the seven electors of the Holy Roman Empire. When Rudolph, count of Hapsburg, became king of the Romans, he claimed most of Bohemia's possessions, and Ottakar under necessity surrendered his lands, except Bohemia and Moravia, and recognized the sovereignty of Rudolph. (See GERMANY: 1125-1272.) Supported by the duke of Bavaria, he soon revolted, however, and was defeated and killed in the ensuing battle at Marchfeld, in 1278.—See also AUSTRIA: 1246-1282.

1310-1410.—Acquisition of the crown by the Luxemburg family.—Election of Charles IV to the imperial throne.—Upon the death of Wenceslaus III, the crown of Bohemia passed into the hands of the Luxemburg family for more than a century, through the marriage of John of Luxemburg to the deceased king's daughter. (See GERMANY: 1308-1313.) John's son, Charles IV, was elected king of the Romans in 1347 (see GERMANY: 1317-1347). During his reign the Germanization of Bohemia was begun and the University of Prague founded. Charles IV exerted himself in every way to advance the fortunes of the country. His work, however, was partially undone by his incompetent son, and the progress of Germanization was checked by the Hussite movement. (See below, 1405-1415.) After the deposition from the imperial throne of Charles's son, Wenceslaus, the imperial crown reverted to the house of Luxemburg with the election of King Sigismund in 1410.—See also GERMANY: 1347-1403.

1355.—Succession fixed in the Luxemburg dynasty.—Incorporation of Moravia, Silesia, &c.—The diet of the nobles, in 1355, joined Charles IV in "fixing the order of succession in the dynasty of Luxemburg, and in definitely establishing that principle of primogeniture which had already been the custom in the Premyslide dynasty. Moravia, Silesia, Upper Lusatia, Brandenburg, which had been acquired from the margrave Otto, and the county of Glatz (Kladsko), with the consent of the diets of these provinces, were declared integral and inalienable portions of the kingdom of Bohemia."—L. Leger, *History of Austro-Hungary*, ch. 11.

1364.—Reversion of the crown guaranteed to the house of Austria.—Following a dispute about the possessions of Tyrol, Carinthia, and Carniola, Charles IV of Bohemia and Rudolph of Austria concluded a treaty by which the two houses of Luxemburg, in Bohemia, and of Hapsburg, in Austria, guaranteed each other the inheritance of their lands in case of the extinction of either one of the families.—See also AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

1378.—Wenzel elected king.—Territory joined to Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 1168-1417.

1405-1415.—John Hus, and the movement of religious reformation.—"Some sparks of the fire which Wiclif had lighted [see ENGLAND: 1360-1414], blown over half Europe, as far as remote Bohemia, quickened into stronger activity a flame

which for long years burned and scorched and consumed, defying all efforts to extinguish it. But for all this, it was not Wiclif who kindled the Bohemian fires. His writing did much to fan and feed them; while the assumed and in part erroneously assumed, identity of his teaching with that of Hus contributed not a little to shape the tragic issues of the Bohemian reformer's life. But the Bohemian movement was an independent and eminently a national one. If we look for the proper forerunners of Hus, his true spiritual ancestors, we shall find them in his own land, in a succession of earnest and faithful preachers. . . . John Hus (b. 1369, d. 1415), the central figure of the Bohemian Reformation, took in the year 1394 his degree as Bachelor of Theology in that University of Prague, upon the fortunes of which he was destined to exercise so lasting an influence; and four years later, in 1398, he began to deliver lectures there. . . . He soon signalized himself by his diligence in breaking the bread of life to hungering souls, and his boldness in rebuking vice in high places as in low. So long as he confined himself to reproving the sins of the laity, leaving those of the Clergy and monks unassailed, he found little opposition, nay, rather support and applause from these. But when [1405] he brought them also within the circle of his condemnation, and began to upbraid them for their covetousness, their ambition, their luxury, their sloth, and for other vices, they turned angrily upon him, and sought to undermine his authority, everywhere spreading reports of the unsoundness of his teaching. . . . While matters were in this strained condition, events took place at Prague which are too closely connected with the story that we are telling, exercised too great an influence in bringing about the issues that lie before us, to allow us to pass them by. . . . The University of Prague, though recently founded—it only dated back to the year 1348—was now, next after those of Paris and Oxford, the most illustrious in Europe. . . . This University, like that of Paris, on the pattern of which it had been modelled, was divided into four 'nations'—four groups, that is, or families of scholars—each of these having in academical affairs a single collective vote. These nations were the Bavarian, the Saxon, the Polish, and the Bohemian. This does not appear at first an unfair division—two German and two Slavonic; but in practical working the Polish was so largely recruited from Silesia, and other German or half-German lands, that its vote was in fact German also. The Teutonic votes were thus as three to one, and the Bohemians in their own land and their own University on every important matter hopelessly outvoted. When, by aid of this preponderance, the University was made to condemn the teaching of Wiclif . . . matters came to a crisis. Urged by Hus, who as a stout patriot, and an earnest lover of the Bohemian language and literature, had more than a theological interest in the matter,—by Jerome [of Prague],—by a large number of the Bohemian nobility,—King Wenzel published an edict whereby the relations of natives and foreigners were completely reversed. There should be henceforth three votes for the Bohemian nation, and only one for the three others. Such a shifting of the weights certainly appears as a redressing of one inequality by creating another. At all events it was so earnestly resented by the Germans, by professors and students alike, that they quitted the University in a body, some say of five, and some of thirty thousand, and founded the rival University of Leipsic, leaving no more than two thousand students at Prague. Full of indigna-

tion against Hus, whom they regarded as the prime author of this affront and wrong, they spread throughout all Germany the most unfavourable reports of him and of his teaching. This exodus of the foreigners had left Hus, who was now Rector of the University, with a freer field than before. But Church matters at Prague did not mend; they became more confused and threatening every day; until presently the shameful outrage against all Christian morality which a century later did a still more effectual work, served to put Hus into open opposition to the corrupt hierarchy of his time. Pope John XXIII., having a quarrel with the King of Naples, proclaimed a crusade against him, with what had become a constant accompaniment of this.—Indulgences to match. But to denounce Indulgences, as Hus with fierce and righteous indignation did now, was to wound Rome in her most sensitive part. He was excommunicated at once, and every place which should harbour him stricken with an interdict. While matters were in this frame the Council of Constance [see PAPACY: 1414-1418] was opened, which should appease all the troubles of Christendom, and correct whatever was amiss. The Bohemian difficulty could not be omitted, and Hus was summoned to make answer at Constance for himself. He had not been there four weeks when he was required to appear before the Pope and Cardinals (Nov. 18, 1414). After a brief informal hearing he was committed to harsh durance from which he never issued as a free man again. Sigismund, the German King and Emperor Elect, who had furnished Hus with a safe-conduct which should protect him, 'going to the Council, tarrying at the Council, returning from the Council,' was absent from Constance at the time, and heard with real displeasure how lightly regarded this promise and pledge of his had been. Some big words too he spoke, threatening to come himself and release the prisoner by force; but, being waited on by a deputation from the Council, who represented to him that he, as a layman, in giving such a safe-conduct had exceeded his powers, and intruded into a region which was not his, Sigismund was convinced, or affected to be convinced. . . . More than seven months elapsed before Hus could obtain a hearing before the Council. This was granted to him at last. Thrice heard (June 5, 7, 8, 1415),—if indeed such tumultuary sittings, where the man speaking for his life, and for much more than his life, was continually interrupted and overborne by hostile voices, by loud cries of 'Recant,' 'Recant,' may be reckoned as hearings at all,—he bore himself, by the confession of all, with courage, meekness and dignity." He refused to recant. Some of the articles brought against him, he said, "charged him with teaching things which he had never taught, and he could not, by this formal act of retraction, admit that he had taught them." He was condemned, sentenced to the stake, and burned, on July 6, 1415. His friend, Jerome, of Prague, suffered the same fate in the following May.—R. C. Trench, *Lectures on mediæval church history*, lecture 22.

ALSO IN: E. H. Gillett, *Life and times of John Hus*.—A. H. Wratislaw, *John Hus*.—A. Neander, *General history of Christian religion*, v. 9, pt. 2.

1409.—Represented at Council of Pisa. See PAPACY: 1377-1417.

1419-1434. — Hussite Wars. — Reformation checked.—"The fate of Huss and Jerome created an instant and fierce excitement among the Bohemians. An address, defending them against the charge of heresy and protesting against the injustice and barbarity of the Council, was signed

by 400 or 500 nobles and forwarded to Constance. The only result was that the Council decreed that no safe-conduct could be allowed to protect a heretic, that the University of Prague must be reorganized, and the strongest measures applied to suppress the Hussite doctrines in Bohemia. This was a defiance which the Bohemians courageously accepted. Men of all classes united in proclaiming that the doctrines of Huss should be freely taught, and that no Interdict of the Church should be enforced: the University, and even Wenzel's queen, Sophia, favored this movement, which soon became so powerful that all priests who refused to administer the sacrament 'in both forms' were driven from the churches. . . . When the Council of Constance was dissolved [1418], Sigismund [the Emperor] hastened to Hungary to carry on a new war with the Turks, who were already extending their conquests along the Danube. The Hussites in Bohemia employed this opportunity to organize themselves for resistance; 40,000 of them, in July, 1410, assembled on a mountain to which they gave the name of Tabor, and chose as their leader a nobleman who was surnamed Ziska, 'the one-eyed.' The excitement soon rose to such a pitch that several monasteries were stormed and plundered. King Wenzel arrested some of the ringleaders, but this only inflamed the spirit of the people. They formed a procession in Prague, marched through the city, carrying the sacramental cup at their head, and took forcible possession of several churches. When they halted before the city-hall, to demand the release of their imprisoned brethren, stones were thrown at them from the windows, whereupon they broke into the building and hurled the Burgomaster and six other officials upon the upheld spears of those below. . . . The Hussites were already divided into two parties, one moderate in its demands, called the Calixtines, from the Latin 'calix,' a chalice, which was their symbol [referring to their demand for the administration of the eucharistic cup to the laity, or communion 'sub utraque specie'—whence they were also called 'Utraquists']; the other radical and fanatic, called the 'Taborites,' who proclaimed their separation from the Church of Rome and a new system of brotherly equality through which they expected to establish the Millennium upon earth. The exigencies of their situation obliged these two parties to unite in common defence against the forces of the Church and the Empire, during the sixteen years of war, which followed; but they always remained separated in their religious views, and mutually intolerant. Ziska, who called himself 'John Ziska of the Chalice, commander in the hope of God of the Taborites,' had been a friend and was an ardent follower of Huss. . . . In his genius for military operations, he ranks among the great commanders of the world; his quickness, energy and inventive talent were marvellous, but at the same time he knew neither tolerance nor mercy. . . . Sigismund does not seem to have been aware of the formidable character of the movement, until the end of his war with the Turks, some months afterwards, and he then persuaded the Pope to summon all Christendom to a crusade against Bohemia. During the year 1420 a force of 100,000 soldiers was collected, and Sigismund marched at their head to Prague. The Hussites met him with the demand for the acceptance of the following articles: 1.—The word of God to be freely preached; 2.—The sacrament to be administered in both forms; 3.—The clergy to possess no property or temporal authority; 4.—All sins to be punished by the proper authorities. Sigismund was

ready to accept these articles as the price of their submission, but the Papal Legate forbade the agreement, and war followed. On the 1st of November, 1420, the Crusaders were totally defeated by Ziska, and all Bohemia was soon relieved of their presence. The dispute between the moderates and the radicals broke out again; the idea of a community of property began to prevail among the Taborites, and most of the Bohemian nobles refused to act with them. Ziska left Prague with his troops and for a time devoted himself to the task of suppressing all opposition through the country, with fire and sword. He burned no less than 550 convents and monasteries, slaying the priests and monks who refused to accept the new doctrines. . . . While besieging the town of Raby, an arrow destroyed his remaining eye, yet he continued to plan battles and sieges as before. The very name of the blind warrior became a terror throughout Germany. In September, 1421, a second Crusade of 200,000 men, commanded by five German Electors, entered Bohemia from the west. . . . But the blind Ziska, nothing daunted, led his wagons, his flail-men, and mace-wielders against the Electors, whose troops began to fly before them. No battle was fought; the 200,000 Crusaders were scattered in all directions, and lost heavily during their retreat. Then Ziska wheeled about and marched against Sigismund, who was late in making his appearance. The two armies met on the 8th of January, 1422 [at Deutschbrod], and the Hussite victory was so complete that the Emperor narrowly escaped falling into their hands. . . . A third Crusade was arranged and Frederick of Brandenburg (the Hohenzollern) selected to command it, but the plan failed from lack of support. The dissensions among the Hussites became fiercer than ever; Ziska was at one time on the point of attacking Prague, but the leaders of the moderate party succeeded in coming to an understanding with him, and he entered the city in triumph. In October, 1424, while marching against Duke Albert of Austria, who had invaded Moravia, he fell a victim to the plague. . . . A majority of the Taborites elected a priest, called Procopius the Great, as their commander in Ziska's stead; the others who thenceforth styled themselves 'Orphans,' united under another priest, Procopius the Little. The approach of another Imperial army, in 1426, compelled them to forget their differences, and the result was a splendid victory over their enemies. Procopius the Great then invaded Austria and Silesia, which he laid waste without mercy. The Pope called a fourth Crusade, which met the same fate as the former ones: the united armies of the Archbishop of Treves, the Elector Frederick of Brandenburg and the Duke of Saxony, 200,000 strong, were utterly defeated, and fled in disorder, leaving an enormous quantity of stores and munitions of war in the hands of the Bohemians. Procopius, who was almost the equal of Ziska as a military leader, made several unsuccessful attempts to unite the Hussites in one religious body. In order to prevent their dissensions from becoming dangerous to the common cause, he kept the soldiers of all sects under his command, and undertook fierce invasions into Bavaria, Saxony and Brandenburg, which made the Hussite name a terror to all Germany. During these expeditions one hundred towns were destroyed, more than 1,500 villages burned, tens of thousands of the inhabitants slain, and such quantities of plunder collected that it was impossible to transport the whole of it to Bohemia. Frederick of Brandenburg and several other princes were compelled to pay heavy tributes to the Hussites: the Empire was thor-

oughly humiliated, the people weary of slaughter, yet the Pope refused even to call a Council for the discussion of the difficulty. . . . The German princes made a last and desperate effort: an army of 130,000 men, 40,000 of whom were cavalry, was brought together, under the command of Frederick of Brandenburg, while Albert of Austria was to support it by invading Bohemia from the south. Procopius and his dauntless Hussites met the Crusaders on the 14th of August, 1431, at a place called Thauss, and won another of their marvellous victories. The Imperial army was literally cut to pieces, 8,000 wagons, filled with provisions and munitions of war, and 150 cannons, were left upon the field. The Hussites marched northward to the Baltic, and eastward into Hungary, burning, slaying, and plundering as they went. Even the Pope now yielded, and the Hussites were invited to attend the Council at Basel, with the most solemn stipulations in regard to personal safety and a fair discussion of their demands. . . . In 1433, finally 300 Hussites, headed by Procopius, appeared in Basel. They demanded nothing more than the acceptance of the four articles upon which they had united in 1420; but after seven weeks of talk, during which the Council agreed upon nothing and promised nothing, they marched away, after stating that any further negotiation must be carried on in Prague. This course compelled the Council to act; an embassy was appointed, which proceeded to Prague, and on the 30th of November, the same year, concluded a treaty with the Hussites. The four demands were granted, but each with a condition attached which gave the Church a chance to regain its lost power. For this reason, the Taborites and 'Orphans' refused to accept the compact; the moderate party united with the nobles and undertook to suppress the former by force. A fierce internal war followed, but it was of short duration. In 1434, the Taborites were defeated [at Lipan, May 30], their fortified mountain taken, Procopius the Great and the Little were both slain, and the members of the sect dispersed. The Bohemian Reformation was never again dangerous to the Church of Rome."—B. Taylor, *History of Germany*, ch. 22.—See also TABORITES.

ALSO IN: C. A. Peschek, *Reformation and anti-reformation in Bohemia, introductory ch.*—E. H. Gillett, *Life and times of John Hus*, v. 2, ch. 13-18.—E. de Schweinitz, *History of the church known as the Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 6.

1425.—In Hungarian dominions. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1434-1457.—Organization of the Utraquist national church.—Minority of Ladislaus Posthumus.—Regency of George Podiebrad.—Origin of the Unitas Fratrum.—"The battle of Lipan was a turning point in the history of the Hussites. It put Bohemia and Moravia into the hands of the Utraquists, and enabled them to carry out their plans unhindered. The man who was foremost in shaping events and who became more and more prominent, until he exercised a commanding influence, was John of Rokycana. . . . At the diet of 1435 he was unanimously elected archbishop. . . . Meantime Sigismund endeavored to regain his kingdom. The Diet made demands which were stringent and humiliating; but he pledged himself to fulfill them, and on the 5th of July, 1436, at a meeting held with great pomp and solemnity, in the market-place of Iglau, was formally acknowledged as King of Bohemia. On the same occasion, the Compactata were anew ratified and the Bohemians readmitted to the fellowship of the mother church. But scarcely had Sigismund reached his capital

when he began so serious a reaction in favor of Rome that Rokycana secretly left the city and retired to a castle near Pardubie (1437). The king's treachery was, however, cut short by the hand of death, on the 6th of December, of the same year, at Znaim, while on his way to Hungary; and his successor and son-in-law, Albert of Austria, followed him to the grave in 1439, in the midst of a campaign against the Turks. Bohemia was left without a ruler, for Albert had no children except a posthumous son [Ladislaus Posthumus. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442, and 1442-1458]. A time of anarchy began and various leagues arose, the most powerful of which stood under Baron Ptacek. . . . He. . . called an ecclesiastical convention at Kuttenberg (October 4th). This convention brought about far-reaching results. . . . Rokycana was acknowledged as Archbishop elect, the supreme direction of ecclesiastical affairs was committed into his hands, the priests promised him obedience, and 24 doctrinal and constitutional articles were adopted which laid the foundation of the Utraquist Church as the National Church of Bohemia. But the Taborites stood aloof. . . . At last a disputation was agreed upon," as the result of which the Taborites were condemned by the Diet. "They lost all prestige; their towns, with the exception of Tabor, passed out of their hands; their membership was scattered and a large part of it joined the National Church. In the following summer Ptacek died and George Podiebrad succeeded him as the head of the league. Although a young man of only 24 years, he displayed the sagacity of an experienced statesman and was distinguished by the virtues of a patriot. In 1448 a bold stroke made him master of Prague and constituted him practically Regent of all Bohemia; four years later his regency was formally acknowledged. He was a warm friend of Rokycana, whose consecration he endeavored to bring about." When it was found that Rome could not be reconciled, there were thoughts of cutting loose altogether from the Roman Catholic and uniting with the Greek church. "Negotiations were actually begun in 1452, but came to an abrupt close in the following year, in consequence of the fall of Constantinople. About the same time Ladislaus Posthumus, Albert's son, assumed the crown, Podiebrad remaining Regent. The latter continued the friend of Rokycana; the former, who was a Catholic, conceived a strong dislike to him. As soon as Rokycana had given up the hope of conciliating Rome, he began to preach, with great power and eloquence, against its corruptions." It was at this time that a movement arose among certain of his followers which resulted in the formation of the remarkable religious body which called itself Unitas Fratrum. The leading spirit in this movement was Rokycana's nephew, commonly called Gregory the Patriarch. The teaching and influence which shaped it was that of Peter Chelcicky. Gregory and his companions, wishing to dwell together, in the Christian unity of which they had formed an ideal in their minds, found a retreat at the secluded village of Kunwald, on the estate of George Podiebrad. "The name which they chose was 'Brethren of the Law of Christ'—'Fratres Legis Christi'; inasmuch, however, as this name gave rise to the idea that they were a new order of Monks, they changed it simply into 'Brethren.' When the organization of their Church had been completed, they assumed the additional title of 'Jednota Bratrska,' or Unitas Fratrum, that is, the Unity of the Brethren, which has remained the official and significant appellation of the Church to the present day. . . . It was often abbreviated

into 'The Unity.' Another name by which the Church called itself was 'The Bohemian Brethren.' It related to all the Brethren, whether they belonged to Bohemia, Moravia, Prussia or Poland. To call them The Bohemian-Moravian Brethren, or the Moravian Brethren, is historically incorrect. The name Moravian arose in the time of the Renewed Brethren's Church, because the men by whom it was renewed came from Moravia. . . . The organization of the *Unitas Fratrum* took place in the year 1457."—E. De Schweinitz, *History of the church known as Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 10-12.—See also AUSTRIA: 1438-1493.

1458-1471.—Accession of George Podiebrad to the throne.—His deposition and papal excommunication.—A crusade.—War with the emperor and Matthias of Hungary.—Death of Podiebrad and election of Ladislaus of Poland.—"George Podiebrad had scarcely ascended the throne [see HUNGARY: 1442-1458] before the Catholics, at the instigation of the pope, required him to fulfil his coronation oath, by expelling all heretics from the kingdom. He complied with their request, banished the Taborites, Picards, Adamites, and all other religious sects who did not profess the Catholic doctrines, and issued a decree that all his subjects should become members of the Catholic church, as communicants under one or both kinds. The Catholics, however, were not satisfied; considering the Calixtins as heretics, they entreated him to annul the compacts, or to obtain a new ratification of them from the new pope. To gratify their wishes he sent an embassy to Rome, requesting a confirmation of the compacts; but Pius, under the pretence that the compacts gave occasion to heresy, refused his ratification, and sent Fantino della Valle, as legate, to Prague, for the purpose of persuading the king to prohibit the administration of the communion under both kinds. In consequence of this legation the king called a diet, at which the legate and the bishops of Olmutz and Breslau were present. The ill success of the embassy to Rome having been announced, he said, 'I am astonished, and cannot divine the intentions of the pope. The compacts were the only means of terminating the dreadful commotions in Bohemia, and if they are annulled, the kingdom will again relapse into the former disorders. The council of Basle, which was composed of the most learned men in Europe, approved and granted them to the Bohemians, and pope Eugenius confirmed them. They contain no heresy, and are in all respects conformable to the doctrines of the holy church. I and my wife have followed them from our childhood, and I am determined to maintain them till my death.' . . . Fantino replying in a long and virulent invective, the king ordered him to quit the assembly, and imprisoned him in the castle of Podiebrad, allowing him no other sustenance except bread and water. The pope, irritated by this insult, annulled the compacts, in 1463, and fulminated a sentence of excommunication against the king, unless he appeared at Rome within a certain time to justify his conduct. This bull occasioned a great ferment among the Catholics; Podiebrad was induced to liberate the legate, and made an apology to the offended pontiff; while Frederic, grateful for the assistance which he had recently received from the king of Bohemia, when besieged by his brother Albert, interposed his mediation with the pope, and procured the suspension of the sentence of excommunication. Pius dying on the 14th of August, 1464, the new pope, Paul II., persecuted the king of Bohemia with increasing acrimony. He sent his legate to Breslau to excite commotions among the Catholics, en-

deavoured without effect to gain Casimir, king of Poland, by the offer of the Bohemian crown, and applied with the same ill success to the states of Germany. He at length overcame the gratitude of the emperor by threats and promises, and at the diet of Nuremberg in 1467, the proposal of his legate Fantino, to form a crusade against the heretic king of Bohemia, was supported by the imperial ambassadors. Although this proposal was rejected by the diet, the pope published a sentence of deposition against Podiebrad, and his emissaries were allowed to preach the crusade throughout Germany, and in every part of the Austrian territories. The conduct of Frederic drew from the king of Bohemia, in 1468, a violent invective against his ingratitude, and a formal declaration of war; he followed this declaration by an irruption into Austria, spreading devastation as far as



GEORGE PODIEBRAD
King of Bohemia

the Danube. Frederic in vain applied to the princes of the empire for assistance: and at length excited Matthias king of Hungary against his father-in-law, by offering to invest him with the kingdom of Bohemia. Matthias, forgetting his obligations to Podiebrad, to whom he owed his life and crown, was dazzled by the offer, and being assisted by bodies of German marauders, who had assumed the cross, invaded Bohemia. At the same time the intrigues of the pope exciting the Catholics to insurrection, the country again became a prey to the dreadful evils of a civil and religious war. The vigour and activity of George Podiebrad suppressed the internal commotions, and repelled the invasion of the Hungarians; an armistice was concluded, and the two kings, on the 4th of April, 1469, held an amicable conference at Sternberg, in Moravia, where they entered into a treaty of peace. But Matthias, influenced by the perfidious maxim, that no compact should be kept with heretics, was persuaded by the papal legate to resume hostilities. After overrunning Moravia and Silesia, he held a mock diet at Olmutz with some of the Catholic party, where he was chosen king of Bohemia, and solemnly crowned by the legate. . . . Podiebrad, in order to baffle the de-

signs both of the emperor and Matthias, summoned a diet at Prague, and proposed to the states, as his successor, Ladislaus, eldest son of Casimir, king of Poland, by Elizabeth, second daughter of the emperor Albert. The proposal was warmly approved by the nation, . . . as the Catholics were desirous of living under a prince of their own communion, and the Calixtines anxious to prevent the accession of Frederic or Matthias, both of whom were hostile to their doctrines. The states accordingly assented without hesitation, and Ladislaus was unanimously nominated successor to the throne. The indignation of Matthias was inflamed by his disappointment, and hostilities were continued with increasing fury. The two armies, conducted by their respective sovereigns, the ablest generals of the age, for some time kept each other in check; till at length both parties, wearied by the devastation of their respective countries, concluded a kind of armistice, on the 22nd of July, 1470, which put a period to hostilities. On the death of Podiebrad, in the ensuing year, Frederic again presenting himself as a candidate, was supported by still fewer adherents than on the former occasion; a more numerous party espoused the interests of Matthias; but the majority declaring for Ladislaus, he was re-elected, and proclaimed king. Frederic supported Ladislaus in preference to Matthias, and by fomenting the troubles in Hungary, as well as by his intrigues with the king of Poland, endeavoured not only to disappoint Matthias of the throne of Bohemia, but even to drive him from that of Hungary."—W. Coxe, *History of the house of Austria*, v. 1, ch. 18.

1471-1490.—War with Matthias of Hungary.—Surrender of Moravia and Silesia.—Election of King Ladislaus to the throne of Hungary.—See also AUSTRIA: 1437-1516; HUNGARY: 1471-1487.

1516-1576.—Accession of the house of Austria.—Reformation and its strength.—Alternating toleration and persecution.—In 1489 Vladislav "was elected to the throne of Hungary after the death of Mathias Corvinus. He died in 1516, and was succeeded on the throne of Bohemia and Hungary by his minor son, Louis, who perished in 1526 at the battle of Mohacz against the Turks [see HUNGARY: 1487-1526]. An equality of rights was maintained between the Hussites and the Roman Catholics during these two reigns. Louis left no children, and was succeeded on the throne of Hungary and Bohemia by Ferdinand of Austria [see also AUSTRIA: 1496-1526], brother of the Emperor Charles V., and married to the sister of Louis, a prince of a bigoted and despotic character. The doctrines of Luther had already found a speedy echo amongst the Calixtines under the preceding reign; and Protestantism gained so much ground under that of Ferdinand, that the Bohemians refused to take part in the war against the Protestant league of Smalkalden, and formed a union for the defence of the national and religious liberties, which were menaced by Ferdinand. The defeat of the Protestants at the battle of Muhlberg in 1547, by Charles V., which laid prostrate their cause in Germany, produced a severe reaction in Bohemia. Several leaders of the union were executed, others imprisoned or banished; the property of many nobles was confiscated, the towns were heavily fined, deprived of several privileges, and subjected to new taxes. These measures were carried into execution with the assistance of German, Spanish, and Hungarian soldiers, and legalized by an assembly known under the name of the Bloody Diet. . . . The Jesuits were also introduced during that reign into Bohemia. The privileges of the Calixtine, or, as it was officially called, the

Utraquist Church, were not abolished; and Ferdinand, who had succeeded to the imperial crown after the abdication of his brother Charles V., softened, during the latter years of his reign, his harsh and despotic character. . . . He died in 1564, sincerely regretting, it is said, the acts of oppression which he had committed against his Bohemian subjects. He was succeeded by his son, the Emperor Maximilian II., a man of noble character and tolerant disposition, which led to the belief that he himself inclined towards the doctrines of the Reformation. He died in 1576, leaving a name venerated by all parties. . . . Maximilian's son, the Emperor Rudolph, was educated at the court of his cousin, Philip II. of Spain, and could not be but adverse to Protestantism, which had, however, become too strong, not only in Bohemia, but also in Austria proper, to be easily suppressed; but several indirect means were adopted, in order gradually to effect this object."—V. Krasinski, *Lectures on the religious history of the Slavonic nations*, lecture 2.—See also AUSTRIA: Introduction; and Map showing Hapsburg possessions; HUNGARY: 1567-1604.—In spite of the energies expended by the Hapsburg monarchs to crush the Reformation in Bohemia, and the ultimate loss of Bohemian independence, Protestantism grew steadily from the time of Ferdinand I to Rudolf. During this period Prague reached a high state of culture and the university became one of the greatest seats of learning in the Empire. Rudolf made the Bohemian capital his favorite place of residence and the center of his vast dominions. He contributed extensively to its embellishment, and the decades following his reign saw the golden age of Czech literature.

1611-1618.—Letter of Majesty, or royal charter, and Matthias's violation of it.—Ferdinand of Styria forced upon the nation as king by hereditary right.—Throwing of the royal counsellors from the window.—Beginning of the Thirty Years' War.—In 1611, the emperor Rodolph was forced to surrender the crown of Bohemia to his brother Matthias. The next year he died, and Matthias succeeded him as emperor also. "The tranquillity which Rodolph II.'s Letter of Majesty [see GERMANY: 1608-1618] had established in Bohemia lasted for some time, under the administration of Matthias, till the nomination of a new heir to this kingdom in the person of Ferdinand of Gratz [Styria]. This prince, whom we shall afterwards become better acquainted with under the title of Ferdinand II., Emperor of Germany, . . . was . . . looked upon by the Roman Catholic part of Bohemia as the future pillar of their church. The declining health of the Emperor brought on this hour rapidly; and, relying on so powerful a supporter, the Bohemian Papists began to treat the Protestants with little moderation. The Protestant vassals of Roman Catholic nobles, in particular, experienced the harshest treatment. At length several of the former were incautious enough to speak somewhat loudly of their hopes, and by threatening hints to awaken among the Protestants a suspicion of their future sovereign. But this mistrust would never have broken out into actual violence, had the Roman Catholics confined themselves to general expressions, and not by attacks on individuals furnished the discontent of the people with enterprising leaders. Henry Matthias, Count Thurn, not a native of Bohemia, but proprietor of some estates in that kingdom, had, by his zeal for the Protestant cause, and an enthusiastic attachment to his newly adopted country, gained the entire confidence of the Utraquists, which opened him the way to the most important

posts. . . He had already taken an active part in the troubles under Rodolph's administration; and the Letter of Majesty which the States had extorted from that Emperor, was chiefly to be laid to his merit. The court had intrusted to him, as burgrave or castellan of Calstein, the custody of the Bohemian crown, and of the national charter. But the nation had placed in his hands something far more important—itself—with the office of defender or protector of the faith. The aristocracy by which the Emperor was ruled, imprudently deprived him of this harmless guardianship of the dead, to leave him his full influence over the living. They took from him his office of burgrave, or constable of the castle, which had rendered him dependent on the court, thereby opening his eyes to the importance of the other which remained, and wounded his vanity, which yet was the thing that made his ambition harmless. From this moment he was actuated solely by a desire of revenge; and the opportunity of gratifying it was not long wanting. In the Royal Letter which the Bohemians had extorted from Rodolph II., as well as in the German religious treaty, one material article remained undetermined. All the privileges granted by the latter to the Protestants, were conceived in favour of the Estates or governing bodies, not of the subjects; for only to those of ecclesiastical states had a toleration, and that precarious, been conceded. The Bohemian Letter of Majesty, in the same manner, spoke only of the Estates and the imperial towns, the magistrates of which had contrived to obtain equal privileges with the former. These alone were free to erect churches and schools, and openly to celebrate their Protestant worship: in all other towns, it was left entirely to the government to which they belonged, to determine the religion of the inhabitants. The Estates of the Empire had availed themselves of this privilege in its fullest extent; the secular indeed without opposition; while the ecclesiastical, in whose case the declaration of Ferdinand had limited this privilege, disputed, not without reason, the validity of that limitation. What was a disputed point in the religious treaty, was left still more doubtful in the Letter of Majesty. . . . In the little town of Klostergrab, subject to the Archbishop of Prague; and in Braunau, which belonged to the abbot of that monastery, churches were founded by the Protestants, and completed notwithstanding the opposition of their superiors, and the disapprobation of the Emperor. . . . By the Emperor's orders, the church at Klostergrab was pulled down; that at Braunau forcibly shut up, and the most turbulent of the citizens thrown into prison. A general commotion among the Protestants was the consequence of this measure; a loud outcry was everywhere raised at this violation of the Letter of Majesty; and Count Thurn, animated by revenge, and particularly called upon by his office of defender, showed himself not a little busy in inflaming the minds of the people. At his instigation deputies were summoned to Prague from every circle in the empire, to concert the necessary measures against the common danger. It was resolved to petition the Emperor to press for the liberation of the prisoners. The answer of the Emperor, already offensive to the states, from its being addressed, not to them, but to his viceroy, denounced their conduct as illegal and rebellious, justified what had been done at Klostergrab and Braunau as the result of an imperial mandate, and contained some passages that might be construed into threats. Count Thurn did not fail to augment the unfavourable impression which this imperial edict made upon the assem-

bled Estates. . . . He held it . . . advisable first to direct their indignation against the Emperor's counsellors; and for that purpose circulated a report, that the imperial proclamation had been drawn up by the government at Prague and only signed in Vienna. Among the imperial delegates, the chief objects of the popular hatred, were the President of the Chamber, Slawata, and Baron Martinitz, who had been elected in place of Count Thurn, Burgrave of Calstein. . . . Against two characters so unpopular the public indignation was easily excited, and they were marked out for a sacrifice to the general indignation. On the 23rd of May, 1618, the deputies appeared armed, and in great numbers, at the royal palace, and forced their way into the hall where the Commissioners Sternberg, Martinitz, Lobkowitz, and Slawata were assembled. In a threatening tone they demanded to know from each of them, whether he had taken any part, or had consented to, the imperial proclamation. Sternberg received them with composure, Martinitz and Slawata with defiance. This decided their fate; Sternberg and Lobkowitz, less hated, and more feared, were led by the arm out of the room; Martinitz and Slawata were seized, dragged to a window, and precipitated from a height of 80 feet, into the castle trench. Their creature, the secretary Fabricius, was thrown after them. This singular mode of execution naturally excited the surprise of civilized nations. The Bohemians justified it as a national custom, and saw nothing remarkable in the whole affair, excepting that any one should have got up again safe and sound after such a fall. A dunghill, on which the imperial commissioners chanced to be deposited, had saved them from injury. [The incident of the flinging of the obnoxious ministers from the window is often referred to as 'the defenestration at Prague.'] . . . By this brutal act of self-redress, no room was left for irresolution or repentance. . . . As the deed itself could not be undone, nothing was left but to disarm the hand of punishment. Thirty directors were appointed to organize a regular insurrection. They seized upon all the offices of state, and all the imperial revenues, took into their own service the royal functionaries and the soldiers, and summoned the whole Bohemian nation to avenge the common cause."—F. Schiller, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, bk. 1, pp. 51-55.

ALSO IN: S. R. Gardiner, *Thirty Years' War*, ch. 2.—A. Gindely, *History of the Thirty Years' War*, ch. 1.—F. Kohlrausch, *History of Germany*, ch. 22.

1618-1620.—Rebellion.—Deposition of the newly elected emperor Ferdinand in Bohemia.—Coronation of Frederick, the palatine elector.—Suppression of the revolt.—Annulling of the royal charter.—During the insurrection the Bohemians deposed the newly elected emperor Ferdinand from the kingship of their country and elected to the throne of Bohemia Frederick, the palatine elector. By the help of the duke of Bavaria, Ferdinand forced the Bohemians into submission. Abandoned by the Evangelical Union, on whose support they relied, Frederick was defeated in the battle of the White Mountain before Prague, and fled. The leaders of the rebellion were executed, and the royal charter of Bohemia declared forfeited.—See also GERMANY: 1618-1620; 1620; and HUNGARY: 1606-1660.

1621-1623.—Revenge of Ferdinand.—Union with Baden and Brunswick against Austria. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1621-1648.—Reign of terror.—Death, banishment, confiscation, dragoonades.—Country a desert.—Protestantism crushed, but not slain.—"In June, 1621, a fearful reign of terror began

in Bohemia, with the execution of 27 of the most distinguished heretics. For years the unhappy people bled under it; thousands were banished, and yet Protestantism was not fully exterminated. The charter was cut into shreds by the Emperor himself; there could be no forbearance towards 'such acknowledged rebels.' As a matter of course, the Lutheran preaching was forbidden under the heaviest penalties; heretical works, Bibles especially, were taken away in heaps. Jesuit colleges, churches, and schools came into power; but this was not all. A large number of distinguished Protestant families were deprived of their property, and, as if that were not enough, it was decreed that no non-Catholic could be a citizen, nor carry on a trade, enter into a marriage, nor make a will; any one who harboured a Protestant preacher forfeited his property; whoever permitted Protestant instruction to be given was to be fined, and whipped out of town; the Protestant poor who were not converted were to be driven out of the hospitals, and to be replaced by Catholic poor; he who gave free expression to his opinions about religion was to be executed. In 1624 an order was issued to all preachers and teachers to leave the country within eight days under pain of death; and finally, it was ordained that whoever had not become Catholic by Easter, 1626, must emigrate. . . . But the real conversions were few; thousands quietly remained true to the faith; other thousands wandered as beggars into foreign lands, more than 30,000 Bohemian families, and among them 500 belonging to the aristocracy, went into banishment. Exiled Bohemians were to be found in every country of Europe, and were not wanting in any of the armies that fought against Austria. Those who could not or would not emigrate, held to their faith in secret. Against them dragoonades were employed. Detachments of soldiers were sent into the various districts to torment the heretics till they were converted. The 'Converters' (Seligmacher) went thus throughout all Bohemia, plundering and murdering. . . . No succour reached the unfortunate people; but neither did the victors attain their end. Protestantism and the Hussite memories could not be slain, and only outward submission was extorted. . . . A respectable Protestant party exists to this day in Bohemia and Moravia. But a desert was created; the land was crushed for a generation. Before the war Bohemia had 4,000,000 inhabitants, and in 1648 there were but 700,000 or 800,000. These figures appear preposterous, but they are certified by Bohemian historians. In some parts of the country the population has not attained the standard of 1620 to this day."—L. Häusser, *Period of the Reformation*, ch. 32.

ALSO IN: C. A. Peschek, *Reformation and Anti-Reformation in Bohemia*, v. 2.—E. de Schweinitz, *History of the church known as the Unitas Fratrum*, ch. 47-51.

1627-1629.—Thirty Years' War.—Campaign of Wallenstein. See GERMANY: 1627-1629.

1631-1757.—Temporary occupation by the Saxons and siege of Prague in the Thirty Years' War.—Brief conquest by the French.—Prussian invasion and defeat in the Seven Years' War.—During the Thirty Years' War Bohemia became temporarily occupied by the Saxons (see GERMANY: 1631-1632), and in the last campaign of the war Prague was unsuccessfully besieged by the Swedes. (See GERMANY: 1640-1645; 1646-1648.) In 1741, Bohemia was again occupied by the French, assisted by the Bavarians and Saxons. (See AUSTRIA: 1741: August-November; October.) They were, however, expelled by the

Austrians, and Maria Theresa was crowned at Prague, in 1742 (see AUSTRIA: 1742: June-December). The invasions of the Prussians in 1742 (see AUSTRIA: 1743-1744), and during the Seven Years' War in 1757 resulted in their defeat. [See GERMANY: 1757 (April-June).] During the reigns of Maria Theresa and Joseph II the process of Germanization was vigorously carried on. In 1749 Bohemian law courts were abolished and an Austrian chancellor was appointed to control the administration of Bohemia. The burgrave of Prague, the chief representative of that city, was ordered to accept his instructions from Vienna. Joseph II refused to be crowned at Prague, limited the jurisdiction of the diet and introduced German into the upper schools. The struggle of the Bohemians and Germans over the language question was a factor of great importance in Bohemian and Austrian history. (See AUSTRIA: 1893-1900, and below, 1848-1897.)

1780-1848.—Unrest under Joseph II.—Partial relief given by Leopold.—Growth of nationalistic sentiment after the Napoleonic wars.—Between 1780 and 1790, Joseph II, son and successor of Maria Theresa, brought into effect various centralizing and ostensibly reforming measures which stirred the Bohemians to a state of rebellious unrest (see HUNGARY: 1780-1790). Though religious toleration was granted, the introduction of German into the higher schools of Bohemia aroused much Czech opposition. In 1790, Leopold, Joseph's successor, suspended some of the reforming edicts and relieved the Hapsburg pressure on Bohemia. During the Napoleonic wars, little occurred to stimulate Bohemian nationalism, but after the Congress of Vienna, in 1815, the prospect of continued European peace revived Bohemian aspirations, the revival taking at first a literary form.—See also GERMANY: Map after the Congress of Vienna.

1812.—Extent of dominions in Europe. See EUROPE: Modern: Map of central Europe in 1812.

1814.—In war against Napoleon. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

1848-1897.—Demands for recognition of the Czech language.—Insurrection.—Austrian language decrees.—In 1848, influenced by the February revolution in Paris, the Bohemians increased their attempts to have the Czech language recognized by Vienna as equal to German (see AUSTRIA: 1848-1849). A Pan-Slavic congress met in Prague in June, 1848, but accomplished little. As it was closing, street riots broke out against General Windischgrätz, Austrian commander of the troops at Prague; he bombarded the city and the revolutionary movement was crushed. By the end of the following year reaction had a firm hold on Bohemia and the rest of the Hapsburg territory. In 1860 a diet with limited powers was promised, but in the next few years the central government at Vienna greatly extended its own powers. The Austro-Prussian War, in 1866, diminished German influence in Bohemia. During the Austrian premiership of Count Eduard Taaffe (1870-1893), the Czechs were given greater consideration in the Austrian empire; the Bohemians made several political and educational gains. In 1897, Austria attempted to solve the language question by a compromise. Its language decrees were to divide the country into three districts, one with German, the other with Czech, and the third with both tongues as the official language. This measure, however, failed because of the opposition of the Germans in the empire. For the language decrees of Count Badeni, Austrian premier, and the situation of Bohemia in

the Austro-Hungarian empire, see also AUSTRIA: 1893-1900.

20th century.—Status of education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Bohemia.

1909.—Another attempt to regulate language question. See AUSTRIA: 1909.

1914-1915.—Attitude toward World War. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1914-1915.

1914-1918.—Political conditions during the World War. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: 1914-1918.

1918-1920.—Declaration of independence.—Part of Czecho-Slovakia.—With the declaration of independence, issued by the Bohemian National Council on October 18, 1918, Bohemia became part of the new Czecho-Slovak state. See CZECHO-SLOVAKIA: Territory; 1914-1918 to 1920; AUSTRIA: 1919: Austrian settlement; TRIANON, TREATY OF (1920).

Coöperative movement. See COÖPERATION: Czecho-Slovakia.

ALSO IN: Count Lützow, *Bohemia; an historical sketch*.—W. S. Monroe, *Bohemia and the Czechs*.—V. Nosek, *Independent Bohemia*.

BOHEMIAN BRETHREN, a religious sect in Bohemia, a branch of the Hussites. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457; GERMANY: 1620; MORAVIAN OR BOHEMIAN BRETHREN: Saxony and America.

BOHEMIAN LANGUAGE QUESTION: Decrees of Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1893-1900; 1909.

BOHEMIAN LITERATURE:—Its significance.—Literary decadence under Hapsburg rule.—Literary revival in the modern period.—Dobrovsky, Jungmann, Kollár, Safarik, Palacky.—General characteristics.—“In the matter of literature, Bohemia occupies a place of distinction and priority. The development of the vulgar tongue took place at a comparatively early period. Some of the most ancient of the poetic documents date back to very early times. Indeed, the prose literature of Bohemia, after the Greek and Latin, is one of the oldest in Europe. The three centuries from the time of Charles IV. to the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War cover the early brilliant period in literature. Two centuries of intellectual barrenness followed the fatal battle of the White Mountain and the usurpation of the Bohemian Crown by the House of Hapsburg. . . . Not only was there a complete arrest in the remarkable literary movement that intervened between the Middle Ages and the beginning of the Thirty Years' War, but most of the literary treasures of the previous centuries were destroyed by the royal edicts of the reactionary Hapsburg rulers. . . . Many works were carried by the Bohemian exiles to Saxony, Slavakland, and other countries, and preserved; and these, together with others that escaped the fury of pillaging soldiers during the Thirty Years' War, constitute the fragments out of which the literary history before the seventeenth century must be constructed. . . . The modern Bohemian literary movement dates back only one hundred years. Joseph Dobrovsky (1753-1829), the patriarch of Slavic philology, initiated the literary movement at the beginning of the nineteenth century. The few other Bohemian scholars of the day—Jungmann, Palacky, Kollár, Safarik, and the incomparable publicist Charles Havlicek—lent their services to the rehabilitation of a national language that was long supposed to be dead. The letters of Jungmann give us our most intimate accounts of the struggles of himself and his co-patriots during the early day of the modern Bohemian literary renaissance.”—T. Capek, *Bohemia under Hapsburg misrule*, pp. 153-156.—“Jan Kollár

(1793-1852), a scholar and poet, was the first to seek to inculcate in the Slavs the sentiment of Pan-Slavism. He compared the Slavonic culture to dawn; the German culture, to day; the English, to midday; the French, to afternoon; and the Spanish, to night. His collection of poems ‘Daughter of the Slavs’ (Slávy Dcera) inspired the Slavonic race with great hope and confidence. It is regarded as the gospel of Pan-Slavism. Another Slovak who played a great rôle in the revival of Bohemia was Paul Josef Safarik (1795-1861), author of ‘Slavic Antiquities’ (*Starozitnosti Slovanské*), Slavic Ethnography (*Slovansky Národopis*), and numerous philological works. The third member of the triumvirate of the Bohemian renaissance is Frantisek Palacky (1798-1876), author of ‘History of the Bohemian people’ (*Dejiny Narodu Ceskeho*), a work based on wide research into original sources. He is the greatest of the Bohemian historians, and the Czechs call him ‘Otec Naroda’ (Father of the people).”—*Geographical Review*, July, 1919, p. 34.—“During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries the Austrian Government had penalized the publication of books in the Bohemian language and the teaching of the vernacular in the schools of the kingdom. But in spite of prohibitions of the Hapsburg rulers, the vernacular continued to be spoken in country districts. This fact facilitated the extraordinary progress made in the fields of poetry, drama, fiction, criticism, and historical works during the last fourscore years. The satirical writings of Jan Neruda, the historical dramas of Alois Jirásek, the rich lyrical poetry of Jaroslav Vrchlicky (Frida), the bold imaginative compositions of Julius Zeyer, the modernist poetry of J. S. Machar, the great national epics of Svatopluk Cech, the historical works of Francis Palacky, and the political and sociological writings of Thomas G. Masaryk have made notable contributions to the literary history of modern Bohemia. . . . From the humble beginnings in the first part of the nineteenth century Bohemian literature has developed in a remarkable manner, borrowing what is best in all literatures, and to a considerable extent falling under the influence of the great-Russian writers. It is eminently cosmopolitan in compass and subject-matter, but at the same time has preserved many national characteristics. . . . Its poetry is especially attractive and varied, and the poets have reveled in the discussion of those social problems which elsewhere have been relegated to the field of prose.”—T. Capek, *Bohemia under Hapsburg misrule*, pp. 156-174.

Rôle in Slavic philology.—Dobrovsky.—“Bohemia is the keystone in the Slavic arch. Without it the proto-history of the Eastern nations in Europe has no meaning and no coherency. Unfortunately even the most profound scholars have as yet overlooked the important rôle which Bohemia has played in forwarding that Carolingian civilization which the Visigoths, expelled by the Arabs from Spain and settled by Charlemagne in southern and central France, caused to radiate to the whole Germanic world and, through Bavaria, grafted on the neighboring Cechs. It is well known that the first Christian activity in Bohemia proceeded from German missionaries, but it is only a recent discovery [relating to] . . . the origin of the so-called Gothic Bible which has revealed to me the extraordinary extent of the Visigothic literary and cultural influences upon the Bavarians and the Cechs. In the light of this discovery, which I am now subjecting to a close scrutiny, it appears that a tremendous proportion of the Slavic vocabularies, from Russia to Dalmatia, from Po-

land to Bulgaria, has been borrowed from the religious works of the Bohemians, of the early period, now entirely lost to science. Bohemia was the intellectual mistress of what may be called the proto-Slavic world. Without Bohemia, the greater part of the Slavic vocabularies remains irreducible as regards origins and distribution. . . . Again it was a Bohemian who, at the end of the eighteenth and in the beginning of the nineteenth century, became the founder of Slavic philology and the new Slavic literary movements throughout Europe. Jagić begins his stupendous "Encyclopedia of Slavic philology" with a definition of Slavic philology, after which he says: 'Only at the end of the eighteenth century did the whole volume of Slavic philology, as an independent science, assume shape. The chief desert [credit] in this matter belongs to Joseph Dobrovský. He laid the foundation for a scientific grammar of the Slavic languages, centering it on its most ancient type, the Church-Slavic. He was the first to attempt a determination of the degree of relationship between the separate Slavic dialects by means of a scientific classification. It was he who introduced into the circle of scientific interests the questions from the literary and cultural history of the Slavs, for example, the question of the educational activity of Cyril and Methodius, and finally also from social history, such as archeological and ethnographical questions. . . . The critical spirit of Dobrovský with his broad views has created Slavic philology. He is the father of this science.'—T. Chapck, *Bohemia under Hapsburg misrule*, pp. 161-167.—See also PAN-SLAVISM.

BOHEMIAN REFORMATION. See BOHEMIA: 1405-1415; 1419-1434.

BOHEMIANS (Gypsies). See GYPSIES.

BOHEMUND I (c. 1055-1111), son of Robert Guiscard. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099.

BOHME, Jakob (1575-1624), German theologian and mystic. See MYSTICISM; Quietism.

BOHOL, an island of the Philippines, northwest of Mindanao, between Cebu and Leyte. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS; Geographical features; and Map.

BOIAMOND DE VITIA, canon of Asti and collector of ecclesiastical tax. See BAGIMONT'S ROLL.

BOIANS, or Boii.—Some passages in the earlier history and movements of the powerful Gallic tribe known as the Boii will be found touched upon under **ROME**: 390-347 B.C., and 205-101 B.C., in accounts given of the destruction of Rome by the Gauls, and of the subsequent wars of the Romans with the Cisalpine Gauls. After the final conquest of the Boians in Gallia Cisalpina, early in the second century, B.C., the Romans seem to have expelled them, wholly or partly, from that country, forcing them to cross the Alps. They afterwards occupied a region embraced in modern Bavaria and Bohemia, both of which countries are thought to have derived their names from these Boian people. Some part of the nation, however, associated itself with the Helvetii and joined in the migration which Caesar arrested. He settled these Boians in Gaul, within the Eduan territory, between the Loire and the Allier. Their capital city was Gergovia, which was also the name of a city of the Arverni. The Gergovia of the Boians is conjectured to have been modern Moulins. Their territory was the modern Bourbonnais, which probably derived its name from them. Three important names, therefore, in European geography and history, viz.—Gaul, Bavaria and Bohemia, are traced to the Gallic nation of the Boii.—Tacitus, *Germany*, trans. by Church and Brodribb, notes.—See also **BAVARIA**; **BOHEMIA**; Derivation of

name; **GERMANY**: B. C. 8—A. D. 11; **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 295-191.

ALSO IN: C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 12, note.

BOIELDIEU, François Adrien (1775-1834), eminent French composer and founder of the new era in the *opéra comique*. Among his successful operas are "Le Calife de Bagdad," "Jean de Paris," and "La Dame Blanche."—See also **MUSIC**: Modern: 1730-1816.

BOILEAU, Nicholas (1636-1711), French critic. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1608-1715.

BOIS GRENIER, a wooded position in the British lines west of Lille, France; taken by the Germans on April 10, 1918, in their last series of offensives in the World War; later reoccupied by the Allies during their counter-offensive. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: e, 2; 1918: II. Western front: d, 5.

BOISE, capital of the state of Idaho. First settled as a trading post of the Hudson Bay Company; later settled by Major Lugabill, U. S. A., who established there, in 1863, a military post known as Fort Boise; organized as a city in 1864 and became the capital of the territory. It is an important agricultural and mining center, and one of the largest inland wool markets in the United States. Its population in 1920 was 21,393. It had in 1917 the largest enclosed swimming pool in the United States, fed by natural hot water, of which there is an abundance. The city is operated under the commission form of government.

BOIS-LE-DUC (Dutch s'Hertogenbosch), a town at the junction of the Dommel and the Aa, captured by the Dutch in 1629. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1625-1647.

BOISSIER, Marie Louis Anton Gaston (1823-1908), French classical scholar and historian. See **HISTORY**: 32.

BOITO, Arrigo (1842-1918), noted both as librettist and opera composer; his best known opera is "Mefistofele." He was collaborator as librettist with Verdi in "Otello" and "Falstaff."

BOJARDO, Matteo Maria (1430-1494), Italian poet. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1450-1595.

BOJER, Johann (b. 1872), Norwegian novelist and dramatist. See **SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE**: 1888-1920.

BOJNA, Boroeritch von, Croatian commander of the Austrian army of the Isonzo, in 1916; partly successful in the Austrian offensive along the Piave, in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, 1; 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b, 3; b, 4.

BOKHARA (ancient Transoxania), a khanate in central Asia, also a city, capital. (See **ASIA**: Map). "Taken literally, the name [Transoxania] is a translation of the Arabic *Mavera-unnehr* (that which lies beyond or across the river), and it might therefore be supposed that Transoxania meant the country lying beyond or on the right shore of the Oxus. But this is not strictly speaking the case. . . . From the period of the Samanides down to modern times, the districts of Talkan, Tokharistan and Zem, although lying partly or entirely on the left bank of the Oxus, have been looked on as integral portions of Bokhara. Our historical researches seem to prove that this arrangement dates from the Samanides, who were themselves originally natives of that part of Khorassan. . . . It is almost impossible in dealing geographically with Transoxania to assign definitely an accurate frontier. We can and will therefore comprehend in our definition of Transoxania solely Bokhara, or the khanate of Bokhara; for although it has only been known by the latter name since

the time of Sheibani and of the Ozbegs [1500], the shores of the Zerefshan and the tract of country stretching southwards to the Oxus and northwards to the desert of Kizil Kum, represent the only parts of the territory which have remained uninterruptedly portions of the original undivided state of Transoxania from the earliest historical times. . . . Bokhara, the capital from the time of the Samanides, and at the date of the very earliest geographical reports concerning Transoxania is said, during its prosperity, to have been the largest city of the Islamite world. . . . Bokhara was not, however, merely a luxurious city, distinguished by great natural advantages; it was also the principal emporium for the trade between China and Western Asia; in addition to the vast warehouses for silks, brocades, and cotton stuffs, for the finest carpets, and all kinds of gold and silversmiths' work, it boasted of a great money-market, being in fact the Exchange of all the population of Eastern and Western Asia. . . . Sogd . . . comprised the mountainous part of Transoxania (which may be described as the extreme western spurs of the Thien-Shan). . . . The capital was Samarkand, undoubtedly the Maracanda of the Greeks, which they specify as the capital of Sogdia. The city has, throughout the history of Transoxania been the rival of Bokhara. Before the time of the Samanides, Samarkand was the largest city beyond the Oxus, and only began to decline from its former importance when Ismail chose Bokhara for his own residence. Under the Khahrezmians it is said to have raised itself again, and become much larger than its rival, and under Timour to have reached the culminating point of its prosperity."—A. Vambéry, *History of Bokhara, introduction*.

ALSO IN: J. Hutton, *Central Asia, ch. 2-3*.

B. C. 329-327.—Conquest by Alexander the Great. See MACEDONIA: B. C. 330-323; and Alexander III (The Great).

6th century.—Taken from White Huns by Turks. See TURKEY: 6th century.

A. D. 710.—Moslem conquest. See CALIPHATE: 710.

991-998.—Under the Samanides. See SAMANIDES.

1004-1193.—Under Seljuk Turks. See TURKEY: 1004-1063, and after.

1209-1220.—Under the Khuarezmians. See KHUAREZM: 12th century.

1219.—Destruction of the city by Jenghiz Khan.—Bokhara was taken by Jenghiz Khan in the summer of 1219. "It was then a very large and magnificent city. Its name, according to the historian Alai-ud-din, is derived from Bokhar, which in the Magian language means the Centre of Science." The city surrendered after a siege of a few days. Jenghiz Khan, on entering the town, saw the great mosque and asked if it was the sultan's palace. "Being told it was the house of God, he dismounted, climbed the steps, and said in a loud voice to his followers, 'The hay is cut, give your horses fodder.' They easily understood this cynical invitation to plunder. . . . The inhabitants were ordered to leave the town in a body, with only their clothes, so that it might be more easily pillaged, after which the spoil was divided among the victors. 'It was a fearful day,' says Ibn al Ithir; 'one only heard the sobs and weeping of men, women and children, who were separated forever; women were ravished, while men died rather than survive the dishonour of their wives and daughters.' The Mongols ended by setting fire to all the wooden portion of the town, and only the great mosque and certain palaces which were built of brick remained standing."

H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols, v. 1, ch. 3*.—"The flourishing city on the Zerefshan had become a heap of rubbish, but the garrison in the citadel, commanded by Kok Khan, continued to hold out with a bravery which deserves our admiration. The Mongols used every imaginable effort to reduce this last refuge of the enemy; the Bokhariots themselves were forced on to the scaling-ladders; but all in vain, and it was not until the moat had been literally choked with corpses of men and animals that the stronghold was taken and its brave defenders put to death. The peaceable portion of the population was also made to suffer for this heroic resistance. More than 30,000 men were executed, and the remainder were, with the exception of the very old people among them, reduced to slavery, without any distinction of rank whatever; and thus the inhabitants of Bokhara, lately so celebrated for their learning, their love of art, and their general refinement, were brought down to a dead level of misery and degradation and scattered to all quarters."—A. Vambéry, *History of Bokhara, ch. 8*. See MONGOLS: 1153-1227.

1220-1868.—Under Mongol rule. See MONGOLS: 1220-1868.

1868.—Subjection to Russia. See RUSSIA: 1859-1881.

1917.—Massacre by the Russian Red Army. See TURKESAN: 1917-1920.

BOKLAND. See BOCLAND; FOLCLAND.

BOLAK, an attempt at an international language, named for its originator, Léon Bollak. See INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE.

BOLERIUM, Roman name for Land's End, England. See BELERION; BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

BOLESLAUS I, king of Poland, 1000-1025.

Boleslaus II, king of Poland, 1058-1083.

Boleslaus III, duke of Poland, 1102-1138. See POLAND: Beginnings of national existence.

Boleslaus IV, duke of Poland, 1146-1173.

Boleslaus V, king of Poland, 1227-1279.

BOLEYN, Anne (1507-1536), second wife of Henry VIII of England, and mother of Queen Elizabeth. She was condemned to death on the charge of adultery, and beheaded. See ENGLAND: 1527-1534, 1536-1543.

BOLINGBROKE, Henry St. John, 1st Viscount (1678-1751), English statesman and writer. He held cabinet office as a Tory, and opposed the coming of the house of Hanover; was a friend of Swift and Pope. See ENGLAND: 1710-1712, 1714-1721; also DLISM: English deism.

BOLÍVAR, Simón (1783-1830), hero of South American independence. Took part in the insurrection at Caracas (1810); fought several successful engagements under General Miranda; proclaimed the abolition of slavery and for two years fought against the Spanish General Morillo. His victories culminated in the capture of Angostura (1817). At the congress opened at Angostura (February, 1819) Bolívar was chosen president of Colombia and given almost supreme power (see BOGOTÁ: 1816-1819; COLOMBIA: 1810-1830, 1819-1830, 1826). In 1819 Bolívar crossed the Andes, descended upon the royalists of New Granada and destroyed their forces. Seconded by Sucre, he delivered Ecuador in the battle of Pichincha, and Peru in the battles of Junín and Ayacucho (1821-1824). Thus he sealed the independence of South America. Chosen dictator of Peru, he succeeded in expelling the Spaniards by 1825 (see PERU: 1820-1826; 1825-1826; 1826-1876). In 1826 Bolívar drafted a constitution for Bolívar which was adopted. At this time he was president of Colombia, dictator of Peru and perpetual protector of Bolivia (see LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824). Scarcely

were the Spaniards expelled when factional strife and political intrigue began to undermine his work. He died without realizing his dream of uniting all Spanish America into one vast federation.—See also BOLIVIA: 1809-1825; LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830; 1823; and VENEZUELA: 1810-1820, 1829.

ALSO IN: J. T. M. Johnston, *World patriots*, pp. 50-60.—F. L. Petre, *Simón Bolívar, "el libertador."*

BOLIVIA: Geographic description.—Bolivia, named in honor of Simon Bolívar, the hero of South American independence, is the third largest of the South American republics and is one of the two countries of the American continents which possess no sea coast. Bolivia is bounded by Chile, Peru, Brazil, Argentina and Paraguay (LATIN AMERICA: Map). The chief physical characteristics are an immense interior plateau practically at an elevation of 12,000 feet, on which are the wonderful mineral resources of the country, and the larger portion of the population; and the great slopes eastward towards the Amazon and La Plata watersheds very scarcely populated but capable of immense agricultural production. Bolivia lies wholly within the tropics, but the ruggedness of its surface from the high table-lands to the far eastern jungle provides a great variety of temperatures. Rapid variations are striking in La Paz and Potosí, which are about 12,500 and 14,000 feet, respectively, above sea level: the midday sun is quite warm and often hot; with the coming of night the air quickly cools and wraps are comfortable from December to May. "Bolivia, whose present area is 530,000 square miles, [and whose population in 1921 was 2,889,970] forms a parallelogram extending over 13 degrees from north to south and a little over 10 degrees from east to west. At the moment of the Declaration of Independence the country had an area of nearly 1,155,000 square miles, but as a result of treaties and conventions concluded with Brazil (in 1867 and 1903), the Argentine (in 1889), Chile (in 1866-74 and 1904), and Peru (in 1909) its territory has been reduced to its present extent. By the treaty of 1867 alone Bolivia ceded to Brazil no less than 50,138 square miles, and 5,680 square miles to Chile in 1866 and 1874, without speaking of the final cession of the coast, concluded in 1904, and that of the territory of Acre to Brazil in 1903."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, p. 68.—See also ACRÉ DISPUTES; LATIN AMERICA: Map.

Education.—"Public education has long been neglected in Bolivia, and is still far from being as general as it is in the neighbouring republics, notably in Chile and the Argentine. Until a recent period Bolivia was among those countries which expended least upon public education. During recent Ministries—those of Saracho, Bustamante, Saavedra, etc.—all branches of education have received a powerful impulse which has placed the Republic in a better situation, but there is still much to be done. Public instruction is official, free, or private; primary, secondary, superior, or professional. Primary education is gratuitous and in theory compulsory. There are at present [written in 1914] 166 official primary schools and 737 municipal schools, with about 1,400 teachers and 51,000 pupils. In Bolivia the authorities have [confided] . . . primary education to the municipalities, which in most cases are ill-prepared for the task, or incapable, or ignorant. The lack of scholastic buildings is very perceptible in the majority of the departments, where appropriate but modest premises, belonging directly to the State, are badly needed. In this particular secondary education is more fortunate, having proper buildings set apart for it. Like primary education, it

is gratuitous. It is given in eight colleges or national lycées, five free educational establishments, four seminaries, and one religious college, and all together number some 1,800 pupils. The secondary schools are available only for pupils at least eleven years of age who have followed the elementary and middle classes of the primary schools."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, pp. 91-92. In 1919, about 60,000 pupils attended primary, secondary and normal schools.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

Aboriginal inhabitants.—"With the Toromonos tribe, who occupied, as Orbigny tells us, a district of from 11° to 13° of South latitude, it was an established rule for every man to build his house, with his own hands alone, and if he did otherwise he lost the title of man, as well as became the laughing-stock of his fellow citizens. The only clothing worn by these people was a turban on the head, composed of feathers, the rest of the body being perfectly naked; whilst the women used a garment, manufactured out of cotton, that only partially covered their persons. . . . The ornament in which the soft sex took most pride was a necklace made of the teeth of enemies, killed by their husbands in battle. Amongst the Moxos polygamy was tolerated, and woman's infidelity severely punished. . . . The Moxos cultivated the land with ploughs, and other implements of agriculture, made of wood. They fabricated canoes, fought and fished with bows and arrows. In the province of the Moxos lived also a tribe called Itonomos, who, besides these last named instruments of war, used two-edged wooden scimitars. . . . The Canichanas, who lived near Machupo, between 13° and 14° S. lat. and 67° to 68° W. long., are reputed by M. d'Orbigny as the bravest of the Bolivian Indians. They are accredited to have been cannibals. . . . Where Jujuy—the most northern province of the Argentine Republic—joins Bolivia, we have in the present day the Mataguaya and Cambas Indians. The latter are represented to me by Dr. Matienzo, of Rosario, as intelligent and devoted to agricultural labor. They have fixed *tolderias* [villages], the houses of which are clean and neat. Each town is commanded by a capitán, whose sovereignty is hereditary to his male descendants only."—T. J. Hutchinson, *Parana*, ch. 4.—See also ANDESANS; RACE PROBLEMS: Previous to 1000; TUPI.

To 1533.—In empire of the Incas. See PERU: EMPIRE OF THE INCAS.

1524-1528.—Discovery by the Spaniards. See AMERICA: 1524-1528.

1528-1533.—Spanish conquest by Pizarro. See PERU: 1528-1531; 1531-1533.

1533-1809.—Spanish domination.—At the time of the Spanish conquest, Bolivia, under the name of Audiencia of Charcas, constituted part of the vicerealty of Peru. After 1776 it was annexed to the government of La Plata, but was still known as Upper Peru. "The Spanish domination was perpetuated under ten monarchs, from Charles V to Ferdinand VII (1810). It was a long and terrible oppression; the native population was decimated by ill-treatment and forced labour in the mines; the exploitation of the mines was the only industry which the Spanish were willing to promote; and the number of natives who must have perished during the Colonial period to satisfy the cupidity of the conquerors and the metropolitan State is estimated at eight millions. The influence of the Spanish colonial policy, tyrannical and exclusive as it was, and inspired by the narrowest egoism, was here, as everywhere, as disastrous to the general progress of the country as to the individual interests of the creole or half-breed inhabitants. All favours were reserved for Span-

iards, who had been sent out from the mother-country to profit by some tax, monopoly, or privilege; and as early as the eighteenth century history begins to record acts of rebellion against the metropolitan authorities. In 1780 the natives, terribly oppressed, rose and began a war of extermination against the Spaniards, under the leadership of Tupac-Amaru II, a descendant of the Incas; a war which was terminated by the barbarous execution of the chief and his family. But it was not until 1809 that a general movement of the populations of Upper Peru to conquer their independence was inaugurated."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, pp. 66, 67.—See also PERU: 1550-1816.

1559.—Establishment of the *audiencia* of Charcas. See *AUDIENCIAS*; and *CHARCAS, LAS*.

1809-1825.—War of Independence.—"For more than fifteen years the country was the theatre of a desperate and bloody war; it ended only in 1825, after the battle of Tumusla, when the armies which had been recruited in Colombia, under the command of Bolivar, routed the Spanish army at Junin. The independence of Bolivia dates from the battle of Ayacucho, which was won, toward the end of the year 1824, by General Sucre, Bolivar's lieutenant, and that of Tumusla, won in April, 1825. It was in gratitude to the liberator of a great part of South America that the Republic took the name of Bolivar, later changed to Bolivia, and for similar reasons the Congress which met [at Chuquisaca] on the 6th of August, 1825, decided to give the name of Sucre to the capital of the new state."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, p. 67.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824; and PERU: 1820-1826.

1825-1826.—Independent republic founded and named in upper Peru.—Bolivian constitution.—"Upper Peru [or Las Charcas, as it was more specifically known] . . . had been detached [in 1776—see ARGENTINA: 1580-1777] from the government of Lima . . . to form part of the newly constituted Viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. . . . [After] the Spanish army . . . succumbed to that of the independents of Peru . . . Upper Peru gained, not indeed liberty, but independence under the rule of a republican army. This vast province was incapable of governing itself. The Argentines laid claim to it as a province of the confederation; but they already exercised too great a preponderance in the South American system, and the Colombian generals obtained the relinquishment of these pretensions. Sucre [Bolivar's Chief of Staff] assumed the government until a congress could be assembled: and under the influence of the Colombian soldiery Upper Peru was erected into an independent state."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, p. 290.—The constitution, which was drafted by Bolivar, was adopted with some amendments and formally proclaimed on November 19, 1826, General Sucre being elected president for a term of two years. For an account of the adoption and description of the Bolivian constitution by Upper Peru, see PERU: 1825-1826.

1834-1839.—Confederation with Peru.—War with Chile. See PERU: 1826-1876.

1879-1884.—War with Chile. See CHILE: 1833-1884.

1885.—Alsop loan with Chile. See CHILE: 1900-1911.

1890.—First international American congress in Washington. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1894-1900.—Dispute with Chile concerning Atacama, Tacna, and Arica. See CHILE: 1894-1900.

1895-1919.—Tin mining.—"The beginnings of tin-mining in Bolivia date only from 1895. Even

at that period the metal was not valued in Bolivia. The world's consumption of tin was then sufficiently supplied by the different mining centres, relatively few in number, situated in various parts of the globe. But in Europe the lodes were impoverished, the Cornish mines producing only 4,000 or 5,000 tons a year, while in Saxony and Bohemia the tin mines were almost completely abandoned. . . . Of all countries Bolivia to-day [written in 1914] possesses the priority in the production of tin where the output of this metal is concerned; the Bolivian lodes are of exceptional extent and richness, and their number is so great that it will be long indeed before they can be exhausted. The development of the tin-plate industry [and of new uses for tin] . . . and the diminished output of the ancient tin-mining centres, has sent up the price of the metal from £71 per ton in 1898 to £192 in 1912. . . . At the time of the Spanish domination the mines of Bolivia were worked only for gold, silver, and, in a less degree, copper, but only the very rich lodes were worked. . . . The old Spanish miners rejected the ores of tin as rubbish; they used them to fill cavities and crevices and depressions in the soil; so that modern miners are recovering this debris, and are deriving enormous profits from it; for instance, in the San José de Oruro mines, where the dump-heaps yield large quantities of tin. In many other localities the dumps or tailings have been worked with success and found to be rich in tin. From mines now working and provided with the means of concentration the output in 1912 was 37,700 tons of barilla, containing 60 per cent. of metal, and valued at £4,789,661. In 1897 the Bolivian output was only 3,749 tons, valued at £238,920. . . . Tin, which has become the principal product of the extractive industry in Bolivia, and one of the chief factors of the industrial progress of the Republic, is found in all parts of the country, from the whole of the eastern portion of the high table-land and the shores of Lake Titicaca to the southern frontier, in thick and unbroken lodes. . . . In many mines, and chiefly in those of Potosi and Oruro, lodes which contain tin on the surface are found to contain silver as the workings advance in depth, passing as a rule through a pyritic transition. In others pure cassiterite is found in the form of crystals to a depth of 900 feet (which is the greatest depth so far attained by tin mines in Bolivia). In the Cerro of Potosi veins of tin have been found on the surface, penetrating the mountain parallel with the veins of silver. In many places the veins are united; and in other lodes tin, silver, and copper alternate or are found in union. Veins of tin ores are also found in groups—that is, in parallel series."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, pp. 328-332.—Bolivia's production of tin in 1919 was about 30,000 metric tons.

1899.—Revolution.—The government of President Alonzo (elected in 1896) was overthrown in April, 1899, by a revolutionary movement conducted by General José Manuel Pando, who was elected president by the legislative chambers in the following October.

20th century.—Educational status. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Latin America.

1901.—Second international American congress at Mexico City. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1902.—Compulsory arbitration treaty with other Latin American states. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1902.

1903-1909.—Boundary disputes in the Acre region with Brazil and Peru. See ACRE DISPUTES.

1906.—Third international American congress at Rio de Janeiro. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1909.—Arica-La Paz railway building with Chile. See RAILROADS: 1872-1912.

1910.—Creation of new department.—For administrative purposes Bolivia is divided into departments which are subdivided into provinces and cantons. In 1910 the government authorized the creation of a new department on the upper Paraguay river. It was to be known as the "Department de los Chiquites," its capital being Puerto Suarez, a prosperous city on that river. In 1920 Bolivia was made up of eight departments and three territories.

1910.—Fourth international American congress at Buenos Aires. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

1911-1914.—Banking reforms.—"A law proclaimed on the 5th of January, 1911, created the Banco de la Nacion. Its purposes were to better the economic conditions of the republic, to control the finances of the country so that its credit did not depend upon a group of speculators; to give equilibrium to the fiduciary circulation, and finally to establish a firm rate of exchange with foreign nations. . . . In May, 1911, the Banco de la Nacion started in business with a paid-up capital of £1,275,000 (English pounds sterling). . . . The new institution assumed the assets and liabilities of the Banco de Bolivia y Londres; in 1912 it also acquired part of the assets of the Banco Agricola, in order to deprive this bank of its previous rights of issue. In March, 1913, the Banco de la Nacion took over the assets and liabilities of the Banco Industrial. . . . After some hard fights in other banking institutions of the country, the government finally decreed that only this one bank should issue notes and the others were obliged to withdraw their paper. The law to this effect was passed after bitter discussion, on the first of January, 1914."—*Economic conditions in Bolivia (Pan-American Magazine, June, 1917)*.—The banking law of February, 1914, provided that all banks should have a capital amounting to \$250,000 or over. Another law increased the capital of the bank of the nation to \$20,000,000 and provided that it must have deposited gold coins equal to 40 per cent of its notes.

1911-1915.—Army reorganization.—In 1911 continued the reorganization of the army which had been started in 1907; the government arranged for the employment of five officers, and thirteen subordinates from the German army to give instruction for three years to the Bolivian army service. Although obligatory for all, the burden of military service falls almost entirely upon the natives and the poorer classes. The wealthy and comfortable classes have too many means at their disposal of eluding their military duties; the simulation of maladies or infirmities which are mentioned in positively prodigal fashion by the present law [written in 1914], which affords every facility to the fraudulent; travelling abroad, in Europe or the neighbouring republics, on the pretext of attending courses at the universities; or postponement, which becomes final exemption, without the payment of any tax whatever. All these tricks are encouraged by the facility with which young men with influential relatives can obtain a letter of exemption or discharge when the contingent selected by lot is called to arms. This attitude affords the worst possible example to the labouring classes, composed of half-breeds of various degrees, who regard the law of conscription as imperative only in the case of the proletariat. This

class in turn employs all the means of evasion at its disposal: sometimes the simulation of maladies, but more particularly the facilities offered by the railway companies; for a man has only to get accepted as a railway employee and he can at once claim his exemption by virtue of Article 20 of the general law concerning railways. . . . However, we must admit that those detachments of conscripts which we happened to observe appeared to be perfectly trained. Doubtless the ruder German methods seemed to the Bolivian Government necessary to overcome the passive resistance of the natives who form the bulk of the troops."—P. Walle, *Bolivia*, pp. 101-104.—On December 15, 1915, a law was passed providing for a permanent force of 3,577 men. The army is a militia, service being compulsory between the ages of 19 and 50 and including 6 years in the first line, 5 in the ordinary reserve, 10 in the extraordinary reserve, and 10 in the territorial guard.

1913 (May).—Opening of Arica-La Paz railway.—Signing of protocol.—On May 13, 1913, the Arica-La Paz railway was formally opened; this railway connects the Chilean seaport, Arica, and the Bolivian capital. Also in May representatives of these two countries signed a protocol by which May 3, 1913, was to be the beginning of the term of fifteen years for the transfer of the Bolivian section of the Arica-La Paz railway by the government of Chile to that of Bolivia.—See also RAILROADS: 1872-1912.

1913 (August).—Presidential election.—Ismael Montes elected to succeed Eliodora Villazón.

1914 (February).—Destruction of mining town of Challapata.—On February 21 the mining town of Challapata was completely destroyed and many persons were killed by the explosion of 3,500 cases of dynamite.

1915.—Pan-American conference. See U. S. A.: 1915 (August-October).

1915.—Organization of institute of criminology.—An institute of criminology was organized at La Paz for the purpose of making a scientific study of the criminal and his surroundings and recommending the enactment of corrective laws.

1917.—Note on Germany and rupture of diplomatic relations.—Presidential election.—In a note made public in the United States on February 14, the Bolivian government declared that neutrals were in effect being forced to enter the war against Germany because of that nation's attitude toward neutral trade. It was announced on April 13 that the Bolivian government had handed the German minister his passports and a note breaking off diplomatic relations; in the note reference was made to the sinking by a German submarine of a Bolivian vessel, the *Tubantia*, in neutral waters when the Bolivian minister was on board. On May 2 José Nestor Gutierrez Guerra was elected president for the term 1917-1921.

1919.—Railway development.—During 1919 Bolivia and Argentina completed arrangements expediting the construction of the railway between Cochabamba, Bolivia, and Formosa, Argentina. Plans were prepared for the construction of the last sections of the Potosi-Sucre railway.

1919.—At conference in Paris and Versailles treaty. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; and VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1920-1921.—Re-opening of the seaport dispute with Chile.—Revolution and fall of President Guerra.—The old quarrel of thirty-five years with Chile over the question of an outlet to the Pacific for Bolivia broke out afresh early in 1920. Bolivia, like Paraguay, is an entirely in-

land state; of all the South American republics these are the only two which possess no seaboard. Chile had paid Bolivia an indemnity of \$4,000,000 in 1904 and built for the latter a railroad from La Paz to Arica, thus providing the desired outlet to the sea, though not on Bolivian territory. But Bolivia demanded a more extensive coast line and claimed the former Peruvian province of Tacna, now included in Chile, and long a subject of dispute between that country and Peru. A Bolivian commissioner was appointed in March, 1920, to bring the matter before the League of Nations. Bolivia did not lay claim, as she might more justly have done, to her former possessions, the province and town of Antofagasta. Her claim to what is technically though not actually Peruvian territory raised a storm of protest in Peru, which found vent in riots in both republics during March, 1920. The United States government intervened with a warning to Bolivia against disturbing the peace. Considerable excitement was aroused in all the republics concerned, including Argentina, at the prospect of American active intervention, which was allayed by assurances from Secretary of State Colby disclaiming any such intention on the part of the United States. During May, Bolivian demands were modified; the claim to Arica was dropped and Chile was requested to restore to Bolivia an outlet anywhere on the former Bolivian littoral, the latter country expressing its willingness to construct the necessary port works. By a swift, sudden revolution on Sunday, July 11, the Guerra government was overthrown by the Republican party, which favored the Antofagasta claim. The president and some of his supporters were deported on July 13, and Bautista Saavedra, leader of the revolt, became, first minister of the interior and subsequently provisional president. He resigned from the latter post on Jan. 24, 1921, but was elected president two days later by a national convention. Early in February the new government was formally recognized by the United States, Argentina, Brazil and Chile.—See also LATIN AMERICA.

1922 (February).—Bolivia excluded from conference between Chili and Peru at Washington. See CHILI: 1921-1922.

Also in: A. A. Adams, *Plateau peoples of South America*.—C. J. Post, *Across the Andes*.—W. A. Reid, *Bolivia: the heart of a continent*.

BOLIVIA, Constitution of.—1825.—Code Boliviar. See PERU: 1825-1826; 1826-1876.

1880.—Description of present constitution of the republic.—By the provisions of this constitution the executive power is vested in a president who is elected by popular vote for a term of four years, and not eligible for re-election. The legislative branch of the government is made up of a Congress composed of two houses, a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Senate is made up of sixteen senators (two for each department), elected by direct vote for a term of six years and the House of seventy deputies elected by direct vote for four years. One-third of the senators and one-half the deputies retire every two years. There are two vice-presidents and a ministry of six departments: Foreign Relations and Worship; Finance; Government and Justice; Public Works and Industry; War and Colonization; Education and Agriculture. The Republic is divided into eight departments, three territories and seventy-two provinces, which are respectively governed by prefects, sub-prefects and corregidores. The prefect who is appointed by the President has supreme political, administrative and military authority in his department. The constitution grants the suf-

frage to all male citizens over 21 years of age who can read and write, and who have a fixed income.

BOLLEÉ, Amédée, French automobile mechanic, invented and experimented with busses. See AUTOMOBILES: 1826-1895.

BOLO, Marie Paul, also called Bolo Pasha, French traitor, executed on April 17, 1918. See BOLOISM; FRANCE: 1918: Defeatism.

BOLOGNA: Origin of the city.—On the final conquest of the Boian Gauls in North Italy, a new Roman colony and frontier fortress were established, 180 B. C., called first Felsina and then Boñonia, which is the Bologna of modern Italy.—H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome, bk. 5, ch. 41*.

B. C. 43.—Conference of the triumvirs. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 44-42.

11th century.—School of law.—Glossators.—“Just at this time [end of the eleventh century] we find a famous school of law established in Bologna, and frequented by multitudes of pupils, not only from all parts of Italy, but from Germany, France, and other countries. The basis of all its instructions was the *Corpus Juris Civilis*. Its teachers, who constitute a series of distinguished jurists extending over a century and a half, devoted themselves to the work of expounding the text and elucidating the principles of the *Corpus Juris*, and especially the Digest. From the form in which they recorded and handed down the results of their studies, they have obtained the name of glossators. On their copies of the *Corpus Juris* they were accustomed to write glosses, i. e., brief marginal explanations and remarks.”—J. Hadley, *Introduction to Roman law, lecture 2.*—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 800-1345: University of Bologna.

11th-12th centuries.—Rise and acquisition of republican independence. See ITALY: 1056-1152.

1275.—Sovereignty of the pope confirmed by Rudolph of Hapsburg. See GERMANY: 1273-1308.

1350-1447.—Under the tyranny of the Visconti. See MILAN: 1277-1447; and FLORENCE: 1300-1402.

1402.—Battle of Bologna. See FLORENCE: 1390-1402.

1512.—Acquisition by Pope Julius II. See ITALY: 1510-1513.

1796-1797.—Joined to the Cispadane republic. See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

1831.—Revolt suppressed by Austrian troops. See ITALY: 1830-1832.

1832.—Occupied by Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1815-1846.

1860.—Part of the kingdom of Italy.—By a vote of the people of Bologna the city was annexed to Italy in 1860. This was after the Austrians were defeated by France in the preceding year.

BOLOGNA, University of. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 11th-12th centuries; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 10th century; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: Nature of medieval universities; 800-1345: Other universities; 1231-1330.

BOLOISM, popular term for defeatism, derived from the activities of Bolo Pasha, whose name was linked in Paris with propaganda for a peace in 1916 and 1917 which would serve well Germany's purposes but could not fail to be dishonorable for France. “During the autumn of 1917 public opinion had been much perturbed by the evidence of treasonable conspiracies which had been unearthed by the Government, and more particularly by M. Clémenceau himself. The persons implicated were, in the first instance, a certain notorious Bolo Pasha and the managers of a

paper named the *Bonnet Rouge*. . . A tremendous sensation was caused by an official accusation of treason against M. Joseph Caillaux, the well-known statesman who had formerly been Prime Minister of France and who had always been reputed to be favourable to the idea of a *rapprochement* with Germany. On December 22 M. Caillaux's *Parliamentary Immunity* was suspended, and he was arrested at his house in Paris on January 14. . . A series of sensational trials followed these arrests. The first trial was that of Bolo Pasha, which commenced on February 4. Bolo was a remarkable, if wholly unscrupulous, man. He had lived by his wits, quite untroubled by conscience, from his earliest years. He first practised as a Dental Surgeon in Marseilles, he then kept different kinds of shops, and at one time was the proprietor of a restaurant. He carried out various ingenious swindles, for the most part escaping without punishment. He had been twice married, the second ceremony taking place whilst the first wife was yet alive, and without the formality of a divorce. His second wife had been extremely wealthy, and it was with her money that he had first engaged in business on a large scale. Most of his enterprises were unsuccessful, however, and at the beginning of the war he was in serious financial difficulties. In these circumstances he was quite ready to listen to proposals from agents of the German Government. At various times Bolo had travelled all over the world, and the case against him, which was based upon discoveries made by the American Secret Service, was that whilst he was in the United States he had received large sums, totalling altogether over £336,000, from the emissaries of Count Bernstorff, then German Ambassador to the United States. The trial attracted a great deal of attention in Paris, and during the proceedings Bolo proved that he lacked neither resource nor courage. The Counsel for the prosecution was a certain Lieut. Mornet. In the opinion of the Court Martial, Lieut. Mornet was able to substantiate the charges that Bolo had entered into communication with the enemy through the Ex-Khedive of Egypt [Abbas Hilmi], a certain Signor Cavallini, and other persons, and had conspired to create a defeatist movement in France, more particularly by purchasing the *Journal*, and by attempting to obtain control of the *Figaro*. It is worth noting that these secret proceedings appeared to have been controlled by Herr von Jagow himself, then German Foreign Secretary. On February 9 M. Caillaux was brought from prison to give evidence for the defence, but that statesman was not able to make any disclosures which seriously influenced the proceedings. The most dramatic moment in the trial was, however, two days later when the accused's brother Mgr. Bolo (who was a well-known preacher in Paris) gave evidence in his brother's defence. Considerable sympathy was expressed for Mgr. Bolo, but he was unable to destroy the case made out by Lieut. Mornet, and on February 14 the Court Martial (which consisted of seven judges, Colonel Voyer being the president) found the prisoner guilty and condemned him to death. His associate Cavallini was also condemned to death. Bolo was shot at Vincennes on April 17.—*Annual Register*, 1918.—See also FRANCE: 1918: Defeatism.

BOLSHEVIKI: Origin of name.—This is a Russian word meaning "belonging to the majority"; originally the left or radical wing of the Russian Socialist Democratic party. When the split in the party occurred in 1903 the radicals, led by Nikolai Lenine, were in the majority, or *Bolshinstvo*, and from 1903 called themselves *Bolsheviki*, meaning

the majority faction. The popular impression that the term springs from "extreme" is therefore erroneous. The moderates, similarly, are called . . . *Mensheviki* from *Menshinstvo*—minority. The Social Democratic party is composed mainly of industrial workers. The other great Socialist party of Russia, the Social Revolutionary party, is made up chiefly of peasants. In this party also a division occurred into a more and a less radical wing, and in the summer of 1917 the more radical faction, finding themselves in agreement with Lenine on all points except agrarian policy, adopted the name *Bolsheviki*, and began to work for the most part in alliance with their radical brethren of the Social Democratic party against the moderates of both old parties. The two factions are also known as Maximalists and Minimalists respectively.

Development and political form in Russia.—"The 'Russian Communist Party (Bolsheviks)' is the outgrowth of an extreme radical fraction of the 'Russian Social-Democrat Workmen's Party' founded in 1897. The split took place in 1903 at a congress held abroad at which the radical delegates were in the majority. For this reason this fraction came to be known as the *Bolsheviks*, which meant simply those of the majority, that is, the majority at this particular congress. Until the summer of 1917 the official title of this fraction was 'Russian Social-Democrat Workmen's Party (Bolsheviks)'. At that time the leaders of this group, now organized as a distinct party, were already discussing the formal adoption of the name 'Communist' (N. Lenin, *First Letter on Tactics*, May, 1917). They continued, however, to use the name 'Bolshevik,' by which they had come popularly to be known abroad as well as in Russia. In official documents and writings the term 'Bolshevik' was used as late as July, 1918. . . . Since about that date there has been a tendency to substitute the word 'Communist' in official documents and writings, though the word 'Bolshevik' has generally been added in parentheses as indicated above. . . . During the revolution of 1905 the *Bolsheviks* represented the radical minority in the workmen's councils of that period. The Russian word for council is *soviet*. They opposed bitterly the more moderate fraction of the Russian Social-Democrats, the *Mensheviks*. The Social-Democrats as a party boycotted the elections to the first Duma in 1906, but individual Social-Democrats were elected to this first Russian parliament, particularly from the Caucasus. During 1906 the *Mensheviks* secured the majority in the party councils and Russian Social-Democrats participated more actively in the elections to the second Duma, securing a large number of seats. The explanation given for the dissolution of the second Duma was its refusal to unseat 55 Social-Democratic members whom the government charged with revolutionary conspiracy. There was, nevertheless, a small group of Social-Democrats in both the third and fourth Dumas. Among these there were members who, though not specifically elected as such, were generally recognized as adherents of the *Bolshevist* fraction of the party. It was, for example, these individual *Bolshevist* members within the Social-Democratic group of the fourth Duma that came out in public condemnation of the war at the special session of the Duma called in August, 1914.

"In the Petrograd Soviet of Workmen's and Soldiers' Deputies, organized during the first days of the revolution of 1917, party alignment at the beginning was not particularly emphasized. Very shortly, however, particularly after Lenin's arrival, a sharp differentiation took place, and the *Bolshe-*

viks, as a separate party, became the most energetic and compact, though minority, group in the Petrograd Soviet. In the first All-Russian Congress of Soviets the Bolsheviks had a minority and therefore a minority on the first All-Russian Central Executive Committee of Soviets elected by that Congress. During the summer of 1917 frequent conflict developed between the Petrograd Soviet and the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, for the former was more radical than the latter, containing a larger percentage of Bolsheviks. By September, 1917, the Bolsheviks had obtained a clear majority in the Petrograd Soviet, Trotsky being elected its president. Against the wish of the All-Russian Central Executive Committee, the Petrograd Soviet sent out a call for a Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, which was announced for November 7. It was on the eve of the opening of this Congress that the Bolsheviks executed their coup d'état. In this Second All-Russian Congress of Soviets, the Bolsheviks had a majority. In view of the refusal of the more moderate Socialist parties, particularly the Mensheviks, to accept the Bolshevik coup d'état, the Central Executive Committee selected by the second Congress was composed largely of Bolsheviks, as was the first Council of People's Commissaries, although a few Left Socialist-Revolutionaries were given places on the Executive Committee and on the Council. No analyses of the Third and Fourth All-Russian Congresses of Soviets of January and March, 1918, are at hand. At the Fifth All-Russian Congress of Soviets of July, 1918, the Bolsheviks had a majority, the Left Socialist-Revolutionaries having about 30 per cent of the total membership and other parties being represented in very small numbers. . . . It was at this Congress that Socialist-Revolutionaries of the Right and Center, and the Mensheviks—all anti-Bolshevist but Socialist parties—were excluded from the Central Executive Committee and all local Soviets were urged to do the same. The Sixth All-Russian Congress, held in November, 1918, showed an overwhelming majority for the Bolsheviks; in fact one can say that they were the only party really represented, having 900 (including 71 sympathizers) out of 914 members. . . . In the Seventh Congress, held more than 13 months later, in December, 1919, the Bolsheviks were equally dominant, having 970 out of 1,002 members. The Bolsheviks have been less completely in control of local Soviets. However, an analysis made by the Bolsheviks themselves shows the gradual elimination of all other parties, and particularly of so-called non-party members, the explanation being given that the latter were formally joining the Communist Party. There were frequent references to 'sympathizers with communists' or 'candidates for communists.' These official Bolshevik figures also indicate that the percentage of Communists or Bolsheviks increased as one went up the scale of Soviet institutions. There were more Bolsheviks in the provincial executive committees and provincial congresses than in the district and cantonal executive committees and congresses. . . . A detailed analysis of the composition of the Petrograd Soviet which was elected in July, 1919, and statistics on the elections of last December [1920] also show the elimination of other parties and even of so-called non-party members. . . . From such accounts as have been found in Bolshevik newspapers it appears that in the first stage the elections are by acclamation, at meetings held in factories, barracks, or executive departments and on party lists presented to the meeting. Delegates to higher units would seem to

be elected in proportion to party strength. But even so, the party with a bare majority increases its majority as the elections pass through the various grades. The Bolsheviks admit that plenary sessions of Soviets have been irregular during the last year and therefore, the Executive Committees must have elected the delegates to higher units. This last fact would, of course, guarantee to the majority party practically complete control over the higher units, whose functions have increased with the development of extreme centralization, which the Soviet leaders have insisted was made necessary by the extraordinary conditions of foreign and civil war. . . . Special attention is called to the manner in which the Central Executive Committee is elected by the All-Russian Congress of Soviets. . . . The members of the Congress meet by parties and draw up lists of their candidates in proportion to the numerical strength of the party in the Congress. Then 'each faction presents a list which the Congress in advance confirms.' Therefore, the Central Executive Committee of the All-Russian Congress, and also the Executive Committee's of all Soviets, are elected on strictly party lines. An interesting statement bearing on the general character of the last All-Russian Congress (December, 1919) and emphasizing particularly the 'overwhelming predominance of Communists, at the Congress and in Soviets' is the signed leading article by the responsible editor of the *Izvestia*, Steklov (December 11, 1919), entitled 'After the Congress.' . . . It is not very clear on what basis delegates to All-Russian Congresses are selected, though it would seem that they also are selected on the basis of party. The list of the delegates elected by the Petrograd Soviet to the Seventh All-Russian Congress was headed by the three names 'Kalinin, Lenin, Trotsky,' none of whom takes an active part in the work of the Petrograd Soviet. Lenin also headed the list of delegates to the Seventh All-Russian Congress from the Moscow Soviet."—*International Conciliation*, Jan., 1921.—See also SOCIALISM.

Policies and nature of their rule in Russia. See RUSSIA: 1917, and after; BALTIC STATES: Estonia: 1918-1919: Struggle against Germans; BREST-LITOVSK TREATIES: 1918; EDUCATION: Modern developments; 20th century: General education: Russia; EUROPE: Modern: Russia in the 19th century; UKRAINE: 1914-1921; WORLD WAR: 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: n; p.

ALSO IN: E. Antonelli, *Bolshevist Russia*.—W. T. Goode, *Bolshevism at work*.—H. V. Keeling, *Bolshevism*.—P. Miliukoff, *Bolshevism: an international danger*.—R. W. Postgate, *Bolshevik theory*.—J. Spargo, *Bolshevism*.

In Armenia. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2.

In Georgia. See GEORGIA, REPUBLIC OF: 1920: Foreign relations; and 1921.

In Hungary (1918).—Antagonism toward, in Budapest. See HUNGARY: 1918 (November); 1918-1919 (December-March); 1919 (March).

In Poland (1919). See POLAND: 1919.

In Siberia. See SIBERIA: 1917-1919; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: c, 3.

In Turkestan. See TURKESTAN: 1917-1920.

BOLTERS, the name applied to members of a political party who assert their independence either by deserting a party convention or by refusing to support the ticket of their party at election. The name originated during the campaign of 1884, when great numbers of Republicans "bolted" their party and became, for the time, Democrats.

"BOMBA," surname of Ferdinand II (1810-1850), king of the two Sicilies, 1830-1859. See ITALY: 1848-1849; VIENNA, CONGRESS OF.

BOMBAY, city, principal seaport of western India and the capital of the presidency of Bombay. It was first visited in 1509 by the Portuguese and acquired by them in 1534. In 1661 through his marriage to the Spanish princess, Catherine, it came into the possession of Charles II who granted it to the East India Company seven years later. The modern city was founded by Augier (1669-1677). "Bombay, often known as the gateway of India, is on the west coast. It is built upon the small island of Bombay, which is shaped much like Manhattan Island, N. Y. The chief industrial features are cotton textile mills, about 80 in number. Bombay has nearly 1,000,000 inhabitants; during the year 1900 it lost about one-tenth of its population through the plague. . . . The city does a large export trade in raw cotton, grain, seeds, cotton twist and yarn, condiments, myrobalans, goat-skins, and manganese ore, and has an immense interior distributing business in merchandise of all sorts suitable to the country. It has gas and electric-lighting facilities and cheap power from a big hydro-electric plant near by. It has one hotel, the Taj Mahal, which is the largest in India, and many other fine buildings. Through the greater part of the city the sanitation is bad and malaria is especially prevalent. A splendid work, however, is being done by the Bombay Improvement Trust, which is gradually improving conditions in the slum areas. The hottest months in Bombay are May and October. In June the southwest monsoon breaks and heavy rains continue until the end of September. There are not the great extremes of heat or cold found in the interior of India, but the climate is oppressive, owing to the moisture in the air. No city in the world has a greater variety of race types than Bombay. Besides the dominant element—the Mahratta race—there is an influential section of Parsi merchants, Arab traders from the Gulf, Afghans and Sikhs from northern India, Bengalis, Rajputs, Chinese, Japanese, Malays, Negroes, Tibetans, Singhalese, and Siamese. Among religions are the Hindu, Mohammedan, Parsi, Jain, and Christian. The Hindus constitute nearly two-thirds of the total, the Mohammedans one-fifth. Sixty-two different languages or dialects are said to be spoken within the city limits. Marathi and Gujarati are the most widely used. English is spoken by many natives, especially in the Parsi merchant community. These Parsis hold high rank among the natives because of their wealth, intelligence, and natural bent for trade."—H. D. Baker, *British India (Special Consular Reports, No. 72, pp. 48-49)*.—See also INDIA: 1600-1702; 1919; also Map of India; PLAGUE: Bubonic.

ALSO IN: S. M. Edwardes, *Rise of Bombay*.

BOMBAY PRESIDENCY.—"Bombay Presidency is a geographical or administrative expression, comprising a long strip of the coast of India, extending for 15 degrees from Baluchistan on the north to the Madras district of Kanara on the south. Its area, 122,984 square miles, with a population of 18,500,000, is divided into four divisions, under Commissioners, known as Sind, the northern division or Gujarat, the central division or the Dekhan, and the southern or Karnatic division. The number of its districts or collectorates, excluding the island of Bombay, is twenty-four. Six in Sind—Karachi, Hyderabad, Sukkur, Larkhana, Thar and Parker, and the Frontier district; six in the northern division—Ahmedabad, Kaira, Panch Mahals, Broach, Surat [seat of the British

East India Company's authority until 1687] . . . and Thana; six in the central division—Ahmednagar, Khandesh, Nasik, Poona, Satara, and Sholapur; and six in the southern divisions—Belgaum, Dharwar, Bijapur (known as Kaladgi until 1885), Kanara, Ratnagiri, and Kolaba. The utmost variety of races, tongues, and physical conditions is thus united in the Presidency of Bombay. . . . Bombay, with its 123,000 of square miles of British territory, stands only fourth in the list of Indian provinces, Burma covering 236,000, Bengal 151,000, and Madras about 142,000, the United Province of Agra and Oudh following close upon its heels with 107,000 square miles. In population it also stands fourth, having about a quarter of that of Bengal, about two-fifths of that of Madras, and not quite twice that of Burma. Yet the results of British administration for a century, notwithstanding physical and racial difficulties unequalled in any other province of India, have made it the most educated, progressive, and liberal contributor to the imperial revenues of any province in the Empire."—W. L. Warner, *Presidency of Bombay (Journal of the Society of Arts, v. 52, pp. 200-201)*.—See also SIND.

BOMBS. See GRENADES; LIQUID FIRE: Incendiary bombs.

BON HOMME RICHARD AND SERAPIS, sea fight of the. See U. S. A.: 1779 (September).

BONAPARTE, Charles Joseph (1851-1921), secretary of the navy, 1905, and attorney-general of the United States, 1906-1909. See U. S. A.: 1905-1909.

BONAPARTE FAMILY, Origin of the.—"About four miles to the south of Florence, on an eminence overlooking the valley of the little river Greve, and the then bridge-path leading towards Siena and Rome, there was a very strong castle, called Monte Boni, Mons Boni, as it is styled in sundry deeds of gift executed within its walls in the years 1041, 1085, and 1100, by which its lords made their peace with the Church, in the usual way, by sharing with churchmen the proceeds of a course of life such as needed a whitewashing stroke of the Church's office. A strong castle on the road to Rome, and just at a point where the path ascended a steep hill, offered advantages and temptations not to be resisted; and the lords of Monte Boni 'took toll' of passengers. But, as Villani very naively says, 'the Florentines could not endure that another should do what they abstained from doing.' So as usual they sallied forth from their gates one fine morning, attacked the strong fortress, and razed it to the ground. All this was, as we have seen, an ordinary occurrence enough in the history of young Florence. This was a way the burghers had. They were clearing their land of these vestiges of feudalism, much as an American settler clears his ground of the stumps remaining from the primeval forest. But a special interest will be admitted to belong to this instance of the clearing process, when we discover who those noble old freebooters of Monte Boni were. The lords of Monte Boni were called, by an easy, but it might be fancied ironical, derivation from the name of their castle 'Bouni del Monte,'—the Good Men of the Mountain;—and by abbreviation, Buondelmonte. . . . But when, after the destruction of their fortress, these Good Men of the Mountain became Florentine citizens, they increased and multiplied; and in the next generation, dividing off into two branches, they assumed, as was the frequent practice, two distinctive appellations; the one branch remaining Buondelmonte, and the other calling themselves Bu-

naparte. This latter branch shortly afterwards again divided itself into two, of which one settled at San Miniato al Tedesco, and became extinct there in the person of an aged canon of the name within this century; while the other first established itself at Sarzana, a little town on the coast about half-way between Florence and Genoa, and from thence at a later period transplanted itself to Corsica; and has since been heard of."—T. A. Trollope, *History of the commonwealth of Florence*, v. 1, pp. 50-51.—For genealogical table, see FRANCE: 1804-1805.

Bonaparte, Carlo (1746-1785), father of Napoleon I; member of the royal court of Ajaccio after the French conquest of Corsica.

Bonaparte, Charles Louis Napoleon. See NAPOLEON III.

Bonaparte, Jerome (1784-1860), brother of Napoleon I; proclaimed king of Westphalia in 1807. See GERMANY: 1807 (June-July); 1813 (September-October).

Bonaparte, Joseph (1768-1844), brother of Napoleon I; member of Council of Five Hundred in 1798; Councillor of State in 1799; proclaimed king of Naples and Sicily in 1805, and three years later proclaimed king of Spain. See FRANCE: 1797-1798 (December-May); 1805-1806 (December-September); SPAIN: 1808 (May-September), to 1812-1814.

Bonaparte, Louis (1778-1846), brother of Napoleon I; proclaimed king of Holland in 1806 but forced to abdicate four years later because of a disagreement with Napoleon. He then assumed the title of Comte de St. Leu. See NETHERLANDS: 1806-1810.

Bonaparte, Lucien (1775-1840), brother of Napoleon I, prince of Canino, elected president of Council of Five Hundred and minister of the Interior in 1799; ambassador to Spain in 1800.

Bonaparte, Napoleon. See NAPOLEON I.

BONAR LAW, Andrew. See LAW, ANDREW BONAR.

BOND, Sir Robert (1857-), premier and colonial secretary of Newfoundland since 1900. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1897-1900.

Negotiation of Hay-Bond reciprocity treaty. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1902-1905.

At colonial conference, 1907. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and Imperial conferences: 1907.

BONDS. See MONEY AND BANKING.

BONGHI, Ruggero (1828-1895), Italian prose writer. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1860-1914.

BONI INSURRECTION (1859). See CELEBES: 1851.

BONIFACE, Saint (680-754), the apostle of Germany, was born in Devonshire, England. His real name was Wynfrith. In 719 he was commissioned by Pope Gregory II to carry out a program of Christianization in Germany. Under the protection of Charles Martel his mission was highly successful, and in recognition of his services he was made archbishop in 732. Some years later he became bishop of Mainz. He also made visits to France to spread the gospel. He founded the famous Monastery of Fulda, which became a great center of monastic culture. In 754 he resigned his bishopric to undertake the conversion of the Frisians. With a number of his companions he was massacred by heathen near Dookum (Dokkum), in Holland.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Conversion of the Goths; 406-800.

BONIFACE III, pope, 607, February to November.

Boniface IV, pope, 608-615.

Boniface V, pope, 610-625.

Boniface VI, pope, 896.

Boniface VII, pope, 974, 984-985.

Boniface VIII, pope, 1204-1303. See FRANCE: 1285-1314; PAPACY: 1294-1348.

Boniface IX, pope, 1389-1404.

BONIFACE (d. 1207), Marquis of Monferrat, chosen leader of the fourth crusade. He became king of Thessalonica in 1204. See CRUSADES: 1201-1203.

Acquires Macedonia in exchange for Crete. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1204-1205.

Invasion of Athens. See ATHENS: 1205-1308.

BONIFACIUS, or Count Boniface (d. 432), Roman general and governor of the province of Africa. See VANDALS: 420-439.

BONILLA, General Manuel (d. 1913), revolutionary president of Honduras. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1911; HONDURAS: 1900-1915.

BONILLA, Policarpo, President of Honduras, 1894-1900. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1886-1894.

His overthrow. See HONDURAS: 1900-1915.

Representative at Peace conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BONN, a famous university city of Germany, on the west bank of the Rhine, fifteen miles south-southeast of Cologne, known in Roman times as Bonna or Castra Bonnensia. (See GERMANY: Map.) Originally a Roman fort, it was for centuries the capital of the electorate of Cologne. The city became French in 1794, was thus confirmed by the treaty of Lunéville in 1801, and finally given to Prussia by the Congress of Vienna in 1815. Population in 1919 was 91,410.

1703.—Siege and capture by Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

1818.—Founding of Bonn University. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1694-1906.

BONNE ENTENTE, an agreement resulting from the strained relations between Ontario and Quebec on the bilingual question. See CANADA: 1912-1916.

BONNET ROUGE, a French weekly journal. See LIBERTY CAP; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Reports and censorship: d, 1; BOLOISM.

BONNEVILLE, Benjamin L. E. (1795-1878), American captain and explorer, conductor of an expedition to the Rocky Mountains. See WYOMING: 1807-1833.

BONNIVET, Guillaume Gouffier (1485-1525), French commander. See FRANCE: 1523-1525.

BONONCINI, Giovanni Battista (1672-1750), greatest exponent of the *opera seria* in the early eighteenth century; rival of Handel for operatic favor. His works comprise over thirty operas, oratorios, cantatas, and many instrumental pieces.

BONONIA, modern Boulogne, France. See GESORACIUM; BOULOGNE.

BONONIA, modern Bologna, Italy. See BOLOGNA.

BONUS SYSTEM. See LABOR REMUNERATION: Methods of remuneration.

BONZES, Buddhist priests. See JAPAN: 1542-1593.

"BOOK OF FACTS" by Coteiba. See HISTORY: 21.

BOOK OF HOURS, compilation of prayers, Psalms, litanies, etc., designed for the use of the laity, and very popular in the Catholic church from the fourteenth to the sixteenth centuries.

BOOK OF KELLS. See BOOKS: Medieval times.

BOOK OF ST. CUTHBERT. See BOOKS: Books in Medieval times.

BOOK OF THE DEAD.—"A collection (ancient Egyptian) of prayers and exorcisms composed at various periods for the benefit of the pil-

grim soul in his journey through Amenti (the Egyptian Hades); and it was in order to provide him with a safe conduct through the perils of that terrible valley that copies of this work, or portions of it, were buried with the mummy in his tomb. Of the many thousands of papyri which have been preserved to this day, it is perhaps scarcely too much to say that one half, if not two thirds, are copies more or less complete of the Book of the Dead."—A. B. Edwards, *Academy*, Sept. 10, 1887.—M. Naville published in 1887 a collation of the numerous differing texts of the Book of the Dead, on the preparation of which he had been engaged for ten years.

BOOKS: Writing materials.—"The writing materials in use in different places and at different times have varied greatly. Obviously anything capable of receiving an impression or bearing a mark of any kind may be used as material for receiving records or bearing communications. The surface of a stone, a bone, or a shell, a flat piece of wood, bark or leaf of a tree, a plate of metal, the facet of a gem, any one of a thousand things can be used and has been used for this purpose. The Egyptians and Greeks were in the habit of using the fragments of broken pottery for their less important records. The materials which have been most used, however, have been the Assyrian clay tablet [see also EGYPT: About B. C. 1500-1400], . . . papyrus, vellum, and paper. . . . From very early ages, leather was more or less used as writing material, but in the 2d century B. C., owing, it is said, to the scarcity and high price of papyrus, Eumenes II, King of Pergamus, a city of Asia Minor, invented or caused to be invented, a writing material made of dressed skins. These skins were not tanned but were dressed by another method which left them flexible but gave them a smooth hard surface which could be easily written on. This material was called, from the name of the city, *pergamena*, from which we get our 'parchment.' This term is now practically reserved for sheepskins which are harder than other skins used for the purpose. Parchment was long used for legal documents and is still used for college diplomas and other similar purposes. The general term, however, for this type of writing material, which was made from a variety of skins, is vellum. Vellum, of course, came in sheets, and while a single sheet might be rolled as diplomas are to this day rolled for delivery, it was ordinarily used in the sheet form and played an important part in the development of the book. In the manufacture of vellum the skins of a variety of the smaller animals were used. For example, the famous Alexandrian codex, one of the oldest known copies of the Bible, is written on antelope skin. . . . Paper is said to have been invented by the Chinese at an unknown but very early date. It was introduced to Europe by the Arabs about the 10th century A. D. It was made of linen or rags and did not vary greatly from the rag paper of to-day. . . . Paper was not much used in Europe until the invention of printing. Being much less substantial than vellum it did not commend itself for the making of manuscript books. Paper was, however, immediately found to be much better suited to printing than any other material, and with the advent of the printed book it very quickly drove other writing materials out of common use. Owing to its having some resemblance to papyrus it was given the old name, the word paper being derived from papyrus. Late in the 10th century a new writing material made of wood or other flexible fibre treated with chemicals and loaded with clay was invented, to which we also

give the name paper. This new material has almost entirely driven the old rag paper out of the field and is now the paper of commerce. Much of this material is far inferior to rag paper. . . . A 15th-century book on rag paper is as good to-day as the day it was printed. Most of the paper now in use possesses no such lasting qualities. In addition to these three leading materials, much use has been made of tablets (Latin *tabella*). The commonest form of tablet was a thin board with one or both sides slightly cut away in such a way as to leave a narrow rim all around. The shallow depression inside this rim was then filled with wax sufficiently stiff to hold its position in ordinary temperatures but sufficiently soft to be easily marked with a sharp instrument called a stylus. The writing could be easily erased by rubbing with a hard smooth object, perhaps a ball at the reverse end of the stylus, and the wax was then ready for another impression. . . . Two or more tablets could be put together with the wooden sides out, bound, and sealed. In this way the writing was secure from observation or interference and the tablets were less liable to injury than papyrus or vellum. Tablets were used at a very early period and continued to be used, especially for correspondence, all through the middle ages and into the 16th century. Sometimes a considerable number of them would be fastened with thongs by one edge so as to form a continuous document which was one of the precursors of the modern book. The British Museum has a document of this sort consisting of nine leaves about 7x9 inches. The writing on it is in shorthand, which is by no means a modern contrivance [see ABBREVIATIONS]. This particular document is of Greek origin and dates from about the 3d century A. D. The ancient Egyptians, Chinese, and other peoples of remote antiquity used inks made of charcoal or soot mixed with gum, glue, or varnish. Similar compositions were used to a late date. The Romans made extensive use of sepia, the coloring substance obtained from the cuttlefish. Iron-gall inks, inks that consist of an iron salt and tannin, were invented by an 11th century monk named Theophilus. Of course these inks were mixed with coloring matter, and other paints and pigments were used in the preparation of manuscripts. The earlier printing inks were made of lampblack and linseed oil. . . . The mediæval scribe, or copyist, had in addition to his quill, ink, and vellum, a pair of compasses to prick off the spacing of his lines, a ruler and a sharpened instrument or pencil with which to draw the lines upon which he was to write, a penknife for mending his pens, an erasing knife for corrections, and pumice and agate, or other smooth substance, for smoothing the scratched surface."—F. W. Hamilton, *Books before typography*, pp. 9-14.

Evolution of the book.—"Ancient books were written on rolls of papyrus. The technical name of such a roll of papyrus was *volumen* from which we get our word volume. With the increasing use of vellum as writing material came the book as we know it, originally called in Latin the codex, from *caudex*, meaning a pile of boards such as may be seen in any lumberyard. The other Latin word for book, *liber*, from which we get our word library and other allied terms, originally meant 'bark' and is a curious preservation of the record of the use of bark as a writing material, a use, by the way, of which we have very little other knowledge. The origin of the book is rather interesting. One of its ancestors . . . is the group of tablets bound together with thongs. Another was probably the roll itself. When the manuscript roll was read

it was necessary in order to handle it properly and save it from damage to reroll the part of the roll which had been read as the student proceeded. The consequence was that when the reading was finished, the volume was left rolled up in reverse order. Consequently, before being replaced, the volume, if treated properly, had to be rolled back into its original position, a necessity which careless or lazy people found somewhat burdensome. It was discovered, however, that this could be avoided by folding the roll back and forth, creasing it in the spaces between the columns, which were written at right angles to the length of the roll, the result being something like a book printed only on one side of the paper and with the edges uncut, like many Chinese and Japanese books of to-day. The real impulse, however, to the construction of books as distinguished from rolls came with the use of the sheets of vellum. These could not be attached easily to make long rolls as could be done with the papyrus sheets, while even the single sheets were large enough to be unwieldy when spread out. Therefore, when long compositions were to be written, the vellum sheets were folded over and laid inside each other just as ordinary note paper is prepared for sale at the present time. In order to provide against the scattering of these leaves they were sewed together through the crease at the back. The result was called a *quire*. When the composition filled more than one quire, the quires were originally fastened together in a manner derived, probably, from the method of fastening tablets. That is to say, holes were stabbed through the margin and thongs were passed through the holes and tied at the back. This method of binding, however, had obvious disadvantages and it shortly occurred to some one that thongs, or strips of vellum, could be laid across the backs of the quires at right angles to their length and the stitches by which the quires were held together could be passed over these thongs. This method of binding the quires together is still used in making the best bindings. At this stage of proceedings the loosely fastened bundle of quires was not firmly held together and the unprotected folds of the sheets were exposed to wear. This was remedied by covering the backs with a strip of leather running lengthwise of the sheets. Vellum, however, is particularly liable to warp and twist. This was prevented by putting the sheets between boards. The next step was to fasten the boards to the package of leaves by extending the edges of the leather strip on the back and fastening them to the edges of the boards, which were then fastened at the opposite edges by clasps. The bound book was then complete so far as utility was concerned. It was soon seen, however, that the extension of the leather back to cover the boards entirely added to the beauty and durability of the book and opened a wide field for the exercise of the decorator's art and taste. . . . The book as distinguished from the roll began to be popular in the first Christian century. It had certain very great advantages. The rolls were never very long and long compositions or collections of compositions necessarily ran to many volumes. They were not easy to refer to as they had to be unrolled and then rolled up again whenever any passage was to be consulted. They were made of a material which was not durable in any but the very driest of climates. The book on the other hand, while heavy, could contain a very great amount of material in a single volume, could be easily referred to, and was made of much more durable material. For this reason the book form was used for legal documents and other purposes where ease of ref-

erence was particularly desired. The growth of the Christian church especially stimulated the substitution of the book for the roll. Christianity, unlike any of the religions with which it came into contact, except Judaism, was a book religion. The Christian was constantly referring to his scriptures for argument with his adversary as well as for his own edification and he wanted to be able to find his favorite passages readily. The conservatism of the Jew prevented his changing the roll form of his scriptures. The Pagan adhered to the rolls with their associations of classic culture. The final passing out of the roll and victory of the book are contemporary with the victory of Christianity over Paganism and its adoption as the religion of the empire."—F. W. Hamilton, *Books before typography*, pp. 15-19.—See also ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 282-241; AZTEC AND MAYA PICTURE WRITING; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: Part in history.

Books in medieval times.—"The books of the Middle Ages are a special subject in themselves, since they include all the illuminating manuscripts of Ireland, England and the Continent. . . . It is probable that the custom of ornamenting books with drawings was derived from the Egyptians by the Greeks, and from the Greeks by the Romans, among whom decorated books were common, although they are known to us chiefly by means of copies preserved in Byzantine and Italian manuscripts of a more recent period. [See also BYZANTINE EMPIRE: Part in history.] These, and a few examples dating from the time of Constantine, exhibit a style evidently derived from classical models. A survey of mediæval books properly begins with the early Irish manuscripts, which stand at the head of a long and glorious line stretching, chronologically, from the seventh century of our era to the fifteenth. Although it is not known where the art was born to which these wonderful productions of Celtic pen-craft owe their origin, it is Ireland, nevertheless, which has provided us with the earliest and finest examples of this work, the marvels of skill and beauty which, summed up, as it were, in the Book of Kells, the Book of Durrow, and others, set the Irish manuscripts beyond imitation or rivalry. Most of these books are Psalters, or Gospels, in Latin, while the remainder consist of missals and other religious compilations, and of them all the Book of Kells is the most famous. It was written in the seventh century, and probably indicates the highest point of skill reached by the Irish artist-scribes, or as regards its own particular style of ornamentation, by any artist-scribes whatever. It is a book of the Gospels written (in Latin) on vellum, and the size of the volume, of the writing, and of the initial letters is unusually large. The leaves measure 13x9 inches. The illustrations represent various incidents in the life of Christ, and portraits of the Evangelists, accompanied by formal designs. Ornamentation is largely introduced into the text, and the first few words of each Gospel are so lavishly decorated and have initial letters of such size that in each case they occupy the whole of a page. The book just described was preserved at Kells until the early part of the seventeenth century. It then passed into Archbishop Ussher's possession, and finally into the library of Trinity College, Dublin, where it is now treasured. The prevailing feature of Celtic ornament as shown in illuminated manuscripts is the geometrical nature of the designs. The human figure when introduced into the native Irish books is absurdly grotesque, for its delineation seems to have been beyond the artist's skill, or, more correctly, to have lain in another category, and to have belonged

to a style distinct from that in which he excelled. At a later period, figure drawing became a marked characteristic of English decorated manuscripts, and English artists attained to a high degree of skill in this branch of their art. Bright colours were employed in the Irish manuscripts, but gold and silver are conspicuous by their absence, and did not appear in the manuscripts of these islands until Celtic art had been touched by continental influence. The tradition that the Book of Kells was written by the great St. Columba himself, reminds us that at this period nearly all books were the handiwork of monks and ecclesiastics, and in all monasteries the transcribing of the Scriptures and devotional works was part of the established order of things. Columba, we know, was a famous scribe, and took great pleasure in copying books. He is said to have transcribed no less than three hundred volumes, and all books written by him were believed to be miraculously preserved from danger by water.

"By Irish missionaries the art of book writing was taught to Britain, chiefly through the school of Lindisfarne, where was produced the famous Lindisfarne Gospels, or book of St. Cuthbert. . . . This notable volume is an excellent example of Celtic book art in the beginning of its transition stage, a stage which marks the approach to the two schools which were the result of the combination of Celtic and continental influences in the hands of intelligent and skilful Anglo-Saxon scribes—the Hiberno-Saxon and the English schools. It contains the four Gospels written in Latin, and arranged in double columns, each Gospel being preceded by a full-page formal design of Celtic work and a full-page portrait of the Evangelist. The conjunction of these two distinct styles of ornament forms one of the chief points of interest in the book. The formal designs of interlaced, spiral, and key patterns so characteristic of Celtic work, show its near kinship to the Irish books, while the portraits prove an almost equally close connection with Roman and Byzantine models. There is a reason to believe that the classical element is due to the influence of an Italian or Byzantine book or books brought to Lindisfarne by Theodore, Archbishop of Canterbury, and his friend Adrian, an Italian abbot, when the archbishop visited the island for the purpose of consecrating Aidan's church. The Lindisfarne Gospels accompanied St. Cuthbert's body to Durham in 1005, but rather more than a century later was restored to Lindisfarne, and remained there until the monastery which had replaced St. Aidan's foundation was dissolved at the Reformation. It is then lost sight of until it reappears in the famous Cotton Library, with which it is now possessed by the nation. The English school of illumination had its chief seat at Winchester. Its work is characterised by its figure drawing, and while the foliage ornament introduced, together with the gold which was largely used in the Winchester manuscripts, indicate continental influence, the interlaced and other patterns are derived from the Irish school. Of this class of manuscript the Benedictinal of Æthelwold, in the Duke of Devonshire's library, may serve as a typical example. It was written for Æthelwold, Bishop of Winchester, by his chaplain Godemann, towards the end of the tenth century. . . . The Norman Conquest opened up the English school of art more widely to continental influence, with the result that towards the end of the thirteenth and beginning of the fourteenth centuries the English manuscripts were unsurpassed by any in Europe. As a typical specimen of the illuminations of this period, we may with propriety select

one which has been described by Sir Edward Maunde Thompson as 'the very finest of its kind,' and 'probably unique in its combination of excellence of drawing, brilliance of illumination and variety and extent of subjects.' It is a Psalter dating from the fourteenth century, and known as Queen Mary's Psalter, because a customs officer of the port of London, who intercepted it as it was about to be taken out of the country, presented it to the Queen in 1553. This magnificent book is now in the British Museum. During the twelfth and thirteenth centuries a large number of Bibles and Psalters were written, and made up the greater part of the book output of the larger monasteries, to which we are indebted for all our fine pieces of manuscript work. Indeed, most of the decorated manuscripts of this period are occupied with the Scriptures, services, liturgies, and other matters of the kind, and on such the best work was lavished. Later, however, the growing taste for romances and stories induced a corresponding tendency to decorate these secular manuscripts too, and some very fine work of this class was produced, especially in France. The books of the chronicles of England and of France, written in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, were also largely adorned with painted miniatures.

"Nearly all the writing of Europe was done in the religious houses. In most of the larger monasteries there was a scriptorium, or writing room, where Bibles, Psalters, and service books, and patristic and classical writings were transcribed, chronicles and histories compiled, and beautiful specimens of the illuminator's art carefully, skilfully, and lovingly executed. . . . Although the greater part of the book-writing of this time was done in the monasteries and by monks and ecclesiastics, there were also secular professional writers, a class who had followed this occupation from very early days. . . . They were employed chiefly by the religious houses, to assist in the transcription and restoration of their books, and by the lawyers, for whom they transcribed legal documents. . . . Books of a great size were frequently monuments of patience and industry, and sometimes half a lifetime was devoted to a single volume. Books therefore fetched high prices, though they were not always paid for in money. In 1174 the Prior of St. Swithun's, Winchester, gave the Canons of Dorchester in Oxfordshire, for Bede's Homilies and St. Augustine's Psalter, twelve measures of barley, and a pall on which was embroidered in silver the history of St. Birinus' conversion of the Saxon King Cynegils. A hundred years later a Bible 'fairly written,' that is, finely written, was sold in this country for fifty marks, or about £33. At this period a sheep cost one shilling. In the time of Richard de Bury a common scribe earned a halfpenny a day. About 1380 some of the expenses attending the production of an *Evangelarium*, or book of the liturgical Gospels, included thirteen and fourpence for the writing, four and threepence for the illuminating, three and fourpence for the binding, and tenpence a day for eighteen weeks, in all fifteen shillings, for the writer's 'commons,' or food. [See also BIBLE, ENGLISH: Sources.]

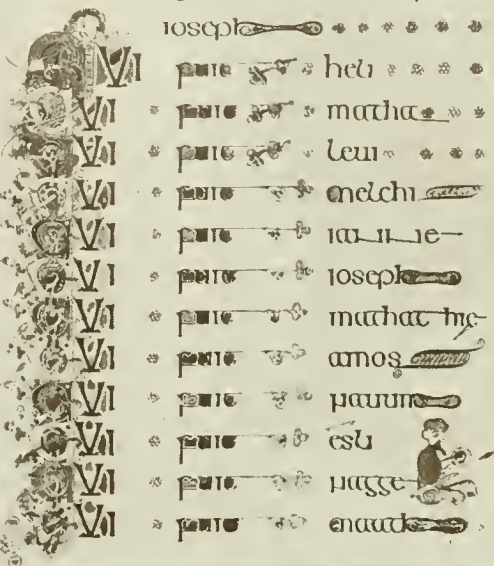
"The book-writers or copyists became, later, the booksellers, very much as they did in old Rome. Sometimes they both wrote and sold the books, and sometimes the sellers employed the writers to write for them, or the writers employed the sellers to sell for them. Publishers as yet did not exist. Practically the only method of publication known consisted of the reading of a work on three days in succession before the heads of the Uni-



patet tunc filius meus chleas in te
bene complacuit mihi.

Mose. in scriptis in quibus quasi ad
porum in scriptis ut paratur filius

ioseph



Matrem praeconatus
incuriatus in illis diebus

Matrem in nonna puga
uestra hinc uel sabbato

Matrem in ambulatio magna
qualis in uenit in hinc in ma
di usque modo neque fia

Matrem in hinc in hinc in hinc
illi in uenit in hinc in hinc
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BOOK OF KELLS

1. Portrait of St. Matthew.

3. A page of the text: St. Mark, xiii, 17-22.

2. Genealogy of Christ: St. Luke, iii, 22-26.

4. The Evangelical Symbols.

versity, or other public judges, and the sanctioning of its transcription and reproduction. . . . As early as 1403 there was already formed in London a society or brotherhood 'of the Craft of Writers of Text-letter,' and those commonly called 'Limners,' or Illuminators, for in that year they petitioned the Lord Mayor for permission to elect Wardens empowered to see that the trades were honourably pursued and to punish those of the craft who dealt disloyally or who rebelled against the Warden's authority. This petition was granted. By 1501 the Company of Stations was established, and it is highly probable that this was only the Brotherhood of Text-writers and Limners under the more general designation. . . . The mediæval booksellers were not all permitted to ply their trade in their own way. Since the supply of books for the students depended on them, the Universities of Paris, Oxford, and elsewhere deemed it their duty to keep them under control, having in view the maintenance of pure texts and the interests of the students, at whose expense the booksellers were not to be permitted to fatten. By the rules of the University of Paris the bookseller was required to be a man of wide learning and high character, and to bind himself to observe the laws regarding books laid down by the University. He was forbidden to offer any transcript for sale until it had been examined and found correct; and were any inaccuracy detected in it by the examiner, he was liable to a fine or the burning of the book, according to the magnitude of his error. The price of books was also fixed by the University, and the vendor forbidden to make more than a certain rate of profit on each volume. Again, the bookseller could not purchase any books without the sanction of the University, for fear that he might be the means of disseminating heretical or immoral literature. Later, it was made obligatory on him to lend out books on hire to those who could not afford to buy them, and to expose in his shop a list of these books and the charges at which they were to be had. The poor booksellers, thus hedged about with restrictions, often joined some other occupation to that of selling manuscripts in order to make both ends meet, but when this practice came to the notice of the University they were censured for degrading their noble profession by mixing with it 'vile trades.' But presumably no such rules as the above hampered the booksellers of non-university towns, such as London. The control assumed by the Universities over the book trade presently extended to interference with original writings and a censorship of literature. With the introduction of printing and the consequent increase of books and of the facilities for reproducing them this censorship was taken up by the church [see PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1430-1456]. Ecclesiastical censorship, however, was not the outcome of the Universities' assumption of control over the book trade. It sprang from the jealousy of the clergy, who opposed the spread of knowledge among the people—some, perhaps, because they knew that knowledge in ignorant hands is dangerous, and others because they feared their own prestige might suffer. This feeling existed before printing, though printing brought it to a head. . . . As early as 1470 Conrad de Homborch, a Cologne printer, had issued a Bible accompanied by canon, etc., which was 'allowed and approved by the University of Cologne,' and in 1486 the Archbishop of Mentz issued a mandate forbidding the translation into the vulgar tongue of Greek, Latin, and other books, without the previous approbation of the University. Fi-

nally, in 1515, a bull of Leo X required Bishops and Inquisitors to examine all books before they came to be printed, and to suppress any heretical matter. . . . But an ecclesiastical censorship over the English press was not established until 1559, when an Injunction passed by Queen Elizabeth provides that, because of the publication of unfruitful, vain, and infamous books and papers, 'no manner of person shall print any manner of booke or paper . . . except the same be first licensed by her maiestie . . . or by advice of her privy counsel, or be perused and licensed by the archbysshops of Cantorbury and Yorke, the bishop of London,' etc. The Injunction extended also to 'pamphletes, playes, and balletes,' so that 'nothing therein should be either heretical, sedicious, or vnseemly for Christian eares.' Classical authors, however, and works hitherto commonly received in universities and school were not touched by the Injunction."—G. B. Rawlings, *Story of books*, pp. 35-53.

The end of the fifteenth century marks the beginning of modern book-making. It was then that the Gutenberg press at Mainz was completed and movable type came into use. Since that time the general appearance of books has gradually changed and the large sizes used so exclusively during the middle ages were supplanted by the octavo and duodecimo volumes. See also PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1880-1000; BRITISH MUSEUM: 1880-1916; VATICAN: 1585-1921.

ALSO IN: G. H. Putnam, *Books and their makers in the Middle Ages*.—E. G. Duff, *Early printed books*.—S. T. Prideaux, *Historical sketch of book-binding*.

BOONE, Daniel (1734-1820), American pioneer settler. See KENTUCKY: 1765-1778; 1775-1784; U. S. A.: 1765-1768.

BOONSBORO, or South Mountain, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (September: Maryland): Lee's first invasion: Harper's Ferry.

BOONVILLE, Battle of. See MISSOURI: 1861.

BOOTH, Catherine (1820-1890), one of the founders of the Salvation Army. See SALVATION ARMY: 1873-1896.

BOOTH, John Wilkes (1830-1865), American actor and secessionist agitator, the assassinator of President Lincoln. See U. S. A.: 1865 (April 14).

BOOTH, William (1829-1912), English evangelist, founder and "General" of the Salvation Army. See SALVATION ARMY.

BOPP, Franz, German consul-general at San Francisco, charged with conspiracy to restrain the foreign commerce of United States in munitions and to organize an expedition against British property in Canada. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917.

BOPP, Franz (1791-1867), German philologist. See PHILOLOGY: 5, 8.

BOPPART, or Boppard, a town of Germany on the left bank of the Rhine. It was declared an imperial city in 1287. See CITIES, Imperial and Free, of Germany.

BORAH, William Edgar (1865-), American legislator. United States senator, 1907, member Republican national committee, 1908-1912. Opponent of the League of Nations.

1919.—Campaign against the peace treaty. See U. S. A.: 1919 (July-September): President Wilson endeavors to obtain unconditional ratification of treaty.

1920.—Demands investigation of expenditures in campaigns. See U. S. A.: 1920 (May-November).

1921.—Resolution regarding suspension of naval program. See U. S. A.: 1921 (January-February).

BORBETOMAGUS, name given by the Celts to the site of the modern city of Worms. See **WORMS**.

BORCHGREVINĀ, Carsten Egeberg (1864-), Norwegian navigator, a resident of Australia. See **ANTARCTIC EXPLORATIONS**: 1898; also **Map of Antarctic regions**.

BORDA, Idiarte (d. 1897), elected president of Uruguay in 1894; assassinated in 1897. See **URUGUAY**: 1821-1905.

BORDARII, under the feudal system tenants holding a few acres of land and bound to menial service for their lords. See **MANORS**.

BORDEAUX, city of France situated in the department of Gironde, the southwestern section of the country. Bordeaux is located on the Garonne river, sixty miles from the sea. The city was originally the chief town of the Bituriges Vivisci. 3rd-6th centuries.—**Commercial importance**. See **COMMERCE**: Ancient: 200-600.

731.—Stormed and sacked by the Moslems. See **CALIPHATE**: 715-732.

1650.—Revolt of the Frondeurs.—Siege of the city.—Treaty of peace. See **FRANCE**: 1650-1651.

1652-1653.—Last phase of the Fronde.—Rebellion of the society of the *Ormée*.—Cromwell's help invoked.—Siege and submission of the city.—“The peace of Bordeaux in October, 1650, had left the city tranquil, but not intimidated, and its citizens were neither attached to the government nor afraid of it. . . . There, as at Paris, a violent element obtained control, ready for disturbance, and not alarmed by the possibility of radical changes in the government. . . . During the popular emotion against Epernon, meetings, mostly of the lower classes, had been held under some great elms near the city, and from this circumstance a party had taken the name of the *Ormée*. It now assumed a more definite form, and began to protest against the slackness of the officers and magistrates, who, it was charged, were ready to abandon the popular cause. The Parliament was itself divided into two factions,” known as the Little Fronde and the Great Fronde—the latter of which was devoted to the prince of Condé. “The *Ormée* was a society composed originally of a small number of active and violent men; and in its organization not wholly unlike the society of the Jacobins. . . . Troubles increased between this society and the Parliament, and on June 3d [1652] it held a meeting attended by 3,000 armed men, and decided on the exile of fourteen of the judges who were regarded as traitors to the cause. . . . The offending judges were obliged to leave the city, but in a few days the Parliament again obtained control, and the exiles were recalled and received with great solemnity. But the *Ormée* was not thus to be overcome. On June 25th these contests resulted in a battle in the streets, in which the society had the advantage. Many of the judges abandoned the conflict and left the city. The *Ormée* established itself at the Hotel de Ville, and succeeded in controlling for the most part the affairs of the city. . . . Condé decided that he would recognize the *Ormée* as a political organization, and strengthen it by his approval. . . . The restoration of the King's authority at Paris [see **FRANCE**: 1651-1653] strengthened the party at Bordeaux that desired peace, and increased the violence of the party that was opposed to it. Plots were laid for the overthrow of the local authorities, but they were wholly unsuccessful. . . . The desire of the people, the nobility, and the clergy was for peace. Only by speedy aid from Spain could the city be kept in hostility to its King and in allegiance to Condé. Spain was asked

to send assistance and prevent this important loss, but the Spanish delayed any vigorous action, partly from remissness and partly from lack of troops and money. The most of the province of Guienne was gradually lost to the insurgents. . . . Condé seems to have left Guienne to itself. . . . In this condition, the people of Bordeaux turned to Cromwell as the only person who had the power to help them. . . . The envoys were received by Cromwell, but he took no steps to send aid to Bordeaux. Hopes were held out which encouraged the city and alarmed the French minister, but no ships were sent.” Meantime, the king's forces in Guienne advanced with steady success, and early in the summer of 1653 they began the siege of the city. The peace party within, thus encouraged, soon overthrew the *Ormée* and arranged terms for the submission of the town. “The government proceeded at once to erect the castles of Trompette and Hô, and they were made powerful enough to check any future turbulence.”—J. B. Perkins, *France under Mazarin*, v. 2, ch. 15.

1791.—Girondists in the national legislative assembly. See **FRANCE**: 1791 (October).

1793.—Revolt against the revolutionary government of Paris.—Fearful vengeance of the Terrorists. See **FRANCE**: 1793 (June); (July-December); and 1793-1794 (October-April).

1793.—Submission to Jacobin government. See **FRANCE**: 1793 (July-December): Civil War.

1814.—Occupied by the English. See **SPAIN**: 1812-1814.

1870-1918.—In two modern wars.—Refuge for the government.—Debarcation point.—Upon the approach of the Germans in 1870 the French government was transferred to Bordeaux from Tours. [See **FRANCE**: 1871 (March-May); **DEMOCRACY**: Genesis of modern democracy.] In 1914 during the great German advance on Paris, the government again found temporary refuge in Bordeaux. (See also **FRANCE**: 1914: August-September.) The port of Bordeaux was a debarcation point of the American troops during the World War and served as one of the base sections for the American expeditionary forces.—See also **BREST**: 1914-1918; **WORLD WAR**: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: d, 1.

BORDEAUX ASSEMBLY. See **FRANCE**: 1871 (March-May); **DEMOCRACY**: Genesis of modern democracy.

BORDEN, Sir Frederick William (1847-1917), Canadian minister of militia and defence in the Laurier cabinet, 1896-1911. In 1899 he was active in sending a Canadian contingent to take part in the Boer War.—See also **WAR**, **PREPARATION FOR**: 1909: British imperial defense conference.

BORDEN, Sir Robert Laird (1854-), Canadian statesman. Member from Halifax in Canadian Parliament, 1878, later returned from Carlton; leader of the Conservative opposition, 1901-1911. Premier from 1911 till his resignation, July 10, 1920. Represented Canada in the imperial war cabinet, 1917 and 1918; Canadian representative at the peace conference, 1910.—See also **CANADA**: 1906-1907; 1917: Coalition government, compulsory service bill; 1919: Treaty of Versailles; 1920 (July).

BORDER RUFFIANS, proslavery agitators who crossed from Missouri into Kansas for the purpose of carrying the elections. See **KANSAS**: 1854-1859.

BORDER STATES, a term generally applied to Missouri, Kentucky, Virginia and Maryland, the states on the border between the proslavery

South and the antislavery North. They were slave states, but with the exception of Virginia they did not secede from the Union. Their commercial interests were more like those of the North, whereas socially they were more like those of the Southern states. When the Civil War broke out public opinion in these states was about evenly divided in the matter of secession. President Lincoln's tactful dealing with these states kept them loyal to the Union. If the war at the outset had been made a war against slavery, these states would have seceded. They had favored the Crittenden amendments and during the war they opposed the enlistment of negro troops. In 1862 they sent Republican members to Congress, thus saving the party majority in that body. The northwestern counties of Virginia remained loyal and were admitted as a separate state, West Virginia. Missouri had a governor who favored secession, Governor Jackson, but through the efforts of F. P. Blair, Jr., four regiments of loyal troops were raised and placed under the command of General Lyon. Prompt action of this sort saved Missouri from falling into the hands of secessionists. In all the border states, men enlisted in both armies, Confederate and Union. Sometimes young men from the same family joined opposing armies. Two bodies of Maryland troops, one Union and the other Confederate, contested in an important part of the battlefield at Gettysburg. The military control of the border states after the war was one of the most disagreeable conditions of reconstruction times.—See also U. S. A.: 1861 (March-April); VIRGINIA: 1861 (July).

ALSO IN: *Cyclopaedia of American government*, v. 1, p. 143.—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 3, ch. 15; *History of the United States*, v. 3, pp. 214, 289, 307-308, 311-312, 344-345, 378-394, 366, 636; v. 4, pp. 65-69 218.—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, p. 517.

BORDET, J., Belgian bacteriologist, awarded the Nobel prize for medicine in 1919. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 20th century: Experimental method; NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1919.

BORDING, Anders (1619-1677), Danish poet. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1470-1750.

BORGES, Carlos Manuel de Cespedes. See CESPEDES Y BORGES, CARLOS MANUEL DE.

BORGHESI, a renowned Italian family of Sienese origin. See ROME: Modern City: 1600-1656.

BORGHETTO, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

BORGIA, Cesare or Cæsar (1476-1507), Italian military commander, the son of Pope Alexander VI. See FRANCE: 1492-1515; PAPACY: 1471-1513.

BORGIA, Lucrezia or Lucretia (1480-1519), duchess of Ferrara, the daughter of Pope Alexander VI. See PAPACY: 1471-1513.

BORGIA, Rodrigo. See ALEXANDER VI, pope.

BORGLUM, Gutzon (John Gutzon de la Mothe) (1867-), American sculptor. See SCULPTURE: Modern; U. S. A.: 1918 (February-October).

BORGO PASS, a road through the Carpathian mountains connecting southernmost Bukovina with Transylvania. During the Rumanian campaign of 1916 Russian troops were near the pass, but made only feeble attempts to help their new ally.—See also CARPATHIANS.

BORGOÑO, Luis Barros, defeated candidate for presidency of Chile. See CHILE: 1920 (June).

BORIS I, king of Bulgaria, 852-884. See BULGARIA: 8th-9th centuries.

Boris II, king of Bulgaria, tenth century.

Boris III, king of Bulgaria (b. Jan. 30, 1894),

eldest son of Ferdinand of Bulgaria. Baptized into Greek Orthodox church. (See BULGARIA: 1895-1896.) Succeeded to the throne, Oct. 4, 1918, on the abdication of his father. (See BULGARIA: 1918.)

BORIS FEDOROVITCH GODUNOV (1552-1605), Russian tsar, descended from an ancient Russo-Tartar family. As a youth he served in the army of Ivan the Terrible and became a favorite at the latter's court. His sister, Irene, was married to the tsar's son Theodore in 1580, and four years later Ivan, on his deathbed, appointed Boris and Nikita Romanovitch as guardians of Theodore, a proceeding rendered necessary by the latter's feeble mentality. Theodore duly became tsar, but throughout his reign of fourteen years Boris was the actual ruler of Russia. On the death of Theodore in 1598, no heir being left to the throne, Boris was unanimously elected by a national assembly to succeed him. He introduced foreign teachers to educate his subjects, founded settlements which have since become important towns and centers, and encouraged migration to Siberia, which territory had not yet developed into a convict land for political and criminal exiles. The romantic career of Boris inspired Pushkin, "the Russian Shakespeare" to write a tragedy entitled "Boris Godunov"; Lope de Vega (1562-1635) also wrote a play on this subject, "El Gran Duque de Muscovia," and Mussorgsky (1839-1881) composed an opera, "Boris Godunov."—See also RUSSIA: 1533-1682.

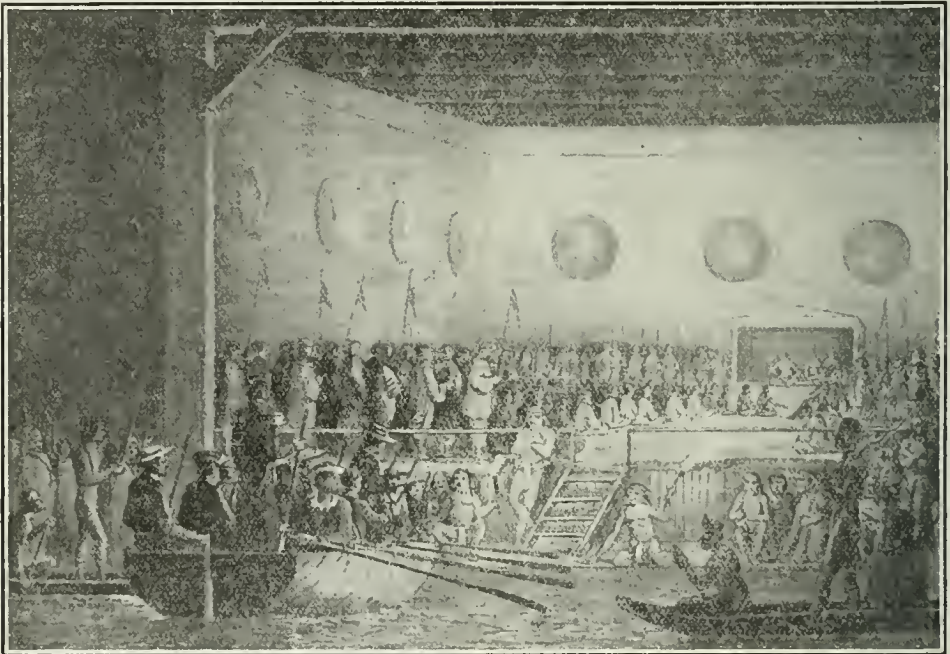
BORNEO: Country.—"If we consider Australia to be more properly a continent, Borneo is undoubtedly the second island in the world in point of magnitude, for New Guinea alone surpasses it [the inclusion of Greenland would make Borneo the third largest]. Its extreme length is about 850 miles, and its greatest breadth 600. Its compact mass is somewhat pear-shaped, lying in a north-east and south-west direction. It has a coast line of about 3000 miles, without measuring the smaller bays and inlets, and its area is about 290,000 square miles, being nearly three and a half times as large as Great Britain. Extending from 7° 3' N. to 4° 10' S. latitude, and being nearly bisected by the Equator, Borneo occupies a central position amid the greater Malay islands, being, roughly speaking, equally distant from the Philippines on the north-west, from Celebes on the east, from Java on the south, and from Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula on the west. . . . The coast of Borneo is very little indented with bays, and nowhere by deep inlets. The few bays it possesses are towards the north-eastern extremity, where the coast is somewhat higher and more abrupt. As a rule the island is bordered throughout by a considerable width of swamp and lowland, except at a few points where there are high promontories or a small extent of hilly country. . . . Politically, Borneo is divided into four separate territories—British North Borneo or Saba occupying the northern portion, Sarawak the greater part of the north-western, and between them the Sultanate of Brunei, the last two being British protectorates since 1888. The rest of the island belongs to the Dutch, and is over twice as large as the aggregate of the other three territories. The island is, on the whole, very sparsely inhabited. [In 1917 its estimated population was 1,514,503.]"—F. H. H. Guillemard, *Stanford's compendium of geography and travel (Australasia)*, v. 2, pp. 213-214). (See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.) The chief productions of the island of Borneo are: rice, coffee, timber, tobacco, sago, spices and gum. The vegetation of the island

is very luxuriant, and there are over fifty varieties of trees from which timber is obtained.—See also MALAY ARCHIPELAGO: Land.

518-1374.—**Early history.**—"The Pagan tribes of Borneo have no written records of their history and only very vague traditions concerning events in the lives of their ancestors of more than five or six generations ago. But the written records of more cultured peoples of the Far East contain references to Borneo which throw some small rays of light upon the past history and present condition of its population. . . . The coasts of Borneo have long been occupied by a Mohammedan population of Malay culture; this population is partly descended from Malay and Arab immigrants, and partly from indigenous individuals and communities that have adopted the Malay faith and culture in recent centuries. . . . In spite of all the work done on the

Indian potentates became less humble. In the thirteenth and the early part of the fourteenth centuries Bruni owed allegiance alternately to two powers much younger than herself, Majapahit in Java, and Malacca on the west coast of the Malay Peninsula. . . . In the earliest years of the fourteenth century Bruni was a dependency of Majapahit, but seems to have recovered its independence during the minority of the Javan king. . . . In 1368 Javanese soldiers drove from Bruni the Sulu marauders who had sacked the town. A few years later the ungrateful king transferred his allegiance to China, and not long afterwards, with calculating humility, paid tribute to Mansur Shah, who had succeeded to the throne of Malacca in 1374."—C. Hose and W. McDougall, *Pagan tribes of Borneo*, v. 1, pp. 8-16.

1521-1846.—**Dutch and English annexations.**—



BRITISH ENVOY ARRIVING AT THE COURT OF THE SULTAN OF BORNEO TO
NEGOTIATE A TREATY

(From an old print)

history of the East Indies, most of what occurred before and much that followed the arrival of Europeans remains obscure. . . . The first account we have been able to find referring to Borneo is a description of the kingdom of Poli from the Chinese annals of the sixth century. Poli was said to be on an island in the sea southeast of Cambodia, and two months south-east of Canton. The journey thither was made by way of the Malay Peninsula, a devious route still followed by Chinese junks. Envoys were sent to the Imperial Court in A. D. 518, 523, and 616. . . . In the year 977, we are told, Hianzta, king of Puni, sent envoys to China, who presented tribute with the following words: 'May the emperor live thousands and tens of thousands of years, and may he not disapprove of the poor civilities of my little country.' . . . In 1082, a hundred years later, Sri Maja, king of Puni, sent tribute again, but the promise of yearly homage was not kept. Gradually the Sung dynasty declined in power, and the East

Sarawak founded by James Brooke.—**Later history.**—"Sighted by the Portuguese probably in the first years of the sixteenth century, Borneo remained unknown to history till 1521, when the survivors of Magellan's expedition round the globe presented themselves before Bruni. Soon after this event, Jorge de Menezes established a factory on the west coast; the Dutch made their appearance in 1598, and they were soon followed by the English. But all attempts at exploration were successively abandoned. . . . Permanent European settlements on the coast were first made in 1812, when the English occupied Pontianac and Banjermassin, which were two years later surrendered to the Dutch. . . . The Dutch, masters of all the rest of Indonesia, except the eastern half of Timor, have not had time to establish their rule over the whole of Borneo. They have, however, gradually reduced or annexed all the section lying south of the equator, as well as about half of the northern districts.

But possession of the north-west and northern parts has been secured by the English, through various treaties with the Sultan of Brunei, former suzerain of the whole of this region. In 1846 the British government obtained the absolute cession of the island of Labuan, at the entrance of Brunei Bay, despite the protests of the Netherlands. But the sultan had already granted to James Brooke the principality of Sarawak, comprising the southern part of his kingdom."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Oceanica*, ch. 3.—"Sir James Brooke visited Borneo in 1839, to succeed in carrying out, by his own personal energy, what the great East India Company had failed to accomplish. He founded Sarawak. With the aid of Admiral Keppel he annihilated the dangerous hordes of pirates that infested the western coasts. He successfully stamped out a rising of Chinese, in which operation the native tribes loyally came to his assistance; and he . . . demonstrated, financially and politically, the wisdom of those early Dutch and British adventurers who saw a splendid property in the island of Borneo. [See SARAWAK.] . . . The Dutch claim suzerainty over all the other portions of Borneo that are not occupied by Rajah Brooke in Sarawak, the British North Borneo Company in Sabah and the Sultanate of Brunei. They have established something like a regular government over the coast districts of the west and south. They have Residents in the southern and eastern districts, and their chief town is Pontianak. A native sultan is nominal ruler. They have as yet, however, done nothing in the way of developing this colony compared with their working of other possessions."—J. Hatton, *New Ceylon*, ch. 2.

1865-1890.—**American Ventures.**—**British North Borneo Company.**—**British protectorate.**—"In the year 1865 the American Consul then resident in Brunei obtained certain land concessions from the Sultan, which, though not actually co-extensive with the territory now known as British North Borneo, comprised a very large portion of it. The result was the formation of the American Trading Company of Borneo, and a large number of Chinese having been imported, a settlement was founded on the Kimanis river. The venture was a failure, the Chinese settlement was soon abandoned, and the Company practically ceased to exist. In December, 1877, Mr. Alfred Dent and Baron von Overbeck concluded negotiations with the Sultans of Brunei and Sulu, by which certain territories were granted to them by the latter in fee simple. A provisional company was formed, and a Royal Charter petitioned for. It was granted, and on the 1st of November, 1881, the British North Borneo Company, with an available capital of about £400,000, commenced its existence. Various inland districts and the small Mantanani Islands were acquired later; in 1880 the British Colony of Labuan was placed under the administration of the Company, and finally a British Protectorate, established in 1888, has materially strengthened the position of the country. Brunei and Sarawak being also under British protection, many difficulties with regard to external politics are removed, and trade having steadily improved, the new colony may be said to have a fair chance of ultimately succeeding. The territory thus acquired has, including the islands, an estimated area of 31,000 square miles. It extends from the Sipitong river in Brunei Bay to Sta. Lucia Bay on the east coast, and its coast-line measures about 000 miles. It is thus slightly larger than Ceylon. The Government is administered by a Governor, whose appointment is subject to the approval of the Secretary of State.

There are two Residents and several Assistant Residents. The mode of administration is somewhat similar to that of a British Colony, but the Government require the native chiefs to maintain order and further justice, and with the example of Sarawak before them, have instituted a Legislative Council, composed of the higher European officials and the leading native chiefs. . . . Although British North Borneo as a colony dates only from the year 1882, its growth has, so far, been fairly promising."—F. H. Guillemard, *Stanford's Compendium of geography and travel (Australasia)*, v. 2, pp. 248-250. But a frontier question still remains to be settled between the Dutch government and the North Borneo Company, arising out of a misunderstanding as to the identity of the river Sebuka, which is accepted by both sides as the boundary line. . . . Borneo still harbours many absolutely savage peoples. . . . The great bulk of the inland populations are collectively known as Dayaks [or Dyaks], a term . . . which, for the Malays, has simply the sense of 'wild' or 'heathen.'"

BORNHOLM, an island of Denmark in the Baltic sea. See DENMARK: Territory.

BORNHOVED, Battle of (1227). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1018-1307.

BORNU, a former African sultanate, of which a small portion is included in the Central Sudan and French Equatorial Africa. The greater part is now situated in the British protectorate of Nigeria. The natives, chiefly of Arab and negro blood, are mostly Mohammedans. In the Middle Ages Bornu formed a part of the Kanem monarchy, but became an independent kingdom in the 15th century. Internal disorders broke up the state in the 10th century, and in 1808 the French government incorporated the tributary state of Zinder into a sphere of influence. A British and a German military expedition arrived in 1902. A descendant of the former sultan's was installed as ruler, with Kuka as his capital. The country was divided into East and West Bornu, and a British resident was appointed to advise the chief, who governs under an oath of allegiance to the British crown. The capital was transferred to Maidugari in 1908.—See also NIGERIA, PROTECTORATE OF SUDAN: Development of Sudanese empire.

BORNY, or Colombe-Nouilly, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1870 (July-Aug.).

BORO INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

BORODIN, Alexander Porfyrievich (1834-1887), Russian composer and chemist. He chose the medical profession and was appointed assistant professor of chemistry at the Academy of Medicine, St. Petersburg; became a foremost exponent of the neo-Russian school of music; among his works the opera "Prince Igor" and "In Central Asia" are the most famous. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: Russia.

BORODINO, a village of Russia, seventy miles west of Moscow. On Sept. 7, 1812, Napoleon here defeated the Russians under Kutusov, paving the way to the unopposed occupation of Moscow. See RUSSIA: 1812 (June-September).

BOREVIC or Boroevich.—See BOJNA, BOROEVICH VON.

BOROUGH, CITY, TOWN, VILLE.—"The burh of the Anglo-Saxon period was simply a more strictly organized form of the township. It was probably in a more defensible position; had a ditch and mound instead of the quickset hedge or 'tun' from which the township took its name; and as the 'tun' originally was the fenced homestead of the cultivator, the burh was the fortified house and

court-yard of the mighty man—the king, the magistrate, or the noble.”—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 5.—“I must freely confess that I do not know what difference, except a difference in rank, there is in England between a city and a borough. . . . A city does not seem to have any rights or powers as a city which are not equally shared by every other corporate town. The only corporate towns which have any special powers above others are those which are counties of themselves; and all cities are not counties of themselves, while some towns which are not cities are. The city in England is not so easily defined as the city in the United States. There, every corporate town is a city. This makes a great many cities, and it leads to an use of the word city in common talk which seems a little strange in British ears. In England, even in speaking of a real city, the word city is seldom used, except in language a little formal or rhetorical; in America it is used whenever a city is mentioned. But the American rule has the advantage of being perfectly clear and avoiding all doubt. And it agrees very well with the origin of the word: a corporate town is a ‘civitas,’ a commonwealth; any lesser collection of men hardly is a commonwealth, or is such only in a much less perfect degree. This brings us to the historical use of the word. It is clear at starting that the word is not English. It has no Old-English equivalent; burh, burgh, borough, in its various spellings and various shades of meaning, is our native word for urbes of every kind from Rome downward. It is curious that this word should in ordinary speech have been so largely displaced by the vaguer word tun, town, which means an enclosure of any kind, and in some English dialects is still applied to a single house and its surroundings. . . . In common talk we use the word borough hardly oftener than the word city; when the word is used, it has commonly some direct reference to the parliamentary or municipal characters of the town. Many people, I suspect, would define a borough as a town which sends members to Parliament, and such a definition, though still not accurate, has, by late changes, been brought nearer to accuracy than it used to be. City and borough, then, are both rather formal words; town is the word which comes most naturally to the lips when there is no special reason for using one of the others. Of the two formal words, borough is English; city is Latin; it comes to us from Gaul and Italy by some road or other. It is in Domesday that we find, by no means its first use in England, but its first clearly formal use, the first use of it to distinguish a certain class of towns, to mark those towns which are ‘civitates’ as well as burgi from those which are burgi only. Now in Gaul the ‘civitas’ in formal Roman language was the tribe and its territory, the whole land of the Arverni, Parisii, or any other tribe. In a secondary sense it meant the head town of the tribe. . . . When Christianity was established, the ‘civitas’ in the wider sense marked the extent of the bishop’s diocese; the ‘civitas’ in the narrower sense became the immediate seat of his bishopstool. Thus we cannot say that in Gaul a town became a city because it was a bishop’s see; but we may say that a certain class of towns became bishops’ sees because they were already cities. But in modern French use no distinction is made between these ancient capitals which became bishoprics and other towns of less temporal and spiritual honour. The seat of the bishopric, the head of the ancient province, the head of the modern department, the smaller town which has never risen to any of those dignities,

are all alike ville. Lyons, Rheims, Paris, are in no way distinguished from meaner places. The word cité is common enough, but it has a purely local meaning. It often distinguishes the old part of a town, the ancient ‘civitas,’ from later additions. In Italy on the other hand, città is both the familiar and the formal name for towns great and small. It is used just like ville in French.”—E. A. Freeman, *City and borough* (*Macmillan’s Mag.*, May, 1880).

BOROUGH FRANCHISE. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British Empire: 1295-1832 and 1832-1885.

BOROUGH MANAGER PLAN. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897.

BOROUGH-ENGLISH, a system prevailing in ancient English boroughs by which the burgage tenement goes to the youngest instead of the eldest son. See FEUDAL TENURES.

BOROUGH-MONGERS.—“By the close of the eighteenth century the practice of bartering influence in boroughs for political favor or money, or the selling of borough seats outright, had become habitual. Commerce in boroughs was an established trade. The ‘borough-mongers,’ as they were called, would buy a seat or a borough with its two seats, to hold for investments as they would stock. They would cultivate the boroughs for sale, buy up all the holdings which gave qualifications and extinguish any rival or independent interest. When they had finally secured complete control of all the franchises in the borough, they would put it on the market, certain of a good price and a handsome advance on what they had paid.”—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes*, v. 1. p. 88.

BOROUGHBRIDGE, Battle of.—Fought March 16, 1322, in the civil war which arose in England during the reign of Edward II on account of the King’s favorites, the Despencers. Thomas, Earl of Lancaster, the leader of opposition, was defeated, captured, summarily tried and beheaded.

BOROUGHs, Rotten and Pocket. See ENGLAND: 1830: Parliamentary representation before reform; and 1830-1832.

BORROMEAN, or Golden League. See SWITZERLAND: 1579-1630.

BORSTAL SYSTEM. See PRISON REFORM: England.

BORUSSIA. See PRUSSIA: Original country.

BORUWA TRIBUTE. See BOARIAN TRIBUTE.

BORYSTHENES, the name which the Greeks gave anciently to the river now known as the Dnieper. It also became the name of a town near the mouth of the river, which was originally called Olbia,—a very early trading settlement of the Milesians.—See also UKRAINE.

BOSCAWEN, Edward (1711-1761), English admiral. Took Porto Bello, 1739, besieged Cartagena, 1741, and was victorious in the battle off Cape Finisterre, 1747; unsuccessfully besieged Fort St. David in south-east India; defeated the French off Newfoundland, 1755; captured Louisburg, 1758; defeated the French Toulon fleet in the bay of Lagos, 1759; retired with a pension, honors and the popular name of “Old Dreadnought.”—See also CANADA: 1755 (June); CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760; ENGLAND: 1759 (August-November).

BOSCOBEL, Royal oak of. See SCOTLAND: 1651 (August).

BOSELLI, Paolo (1838-), Italian statesman. Was premier from June, 1916, until the time of the Caporetto disaster (October, 1917).

BOSNIA: Geographic description.—Resources.—Bosnia (area 16,206 square miles), is situated in the northwest of the Balkan peninsula. It is bounded on the north by the Save, on the east by the Drina, on the south by Herzegovina and by the main range of the Dinaric Alps along the greater part of its southwest and west borders.

"Bosnia . . . is the Switzerland of the European Orient, but it is a Switzerland whose mountains do not reach the perennial snow and ice. In many respects the mountain ranges of Bosnia . . . resemble those of the Jura. They too are composed principally of limestone, and rise in parallel ridges surmounted here and there by sharp crests. Like the successive ridges of the Jura, they are of unequal height, and taken as a whole, assume the appearance of a plateau traversed by parallel furrows, and gently sloping one direction. . . . The rivers of Bosnia . . . flow between parallel mountain ranges towards the north-east along the furrows traced out for them by nature. But these calcareous mountain ramparts of Bosnia . . . are broken up by narrow gorges, . . . through which the pent up waters find a way from furrow to furrow. . . . Only one river, the Narenta, finds its way into the Adriatic; all others in accordance with the general slope of the country flow in the direction of the Danube. . . . 'Where the rocks finish and the trees appear, there begins Bosnia.' So said the Dalmatians formerly. But many parts of Bosnia have now lost their clothing of verdure . . . yet Bosnia still remains a country of woods. Nearly one-half its area is covered with forests. In the valleys trees have almost disappeared, . . . but in the virgin forests of the mountains trees still abound. . . . Taken as a whole Bosnia ranks among the fertile countries of Europe, and few regions surpass it in the beauty of its rural scenery."—E. Reclus, *Universal geography*, v. 1, pp. 126-129.—Bosnia is rich in natural resources which as yet have been only slightly developed. The mountain ranges contain silver, lead, copper and iron, while the valleys produce various kinds of cereals.—See also BALKAN STATES: Geographic position.

ALSO IN: *Stanford's compendium of geography, Europe*, v. 1, pp. 273-277.

Origin of the name.—Early inhabitants.—Slavonic settlement.—Formation of the banat.—"Bosnia takes its name from Bosna, a tributary of the Save which flows into the Danube at Belgrade. . . . The name of Bosnia first emerges in the seventh century in the midst of the irruption of the Serbs into the countries south of the Danube. . . . So far as the obscure history of those times can be trusted the present Bosnia seems to have been occupied by Croats in the eighth century, and to have formed part of the possessions of the Archbishopric of Spalato. . . . [For the racial composition of Bosnia see BALKAN STATES: Races existing; 7th century; also Map showing distribution of nationalities.] It fluctuated, however, for many years under Croatian and Servian dominion, but in the eleventh century we find a Ban of Bosnia as one of the seven Electors with whom rested the election of a king of Croatia. After the extinction of that dynasty, the king of Hungary in 1102 assumed the crown of Dalmatia and Croatia, and he also called himself King of Rama, which name properly belonged to the present district of Herzegovina, and was derived from the river Rama which flows in it. But it was used indifferently for Bosnia, and we find in old charters the expression *Rex Rhamæ seu Bosniaæ*. For several centuries Bosnia remained a Banat under the dominion of Hungary, and one of the

Bans named Kulin in the twelfth century described himself as *Fiduciarius Regni Hungarie*. He is said to have been the first who coined money in Bosnia, and introduced foreign artificers into the territory. His name is still remembered among the people as marking the era of a distant golden age."—W. Forsyth, *Slavonic provinces south of the Danube*, pp. 75-77.—See also HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

ALSO IN: M. E. Durham, *Twenty years of Balkan tangle*, pp. 135-138.

12th century.—Ban Kulin.—Religious controversies.—During the reign of Ban Kulin (1180-1204) Bosnia enjoyed extended peace and great prosperity. Her silver and iron mines were worked extensively and commerce and agriculture flourished. It was at this time that the supreme influence of religion was first felt in Bosnia. Bosnia had been divided between the Greek and Latin churches. A new religion, destined to play an important rôle in the history of the country, was introduced early in the 12th century. "About this time (1180) some Albigenses came to Bosnia, who converted to their beliefs a large number of the people who were called Catare, in German Patavener. In Bosnia they received and adopted the name of Bogomile, which means 'loving God.' Nothing is more tragic than the history of this heresy. . . . They [the Bogomiles] became in Bosnia a chief factor, both in its history and its present situation. . . . The Hungarian kings, in obedience to the Pope, ceaselessly endeavored to exterminate them, and their frequent wars of extermination provoked the hatred of the Bosnians. . . . In 1238 the first great crusade was organized by Bela IV of Hungary, in obedience to Pope Gregory VII. The whole country was devastated, and the Bogomiles nearly all massacred, except a number who escaped to the forests and mountains.—E. de Laveleye, *Balkan peninsula*, ch. 3.—"They [Bogomils] called themselves Christians, but rejected marriage as an impure institution, forbade intercourse with the members of other religions, prohibited homicide, and in consequence, war, refused to take oaths, professed contempt of riches and obeyed no one but God. It was to this religion, persecuted by the Christians as heresy, because it shook the strong institution of the family and loosened the social bonds in weakening the established power; it was to this abject belief that the ban of Bosnia (Kulin) had the imprudence to be converted. . . . All his family and more than ten thousand of his subjects followed his example and renounced the cult of their ancestors."—P. Coquelle, *Historie du Monténégro and de la Bosnie, depuis les origines*, pp. 80-81 (Translated from French). He was compelled to recant under pressure from the Pope (Innocent III) and from Béla III of Hungary. In 1232 Stephen, successor of Kulin, was dethroned by the native magnates, who chose instead Ninoslav, a Bogomil. Threatened by the Pope he was baptised but returned again to his former faith in 1233. For six years he resisted the Hungarian crusaders.—See also BOCOMILIANS; and HUNGARY: 1116-1301.

1242.—Invaded by Mongols of the Golden Horde. See SERBIA: 1200-1321.

1250-1322.—Period of Hungarian supremacy.—Rule of Croatian princes.—"After the close of Ninoslav's reign (1250), a new period commenced in Bosnia, which may be described as 'the Era of the Hungarian Bans.' The Hungarian kings, having learnt by experience, henceforth entrusted the country to trustworthy men, members of their own house or Hungarian magnates, and abandoned the violent persecution of the Bogomiles. For a

century it was in vain that the Popes urged the renewal of the crusades, until then so common. This epoch of a hundred years' duration, which attained to the zenith of its glory when, by the side of Ludwig the Great, there sat on the throne of Hungary the daughter of the Banus of Bosnia, may be fitly called the period of Bosnia's greatest splendour. Internal peace and prosperity, brilliant feats of arms and an extension of the territory as far as the furthest boundaries of Bosnia, added during this era to the growth of the country, whilst it formed a natural protection to Hungary against the Servian czars, and the powerful Venetian Republic, as well as against the incessant seditions of the Croatian magnates, and constituted a most important pivot to the Hungarian Anjous for all their undertakings upon the Balkan Peninsula."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, p. 48.—Direct Hungarian suzerainty lasted until 1299, the bans preserving only a shadow of their former power. From 1299 to 1322 the country was ruled by Croatian princes, who, though vassals of Hungary, united the provinces of upper and lower Bosnia, created by the Hungarians in order to prevent national unity. A rising of the native magnates in 1322 resulted in the election of the Bogomil Stephen Kotromanic.

1322-1353.—Stephen Kotromanic.—"The Banus Kotromanic was already, through his mother, related to the house of Arpad, and therefore also to the Anjous. The king drew this relationship closer by giving him in 1323 a relative, Elizabeth, daughter of the Polish Waywode Kasimir, as wife. During the Wars of Succession, the Servians had succeeded in conquering Chlum. In the year 1325, Banus Stefan again took possession of this place. Moreover, he not only restored his country to its former boundaries, but even enlarged it. To the north of Chlum and the Narenta river, the Venetians owned territory in the Littorale, which reached as far as the river Cetina, the Kraina of those days. . . . Whilst the Venetians were utilising the revolt of the Croats for the conquest of a few coast towns, Stefan seized upon these territories and at once added Kraina, together with her capital, Makarska, to his Banate. Banus Stefan extended his domain still further. In 1326 Charles Robert was again compelled to despatch an army against the mutinous Croats. Banus Stefan joined his forces to those of Hungary. . . . The allied forces pressed on as far as Zara, and conquered the fortresses of the insurgents. . . . Banus Stefan seized the Zupas of Dumno, . . . Hlivno . . . , and Dlamoty from the Croatian rebels, and these were incorporated by Charles Robert with Bosnia. Thus the whole coast from Ragusa nearly as far as Spalato, and the whole of the district lying behind, now formed part of the Bosnian Banate."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. 51, 52.

1342-1442.—Conquest by Hungary. See HUNGARY: 1301-1442.

1376-1391.—Establishment of the kingdom.—"Stephen Kotromanic died in 1353, and his nephew Tvrtko succeeded him. Tvrtko is the greatest name in Bosnian history, and his long reign of nearly forty years, first as *ban* and then as first king of Bosnia, marks the zenith of that country's power. Beginning his career under circumstances of great difficulty, and even driven at one moment from his throne, he lived to make himself king not merely of Bosnia, but of Servia, Croatia, and Dalmatia as well, and to unite beneath his sceptre a vast agglomeration of territory, such as no other Bosnian ruler had ever governed. The first seventeen years of his reign

were spent in a desperate but successful struggle for the mastery of his own house. He was a mere boy at the death of his uncle, and his mother, who acted as regent, was too weak to cope with the disorders of the time. The magnates, many of whom were zealous Bogomiles, were contemptuous of one who was both a child and a catholic, while they would have welcomed the great Czar Dusan, had he found time to repeat his invasion of Bosnia. But the death of that monarch . . . in 1355 broke up the Servian empire for ever, and removed all fear of a Servian occupation of Bosnia. Louis the Great of Hungary had welcomed the growth and independence of Bosnia so long as the Servian empire existed as a menace to his own dominions, but, as soon as the empire fell, he revived the ambitious designs of his predecessors upon the Bosnian realm. . . . He compelled him (Tvrtko) to surrender Herzegovina and to take a solemn oath that he would persecute the Bogomiles, that he would support Hungary in war. . . . In return he allowed him to remain Bosnian *ban*—a mere puppet without power. . . . Determined to be doubly sure of his vassal, he incited the Bosnian nobles to revolt against their chief. . . . Aided by his brother (Vuk), they deposed and drove out Tvrtko in 1365, and it cost him a desperate struggle to recover his power. . . . At last Tvrtko prevailed and in 1370 he was undisputed master of the country. . . . Freed from all fear of Louis, . . . and master of his rebellious barons, Tvrtko began to extend his dominions. The decline of the Servian empire gave him the opportunity which he sought. Lazar, . . . governed a remnant of that realm. Tvrtko aided him against his domestic rivals and received in return large portions of Servian territory. . . . In virtue of this territory he considered himself the legitimate successor of the Servian monarchs, and . . . had himself crowned in 1376 . . . with two diadems, that of Bosnia, and that of Servia. Henceforth he styled himself 'Stephen Tvrtko, king of the Serbs and of Bosnia and of the Coast.' All his successors invariably adopted the Servian title, and like the Servian monarchs, invariably adopted, as Tvrtko had done, the royal name of Stephen."—*Bosnia before the Turkish conquest* (*English Historical Review*, v. 13, 1898, pp. 658-660).

ALSO IN: J. Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. 61-66.

In 1382 Louis died and his widow Elizabeth became regent. This together, with an outbreak in Croatia, was the opportunity Tvrtko needed to fulfil his design of establishing a maritime state. Aided by Venetia, he took from Hungary the entire Adriatic littoral between Fiume and Cattaro, except Zara. The battle of Kossovo (1389) (see TURKEY: 1360-1389) did not react at once on Bosnia itself and on Tvrtko's death (1391) Bosnia was still at the summit of its prosperity.

1391-1444.—Decline of the Bosnian kingdom.—"The evil effects of Tvrtko's death were soon felt. His younger brother, Stephen Dabisa (Stephen II., 1391-1398), who succeeded him, felt himself too feeble to govern so large a kingdom, and in 1393 ceded the newly won lands of Dalmatia and Croatia to King Sigismund of Hungary. The two monarchs met in Slavonia, and concluded an agreement by which Sigismund recognized Dabisa as king of Bosnia while Dabisa bequeathed the Bosnian crown after his death to Sigismund. . . . Dabisa broke the treaty. . . . An Hungarian invasion of his kingdom . . . at once reduced him to submission, and a battle before the walls of Knin, in Dalmatia, finally severed the brief connexion between that country and the Bos-

nian throne. . . . The Turks . . . invaded Bosnia for the first time in 1392, and gave that country a foretaste of what was to come. On Dabisa's death in 1395 the all powerful magnates, disregarding the treaty, made his widow, Helena Gruba, regent for his son. But they retained for themselves all real power. . . . One of their number, Hrvoje Vukcic, towered above his fellows. . . . For the next quarter of a century Bosnian history is little else than the story of his intrigues. . . . The great Turkish invasion, which took place in 1398 and almost ruined Bosnia, convinced the great nobles that a woman was unfitted to rule. . . . They deposed Helena Gruba and elected Stephen Ostoja (illegitimate son of Tvrtko) as their king."—*Bosnia before the Turkish conquest* (*English Historical Review*, v. 13, 1898, pp. 662-663).

ALSO IN: J. Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. 66-81.

As long as he obeyed the nobles, Stephen Ostoja kept his throne. Some of the nobles upheld Tvrtkovic, legitimate son of Tvrtko and all took sides in an incessant feud between Bogomiles and Roman Catholics. During the reigns of Ostojic (Stephen IV, 1418-1421) and Tvrtkovic (Stephen V, 1421-1444) Bosnia was left an easy prey to the Turks who ravaged the country, carried off a vast amount of plunder, and many thousands of slaves and exacted a yearly tribute.

1453-1528.—Turkish conquest.—"Muhammed II. had, on May 29th, 1453, to the terror of all Christendom, taken Constantinople by storm. Passing from triumph to triumph, he had within a year overthrown all the Grecian, Albanian, and Servian States, and in 1454 called upon George Brankovitch to surrender his entire country to him. The Despot saw no alternative but to hand over Servia without striking a blow for it, and to flee to Hungary and petition John Hunyady for help. The result of this was, that Muhammed's troops, who had until then proved irresistible, were in 1455 compelled by the Hungarians under Hunyady to retreat from Servia. Mad with rage, Muhammed, in 1456, advanced against Hungary . . . but was again, and this time completely, beaten by Hunyady and the Monk Capistran, under the walls of Belgrade. . . . Possessed by the enthusiasm which this victory of the Hungarian arms called forth throughout Christendom, Thomas Ostojitsh (Stephen VI, 1444-1461) not only declined to surrender his fortresses, but also withheld the stipulated tribute from the Porte, and proclaimed a crusade against the Turks. The Pope instructed his legate to forward a third of the moneys collected for the crusade to the King of Bosnia. King Thomas did in 1458 conquer a few of the districts lying on the borders of Bosnia and Servia; but as the action of Hungary was crippled by the intervening death of John Hunyady and of King Ladislaus, and as King Thomas's emissaries, whom he sent to the Venetian Republic, to Milan, Burgundy, and Naples in succession, brought him no assurances of assistance, Thomas concluded a peace with Muhammed, and even renewed his promises of tribute. [See TURKEY: 1451-1481.] King Thomas's position had meanwhile steadily improved. He had punished the Bogomilian barons; he had made peace with Turkey; the matters in dispute with Croatia were drawing to a close, whilst he relinquished his ideas of a Croatian marriage; Duke Stefan kept quiet, if not exactly in obedience to a command from the Pope, yet under the impression produced by Hunyady's victory. Thomas had, however, gained most in Servia. True, he was still at war with Brankovitch in

1455; but the Despot died in the course of the following year, and Thomas, in view of their common danger from Turkey, entered into such a close alliance with his son, that his own son Stefan Tomashevitch betrothed himself to Jelatsha, daughter of the Despot Lazar, and thereby not only succeeded to the reversion of the provinces that had been torn away from Bosnia, but also acquired land in the Servian Despotate, and the whole of the Despot's Hungarian possessions. . . . [See also HUNGARY: 1442-1458.] Semendria, the most important fortress on Servian-Hungarian borders, was wrenched from the weak hands of Stefan Tomashevitch (Stephen VII, 1461-1463) by Muhammed II, hardly a blow having been struck for it, and by its fall . . . Servia fell into the hands of the Turks. The whole of Christendom . . . accused Thomas and his son of treachery. The King of Bosnia sent in his own justification a deputation to the Pope, which was, however, tampered with by Mathias (King of Hungary), as he believed that the Bosnian embassy had been sent to Rome to solicit a crown. . . .

"Meanwhile, the Turks were pressing more and more heavily upon the King of Bosnia. Whilst Mathias was carrying on a correspondence with the Pope, and was waging war with the German Emperor Frederick III., the Bosnian king was compelled to grant a passage through to Hungary to Hassan Pasha, who appeared at the head of a Turkish army. Thomas renewed his offer to Venice of the whole of his kingdom, if it would only send him aid; but in spite of this, Venice confined itself to expressing the hope that Thomas would, after the example of his ancestors, be himself in a position to maintain the integrity of his kingdom through his own wisdom and with the help of God. . . . Finally, in the year 1460, the new Croatian Ban Paul Sperantsevitch attacked the arraigned King of Bosnia, and in this war Thomas met with his death on July 10th, 1461. According to the Croatian chronicler he died by the hand of his own son, and of Knez Radivoj. And now we come to the last king, and to the final catastrophe. One of Stefan Tomashevitch's [Stephen VII, 1461-1463] first acts as a ruler was the utterance of a cry of despair to the Pope. . . . Muhammed now, in order to obtain an opinion of the situation at first hand, at once despatched a special messenger to Bosnia to gather in the tribute, and his envoy being abruptly dismissed, Muhammed began to prepare for war. . . . This much appears certain, that King Stefan had been terrified by the Sultan's preparations for war, and that, seeing he must not count too much upon any friendly support, had petitioned for a longer truce, which, according to the chronicles, was to be of fifteen years' duration. . . . The Sultan . . . pressed forward with one hundred and fifty thousand cavalry, and innumerable foot soldiers and auxiliaries. One portion of the army, under the command of Ali Beg Pasha of Servia, took the direct road towards Hungary, whereby the King of Bosnia was still deceived, and his fears to a certain extent allayed. But Mahomed Pasha fell, with a body of twenty thousand light cavalry, upon the Bosnian Drina territory, and the Sultan followed up this opening attack with the main army. Muhammed conquered the Podrinje, and caused the Waywode there to be beheaded; he then drew up before the walls of Bobovatz, and on the 10th of May commenced the siege of this stronghold. Bobovatz, which had survived so many sieges, would have proved defensible on this occasion too, had not the commandant . . . been, in secret, a Bogomile, who had only embraced the Catholic faith under

compulsion, and he surrendered the fortress on the third day of the siege. . . . King Stefan, who had relied upon the resistance of Bobovatz, had intended to await the junction of his own forces with those urgently solicited from abroad, in Jajzta. But, after the terrible news of the fall of Bobovatz, together with the news that most of his magnates were offering no resistance whatever to the Sultan, he quitted Jajzta in haste . . . and endeavoured to escape to Hungary. In the midst of his flight, . . . Mahomed Pasha's light horse overtook him. . . . On the fourth day, Stefan Tomashevitch surrendered himself, after having received an undertaking in writing from Mahomed Pasha in which he swore, in the name of the Sultan, that the king should not be subjected to ill-treatment. With this ended all resistance to Muhammed. Within a single week the Sultan took seventy towns and fortresses. . . . He condemned one hundred thousand prisoners to slavery, and thirty thousand youths he placed among the Janizaries. In spite of their letters of indemnity, he commanded that King Stefan Tomashevitch and Radivoj and his son should be beheaded. . . . Queen Maria, many of the magnates, and a large number of the people—their descendants, are still called 'Dalmatians' (q.v.) . . . fled into Hungary."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. 89-95.—The greater number of the magnates, however, who had left the Bogomilian faith only under compulsion, now willingly abandoned the Catholic religion and went over to Mohammedanism, a change of belief which was to them all the easier from the fact that they could find in their new belief many points of resemblance to their old religious convictions, which had also rejected the cross, baptism, ecclesiastical pomp, ceremonial, the hierarchy, and the sacrament of marriage. The Queen-Dowager Katharina, stepmother to King Stefan, fled to Rome. She bequeathed the kingdom of Bosnia to the Pope, should her children not return to the arms of the Church; for these, too, had fallen into the hands of Muhammed, and had embraced the Mohammedan faith.

"A Turkish Vizier was appointed to administer the government and he took up his residence at Bosnia Sarai, now generally called Serajevo. But the Kings of Hungary had never given up their pretension to be considered lords of Bosnia, and almost immediately after the Sultan had quitted the country which he had so cruelly ravaged, Matthias Corvinus, King of Hungary, marched into Bosnia and made himself master of many of the towns and fortresses in spite of the strong opposition of the Turks. From this time forward for upwards of sixty years Bosnia was divided between two contending powers of Hungary and the Ottoman Porte, and was the scene of constant struggles between the hostile camps. But the Crescent prevailed against the Cross, for the King of Hungary was too weak to defend the extremities of his kingdom. In the year 1527, the whole of Bosnia had fallen into the hands of the Turks. [See TURKEY: 1402-1451.] One remarkable effect of the conquest of Bosnia by the Turks was, that a considerable part of the population embraced the Mussulman religion. We must never forget this when speaking, not only of the Bosnians, but also of other Mussulmans in Turkey in Europe. They are not Osmanlis—not of the same race as those fierce Orientals who crossed the Bosphorus, and made subject to their sway some of the fairest regions of the earth."—W. Forsyth, *Slavonic provinces south of the Danube*, pp. 70-80.

1528-1875.—Turkish rule.—"After the fall of Jajzta, the great families who owed allegiance to

the Hungarian crown . . . left the country. With them fled a great part of the population, especially the Catholics. . . . That part of the population which had not fled was partly destroyed in the wars, partly dragged into slavery; the boys were led away in troops to be retained as eunuchs and janizaries;—the residue, however, those, who remained true to the Christian faith, . . . deprived of all their goods and chattels, rapidly sank into the poverty-stricken ranks of the serfs. The Bogomils, however, with the old Bogomilian aristocracy at their heads, . . . went over to Islam in a body, and were received with open arms by the new rulers."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, p. 135.—This Turkish triumph was the opportunity of the Bogomils, who controlled the destinies of their country for nearly three centuries. The prospect of a brilliant military career, and the desire for vengeance against the Hungarians (hatred of the Hungarians and their religion was hereditary among the Bogomils) caused many of the native nobility to go over to Islam. The vali (Turkish governor) was the nominal ruler of the country. He rarely interfered in local affairs. This newly converted Moslem aristocracy ranked below him. "The governing classes had, through centuries of Turkish rule, and through constant war, fruitful in renown and booty, undertaken in behalf of the Koran, become absolutely Mohammedan, and deeply impregnated with that pride of Islamic worship which gazes down with contempt upon Christians. . . . Yet in spite of all this, the nobility remained true to its heirloom of national and family traditions, as to its speech; and in local importance not only took precedence of the Turkish strangers who had settled in their midst, were these never so equipped with absolute power and riches—for country folk universally prize the old lord, even when ruined, far above the new upstart—but with the peculiar strength of the national aristocracy it forthwith even assimilated the Turkish families who were permanently settling there."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, p. 140.—The Bosnian Bogomilian barons dwelt in fortified towns or castles (the vali was only admitted on sufferance for a few days), and formed a separate military caste, headed by forty-eight *kapetans*—landholders exercising unfettered authority over their retainers and Christian serfs—but were bound in return to provide a company of mounted troops for the service of their sovereign. "We see the feudal system: a chivalrous noble, always prepared for battle, living partly in the capital, where he tolerates no outside authority, no, not even that of the governing vizier, besides him; partly in his castle, always fortified against attack, and where he exercises an undisputed regal authority, and divides his life between the chase, and carousing . . . whilst the *misera contribuens plebs* battle against life's miseries in dull subjection. . . . Thus it came to pass that the aristocracy of the Bosnian Bogomilian barons, who had gone over to Islam, were maintained intact and unharmed. Ceaseless conquest kept the Sultans too fully occupied for it to be possible for them to pay much attention to internal organization. Accordingly they, like the Romans, accepted the institutions which they found in force . . . , provided that, and for as long as, they agreed to their plans of a world-wide conquest. . . . The central government was thus relieved of all local trouble."—J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. 132-134.

ALSO IN: E. de Laveleye, *Balkan Peninsula*, pp. 103-107.

We have these conditions existing until the nine-

teenth century. The Turks in the meantime had involved Bosnia in a series of wars against Venice, Austria and Hungary. In 1683 the Turkish army was defeated at Vienna. Zornik fell before the Austro-Hungarian army in 1688. Serajevo was burned in 1697 by Eugene of Savoy. By the treaty of Passarowitz (1718) (see HUNGARY: 1699-1718) a part of Bosnia was ceded to Austria by the Turks. In 1739 this territory was restored to the Turks at the peace of Belgrade (see RUSSIA: 1734-1740), but in 1790 the Austrian troops re-occupied it. The treaty of Sistova (1791) again fixed the line of the Save and Una as the frontier of Bosnia.

1849-1875.—Christian uprisings.—“The ebb tide of the Turk had begun. Austria and Russia in the eighteenth century had already decided upon the partition of his lands. Russia thought and cared only for Constantinople and the way there. Bosnia was recognized as Austria's sphere. The long wars and the liberation of the Serbs had effect in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Revolts, largely agrarian, of the Christians began to take place. The big landowners, though Slavs, were Moslems. Their peasants were largely Christian. In 1849 a great rising [occurred] followed by the flight of thousands of Christian peasants into Austria, who in time of stress has often been the South Slav's only friend. The Herzegovinians, encouraged and incited by the Montenegrins on their borders, rose frequently, and it was their great rising of 1875 which started the Russo-Turkish War of 1877. Before declaring war, however, Russia came to an agreement with Austria about Bosnia. It was understood that Austria should receive Bosnia on condition that she took no part in the war.”—M. E. Durham, *Twenty years of Balkan tangle*, pp. 144-145.

1875-1878.—Breaking of Turkish yoke.—Russo-Turkish war. See TURKEY: 1861-1877; 1877-1878; 1878.

1878.—Treaty of Berlin.—Austro-Hungarian occupation of Bosnia. See BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA: 1878; TURKEY: 1878.

1878-1920. See BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA.

BOSNIA-HERZEGOVINA. —“Bosnia and Herzegovina are situated in the northwest corner of the Balkan Peninsula, bounded on the north by the Slavonian province of Austro-Hungary [1908], on the east by Serbia, Turkey and Montenegro, and on the south and west by Dalmatia and the Adriatic Sea. The country is mountainous, being broken by high peaks, deep glens, and rich alluvial basins, which yield large crops of grain—wheat, barley, rye, oats and other cereals—and are especially adapted to fruit. The landscape is a series of terraces which slope gradually in a southwestward direction and finally disappear in the Adriatic, which coast is broken into an archipelago of lovely islands.”—W. E. Curtis, *Turk and his lost provinces*, pp. 276-277.—In 1920 the population was estimated at 1,931,802 to an area of 20,709 square miles.

ALSO IN: J. de Asbóth, *Bosnia and Herzegovina*, pp. vii-viii.

Originally part of the Turkish empire, the two provinces were placed under Austrian administration by the Congress of Berlin and in 1908 were definitely annexed by Austria, contrary to the agreement made at that Congress. Together they cover about 19,700 square miles. For history before Austro-Hungarian occupation see article on BOSNIA and article on HERZEGOVINA.

1878.—Treaty of Berlin.—Turkish loss.—Significance of the Austro-Hungarian occupation.—By the Treaty of Berlin . . . “Bosnia, including Her-

zegovina, was assigned to Austria for permanent occupation. Thus Turkey lost a great province of nearly 1,250,000 inhabitants. Of these about 500,000 were Christians of the Greek Church, 450,000 were Mohammedans, mainly in the towns, who offered a stout resistance to the Austrian troops, and 200,000 Roman Catholics. By the occupation of the Novi-Bazar district Austria wedged in her forces between Montenegro and Serbia, and was also able to keep watch over the turbulent province of Macedonia.”—J. H. Rose, *Century of continental history*, ch. 42. See TURKEY: 1878.

ALSO IN: E. Hertslot, *The map of Europe by treaty*, v. 4, nos. 518, 524-532.

1878-1908.—Austro-Hungarian occupation.—“The situation with which Austria had to cope in 1878 was one of immense difficulty. The country was in a state of anarchy and insurrection, and although the latter came to an end after a few months of desperate resistance, yet the work of pacification was far from completed. At this time, according to the *Vicomte de Caix*, nothing was secure—neither ‘the fruits of labour, nor property, nor persons.’ After four years of occupation order was established in a country which had never been fully quelled by four centuries of Turkish rule. A slight insurrection occurred in 1882, attributed by Miller to the Mussulman dislike of serving under Christians, but acknowledged by Herr von Kallay to have been aggravated by undue exactions by the lower officials. This proved to be the last flare of the revolutionary spirit, and from that time public security has remained undisturbed. Brigandage and crimes of violence, before a daily occurrence, sank to zero. . . . On their arrival the Austrians were besieged by Christians, who demanded the restitution of the lands alleged to have been seized by the Mussulmans, and even urged a general division of the soil. Investigation, however, proved that, if this robbery had ever taken place, it dated centuries back, and the authorities therefore resolved to make the best they could of the existing law, without risking one of those agrarian revolutions which redress an old wrong by committing a new one.

“Another complication lay in the fact that, in addition to the Mussulman element, there were two distinct parties among the Christians to be reckoned with—the Orthodox and the Roman Catholics. The settlement of the religious question occupied the immediate attention of the administration. In 1879 a convention was concluded between Austria and the Sultan, declaring that all those who shall be domiciled in Bosnia and the Herzegovina shall enjoy complete liberty in the exercise of their religion. Following up this edict of toleration, a concordat was drawn up between Austria and the Patriarch at Constantinople as regards that Greek or Serb Church which is so identified with the nation that it is true to say that ‘*en Bosnie, qui dit Orthodoxe, dit Serbe, et réciproquement* [in Bosnia to be Orthodox is to be Serbian, and vice versa].’ It was arranged that in the future nominations to the Bosnian bishoprics should first be submitted to the Emperor for ratification; further, that the remuneration of the Bishops should be placed on a different footing. The old casual donation—the *Vladitcharina*—which fluctuated according to the popularity of the recipient, was abolished, and the offering was levied as a tax, the Bishops receiving a definite revenue.”—G. Drage, *Austria-Hungary*, pp. 603-604.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1878; and AUSTRIA: Map showing Hapsburg possessions.

“The agrarian question is one of paramount importance in Bosnia-Herzegovina, where, accord-

ing to the last census (1895), 88 per cent. of the whole population are engaged in agriculture. The present agrarian system is based upon the Turkish law of Sefer 14, 1270 (September 12, 1859)—a land reform Act forced upon the Ottoman Government by popular insurrection and Austrian pressure. It has much in common with the metayer system. The landlord, or *Aga*, and the cultivator, or *Kmet*, share between them the produce of the soil in a proportion fixed by the custom of the village. The *Kmet* further pays one tithe to the Government, but in cash instead of in kind, as formerly under the Turkish Government. The unlimited *corvée* and the *don des femmes* was abolished with the advent of the Austrian Government. In Turkish times the administration was bad, and the collection of the tithe depended, in fact, on the presence of a military force, as otherwise it was refused. When the Austrian converted the payment in kind into a payment in money, the landlord took the Government assessment as the basis for calculating what was due to him. In this respect the *Kmet* doubtless was worse off. The tithe due to the Government had to be paid regularly, and the landlord's due, whether a third (*Tretina*) or a fourth or a fifth, had also to be paid regularly. Recently, by an Act of 1907, the Government converted the tithe into a tax levied on the basis of ten years' harvest. This was a great advantage to the tenant, who often lost part of his harvest by waiting for the arrival of the Government assessor. But the landlord was not obliged to accept the basis of assessment, and therefore still levies his dues on each individual crop, and the dues have to be calculated before harvest. The result is an enormous increase in disputes between landlord and tenant. In 1881 there were 4,555 agrarian disputes, in 1904 there were 10,784, but in 1907 there were 17,000—almost, as Dr. Baernreither says, a state of civil war. The fact is that the tenant has become more progressive, and payment in kind is always a hindrance to intensive agriculture. The solution lies, undoubtedly, in the conversion of the tenant into the owner, a process which has been in progress for some time, and which is supported by loans from the Government; but so far the permission of the landlord is necessary, and that, of course, is not always given. At present [1909] there are in Bosnia-Herzegovina 88,070 tenants pure and simple who have only land subject to dues. There are 22,655 'mixed' tenants, who not only hold land subject to dues, but also land which is freehold. The total number of tenants is 101,625, and of these 23,477 have bought their property out and out. At the rate at which this process is working out, two more generations will be required to complete it. Hitherto there have been two obstacles to accelerating purchase. The first is the want of economic training of tenant and landlord alike. The former would not have known how to manage the property, and the landlord, being not only ignorant of business, but also forbidden by Mohammedan law to put out money at interest, would have wasted the purchase-money. The other obstacle lay in the question where the money was to be found, which was decisive. At the present time, then, the questions which have to be settled by fresh legislation are these: When the landlord refuses to sell to a tenant perfectly well able to buy, shall he be compelled by law to do so? and if so, who is to determine the price? Dr. Baernreither proposes that the example of the Irish Land Act of 1881 shall be followed. In any case, the solution of the land problem is a matter of most pressing urgency, even if one does not go so far as Dr. Baernreither, and call the land prob-

lem 'that Bosnian question *par excellence*.' It is to be added that one of the ablest and most liberal-minded Austrian administrators that I met in Bosnia in 1908 informed me that for this purpose alone annexation of the provinces to Austria-Hungary was necessary, because a Government which was to solve the difficulty must do so without the possibility of appeal to Powers outside. The reform must come from within, and the Bosnians must themselves have a share in the responsibilities of making it by means of proper representative institutions. The preparatory work required to fit the tenant for entering on his work as a freeholder has been going on from the time of the occupation. Better methods of cultivation have been taught, model farms have been erected, the cattle plague has been stamped out, and the breed of cattle has been improved. In fact, the Government has been active in every measure that could tend to improving the position of the agriculturist, as the British Foreign Office Reports abundantly show. Moreover, help has been given to meet unexpected disasters. . . .

"Bosnia is famous for the cultivation of the plum in districts where the climatic conditions essential to success—namely, cool moist nights, a warm temperature by day, and a chalky soil—are to be found. Plums were, indeed, for long the article of commerce which brought the most money into the country. The plum harvest is spoken of as affecting the whole population, 'as everyone who has but a few yards of ground grows plums, if nothing else.' Now, however, according to Barre, the Government have taken up the manufacture of plum brandy, and the right to manufacture brandy, 'one of the chief sources of revenue of the peasant, has been withdrawn.' Tobacco is to the inhabitants of the Herzegovina what the plum is to the peasants of Bosnia—the one all-important crop and article of commerce. Tobacco is a Government monopoly, but a monopoly which has proved a boon, and has given a great impetus to this branch of agriculture. The peasants know they have a certain market for all the tobacco they can grow, and, although the price paid to growers had diminished by 1904, the peasants still find it worth while to grow a crop, and the cultivation is actually increasing. At the date of the occupation, cattle of all kinds had decreased greatly both in number and in quality. Years of war and insurrection had exhausted the once famous breed of horses. The administration began by stamping out the cattle plague; after 1886 special attention was paid to the breeding of cattle, and some very successful crosses were made. The Government has also instituted studs for horse-breeding, and there are horse-shows to encourage this industry. 'Everything,' says the Foreign Office Report, 'is done to improve the breed of horses in the provinces.' In consequence of the isolated condition of Bosnia and the Herzegovina, and the disturbed state of the provinces before 1878, industry and commerce were carried on there under great difficulties. Since the occupation, however, the improved administration, greater security, and development of communication, have effected a remarkable revolution in the trade of the provinces, and have brought them into close touch with the commerce of the world in general. The construction of roads, the steady annual extension of the railway net, the establishment of factories, and the consequent increased demand for raw produce, tend to develop agriculture.

"The trade of the provinces largely depends upon agrarian conditions—upon the harvest and the health of the cattle—but in recent years new fac-

tors begin to appear, and in 1904 the improvement in commerce generally was attributed partly to briskness in the timber trade. Three salient features have to be noted with regard to the commerce of Bosnia and the Herzegovina; first, the great preponderance of manufactured goods in the imports, and of raw materials in the exports; secondly, the increase in the total exports of both categories; and, finally the increase in the import of manufactures, and the decline in the export of raw material. In recent years a rapid increase has taken place in the volume of certain imports, among which are sugar, petroleum, and beer, all articles which in 1897 were produced in sufficient quantities in the country to all but cover the home demand. The exports which show the greatest expansion in recent years are timber, iron, chemicals, skins, spirituous liquors, meat, eggs, lubricating oil, and ores. Direct trade with foreign countries is still very small, and statistics with regard to the countries of origin and destination are vague and scanty. With little variation from year to year, 80 per cent. in quantity of the imports enter by Slavonia and Croatia, and the remainder by Dalmatia. The exports by way of Croatia-Slavonia have gradually fallen in eight years from 87 to 71 per cent., while the proportion by way of Dalmatia has risen from 13 to 29 per cent., this last increase being largely due to the railway recently built to Gravosa, the inclusion of Bosnia and the Herzegovina in the Austro-Hungarian trade, but Great Britain lost thereby an annual trade of more than £100,000, the importation from the United Kingdom of cloth, woolen goods, and copper, having almost entirely ceased. The development of communications which have such an important influence upon trade may be judged from the fact that there were in 1906 1,014 miles of railway, 1,908 miles of telegraph-lines, and 4,580 miles of wire. There were 156 telegraph-offices and 708,253 messages were transmitted. The telephone service had 56 miles of line and 305 miles of wire. In 1906 there were transmitted 16,742,330 letters and postcards, and 5,400,000 packets of printed matter, samples, and newspapers. Bosnia-Herzegovina is, as we have seen, largely agricultural, yet the wealth of the country in forests and minerals gives promise of industrial development which the Austrian administration has done its best to forward. Salt-mining, now a profitable Government monopoly, was never properly administered by the Turks, as the officials in charge of the salt works found it more profitable to themselves to keep the output low, and to eke out their salaries at the expense of the Government. All this was changed under Austrian management, and Bosnia no longer requires to import salt from the Dalmatian sea-coast. Salt production rose from 18,576 quintals in 1885 to 226,710 quintals in 1906. The mining of iron, copper, manganese, chromium, quicksilver, and coal, is also carried on. In 1906 the output of coal was 594,172 tons, of iron ore 136,513 tons, of manganese 7,651 tons, and 2,626 miners were employed. The timber trade, too, has been developed, and several large and small sawmills are now flourishing. There were already in 1894 the following factories at work, all of which were founded after the occupation: at Serajevo factories for brick, carpet, gold lace, inlaid wood, and encrusted metal work, nails, and brewing; at Zeniko, iron and steel, and paper works; at Brod, a petroleum refinery; at Tuzla, a distillery; at Usora, sugar factories. There were steam-sawmills at Podwitz, Hadzici, Doberlin, etc.; iron works and foundry at Vares; and there were tobacco factories at Mostar, Travnik, and

Banialuka. Many of these enterprises were started by the Government; in others the Government is pecuniarily interested. In 1902 a commencement was made with regulations of factory labour, and also with a system of insurance against sickness and accident. Some of the factories and industrial enterprises have not proved successful, but some, and especially the breweries, have made good profits. Not the least successful part of the activity of the government has been that connected with the revival of native industries. With this object the Government has set up an art workshop and school at Serajevo (q. v.) where beautiful work in metals and wood is turned out. The Government carpet factory, which gives employment to 600 women, also produces fabrics of great beauty, comparing favourably with those of Brusa and Constantinople. The Bosnian native products, indeed, made a very good show at the Millennial Exhibition at Buda-Pest (1897), and at the Industrial Exhibition at Brunn. The detractors of the Austrian administration have three grievances with regard to the development of commerce and industry, and bitter complaints are made with regard to the predominance of Austrians, and especially of Jews, in these new fields of activity, to the detriment of the Serbian race. There is some show of reason for these complaints as far as the Jews are concerned, for they have poured into the country since the occupation, and are as much detested here as elsewhere in Austria-Hungary. Moreover, out of 679 scholars of the nine commercial schools in Bosnia-Herzegovina, no less than sixty-four are Jews. The industrial ring, or *Kon-sortium*, which controls the brewing and other industries, is also an object of attack, and it is alleged that unfair favouritism is shown to this association. The reply of the Government is, obviously, that the Bosnia nationality is not yet competent to undertake the work, that competent natives always receive equality of opportunity, and that the Government is doing its best, by technical education, to develop the business capacity of the native population."—G. Drage, *Austria-Hungary*, pp. 616-626.

1908.—Annexation by Austria-Hungary.—“On October, 3, 1908, Emperor Francis Joseph of Austria-Hungary announced, through autograph letters to various rulers, his decision to incorporate Bosnia and Herzegovina definitely within his empire. These were Turkish provinces, handed over by the Congress of Berlin in 1878 to Austria-Hungary for ‘occupation,’ and administration, though they still remained officially under the suzerainty of the Porte. On October 5, 1908 Prince Ferdinand of Bulgaria proclaimed, amid great ceremony, the complete independence of Bulgaria from Turkish suzerainty, and assumed the title of Czar. Two days later the Greek population of the island of Crete repudiated all connection with Turkey and declared for union with Greece. On the same day, October 7, Francis Joseph issued a proclamation to the people of Bosnia and Herzegovina announcing the annexation of those provinces. Against this action Serbia protested vigorously to the powers, her parliament were immediately convoked, and the war spirit flamed up and threatened to get beyond control.”—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe, 1870-1910*, p. 299. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1908-1909; JUGO-SLAVIA: 1868-1917; and TURKEY: 1908.—The great majority of the inhabitants are Slav and wished to join with the neighboring and racially allied kingdom of Serbia. This feeling resulted in numerous attempts on the lives of Austrian officials together with a more or less open state of insurrection on the part of the

people, which Austrian officials claimed was aided and abetted by Serbia. (For Triple monarchy question, see AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1900, December.) Finally, after the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, at Serajevo, the Bosnian capital, Austria-Hungary addressed to Serbia the ultimatum which brought about the World War. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: e.

1909-1913.—In Formation of Balkan League. See SERBIA: 1909-1913.

1914-1918.—Attitude during World War. See JUGO-SLAVIA: 1914-1918: During World War.

1918-1921.—In the kingdom of Jugo-Slavia. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918; JUGO-SLAVIA; SERBIA.

BOSPORUS.—The word means literally an 'ox-ford,' and the Greeks derived it as a name from the legend of Io, who, turned into a heifer by Jupiter to escape the wrath of Juno, was tormented

shores and have wedged themselves tightly into the population. . . . The Turk has camped on this tip of the peninsula since the fourteenth century without ever settling. He failed to endow the region with nationality because, nomad that he was, he had none to confer. He failed to assimilate the conquered populations because the bleak and sandy steppes of his Asiatic homelands never gave birth to national institutions and he was forced to model a semblance of political organization after what he found on conquered soil."—L. Dominian, *Nationality map of Europe (League of Nations, December, 1917, pp. 74-75)*.—Owing to the commercial and strategic importance from earliest times of a body of water forming, with the sea of Marmora and the Dardanelles, an outlet to the peoples of the Black sea (q. v.) region, the question of possession of the straits has offered one of the most persistent problems. Russia's only ice-



VIEW OF THE BOSPORUS, EUROPEAN SIDE

Remains of an old Turkish fort are seen on the heights, in the rear of which are the buildings of Robert College

by a gad-fly sent by the jealous Juno, swam across the straits from Europe into Asia. They gave the name particularly to that channel, on which Constantinople lies, but applied it also to other similar straits, such as the Cimmerian Bosphorus, opening the Sea of Azov.—See also CONSTANTINOPLE: Map of the Dardanelles, etc.

Thracian Bosphorus (Strait of Constantinople).—Nationalities of.—Importance.—“To ascribe nationality to the shores of the straits is impossible from the standpoint of population. The coastland stretching from the Dardanelles [q.v.] to the Black sea entrance of the Bosphorus is inhabited by a motley population in which the most important elements are represented in almost equal numbers. Greeks mingle with Bulgarians, Turks and Armenians. The Bulgarians are mainly farmers while the Greeks are fishermen and sailors who control the petty coastline traffic. The Turk still rules as lord of the land and imposes himself by means of strong garrisons. Armenians are found everywhere especially in and around Constantinople. The Jews too are ancient dwellers on these

free ports lie on the Black sea, for the Baltic coasts are ice-bound during half the year. The narrowness of the straits (800 yds. to 2¾ mi.) brings to the city of Constantinople, the ancient Byzantium, not only the riches of the water trade but also the dominant position in the overland routes that cross at this narrowest point between Europe and Asia.

Ancient and medieval periods.—Greek, Roman, Byzantine and Turkish control.—The straits were formerly controlled from the western outlet as is shown by the eminence of Troy's position, where the ruins of nine cities have been recently been uncovered. The grain of the Black sea regions was of such vital importance to the Greeks that they destroyed their rival by the Trojan War. Athenian colonies were planted on the shores of Marmora (Propontis) and the Athenian navy secured for Athens the grain trade until Sparta overcame the Athenian fleet in the battle of Aegospotami. (For the battle, see GREECE: B. C. 405.) There was no problem when Rome was in control, for she had no rivals and she

looked to Egypt and Syria rather than to the north for her best trade. When Constantinople was created by the enlargement of the ancient city of Byzantium about A. D. 328 and the eastern capital of the empire established, a new era began. With the rise of the Mohammedans in the seventh century, which closed all other trade routes between Europe and Asia, the city of the Bosphorus held a unique position. She developed that mixture of Greek, Roman and oriental culture called Byzantine and prospered in spite of the degeneracy that luxury brought her. Beginning with the eleventh century the Italian trading cities inaugurated a period of destructive rivalry for the sole control of the eastern trade, which meant the sole control of the Bosphorus and Constantinople. There would have been enough for all, if all had been willing to share commercial privilege, yet trade monopoly was insistently sought and jealously guarded. The result was continual and suicidal warfare. The Turkish advance chose the line of least resistance and crossed the straits first at the Dardanelles, seizing Gallipoli in 1356. The Genoese and Venetian merchant fleets were for some time more powerful than the short ranged Turkish land guns and only with the taking of Constantinople in 1453, was Turkish control finally established. (See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1453.) By 1475 the Black sea had become a Turkish lake and so it remained until the arrival of Russia upon its shores in 1774. The only resource open to the European traders lay in obtaining from Turkey concessions called capitulations. The first of the capitulations was obtained in 1535 by Francis I of France, then England was granted one in 1579, the Netherlands in 1598, Austria in 1718. These capitulations allowed trade with Constantinople but the Bosphorus and the Black sea remained closed to all but Turkish ships, which, however, might be chartered by foreign merchants.

1774-1807.—Beginning of modern problem.—Treaty of Kuchuk Kainarji.—Napoleon in the east.—English interests.—Treaty of Adrianople.—The Bosphorus was finally forced open from the east instead of from the west. Catherine II of Russia conquered the Turkish coastlands of the Black sea and the era of Turko-Russian rivalry opened. The treaty of Kuchuk-Kainarji in 1774 marked the establishing of Russia on the Black sea. (See TURKEY: 1768-1774.) This treaty inaugurated a series of nineteenth century treaties, and in its recognition of Russia's rights to protect Greek Christians in Turkey was made a basis for the Russian interference in Turkish affairs that challenged other powers and led to the Crimean War. Catherine's attempts to gain Constantinople failed though she waged a new war on Turkey in 1789 with Austria as an ally. After Russia had made the opening wedge in Turkish control of the straits, Austria gained free passage in 1784, England in 1799, France in 1802 and Prussia in 1806. So far the straits were a commercial rather than a naval problem, except for Russia, but Napoleon's Egyptian campaign definitely opened the modern phase. England began to realize the importance of the near-eastern route to India, France became an invader of the domains of her former friend Turkey, and since Constantinople and the Bosphorus mark the cross roads of the route to India and the route to Odessa, English, Napoleonic and Russian interests met. Napoleon in Egypt frightened Turkey and Russia, traditional enemies, into an alliance that brought Russian warships to guard the Bosphorus. With the accession of Alexander I, Russian policy urged not the partition of Turkey, but the preservation of a weak, easily-coerced

Turkish control at Constantinople. Napoleon's ambassador Sebastiani was successful in breaking the Russo-Turkish agreement and Turkey and France fought England and Russia in the Napoleonic wars. (See also TURKEY: 1806-1807.) The British fleet coming to support Russia even reached Constantinople, forcing the Dardanelles in March, 1807. After Napoleon's fall, England signed with Turkey the treaty of Constantinople, known as the peace of the Dardanelles, which agreed to the closing of the straits to ships of war. The treaty was so worded that England, though she recognized Turkish sovereignty, became guardian to the straits almost as much as Turkey. When Turkish outrages in the Balkans stirred Europe, Russia marched across the Balkan peninsula with such success that she was able to dictate the peace of Adrianople, September, 1829. (See TURKEY: 1826-1829.) In 1826 Nicholas I had forced Turkey to grant Russia the freedom of the straits, this Adrianople reiterated with the additional proviso that any interference by the Turk with Russia's absolute freedom would be met by "reprisals against the Ottoman Empire."

1832-1878.—Mehemet Ali and the treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi.—Crimean War.—In 1832 the revolt of Mehemet Ali threatened Turkey's existence. "To save himself from Mehemet Ali the Sultan appealed to the Powers. Russia alone responded to the appeal, and as a reward for her services imposed upon the Porte the humiliating treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi (1833). By the terms of the treaty Russia became virtual mistress of the Bosphorus and the Dardanelles. The Tsar bound himself to render unlimited assistance to the Porte by land and sea, and in return the Sultan undertook to close the Straits to the ships of war of all nations, while permitting free egress to the Russian fleet. To all intents and purposes the Sultan had become the vassal of the Tsar. . . . The Treaty of Unkiar-Skelessi inaugurates yet another phase in the evolution of the Eastern Question. From that time down to the Treaty of Berlin (1878) the primary factor in the problem is found in the increasing mistrust and antagonism between Great Britain and Russia."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question*, p. 11.—In 1839 Mehemet Ali defeated the sultan and the breakup of the Ottoman empire was awaited by Russia, with her grasp extended on the north, and by France, eager for Egypt. Finally in 1840 the treaty of London was signed by the powers (including Russia who had objected strenuously), returning the sultan to power and closing the straits to the warships of all nations. This was altered, however, by the Straits convention of 1841 of which the significant phrase is: "So long as the Porte is at peace, His Highness will admit no foreign ships of war into the said straits." Russian predominance had been dealt a hard blow and Holy Russia, as protector of Greek orthodoxy against the Turk invaded Turkey in 1853. Napoleon III entered the conflict as protector of Roman Catholicism and its holy places of the east and England joined France to defend Turkey. The allied fleets of England, France and Turkey besieged and conquered Sevastopol, the Russian Black sea fortress on the Crimean peninsula. The Crimean War was closed by the treaty of Paris, 1856, reaffirming the convention of the Straits and declaring the Black sea neutral water, forbidding warships to use it with the exception of two light war vessels of each of the powers to secure the mouth of the Danube. (See RUSSIA: 1854-1856.) Russia was denied not only a Black sea fleet but even arsenals on the coast. The neutralization scheme was

scarcely a sincere peace move on the part of the powers since warships were denied passage of the Bosphorus only "so long as the Porte is at peace." If Turkey might be drawn into the conflict by an enemy of Russia, warships could be passed to the defenseless Russian coast. The disarmament of Russia alone was secured. The chance for Russia to make good her losses came when the Franco-Prussian War distracted France and when Bismarck desired to purchase Russian friendship. The treaty of London, 1871, recognized the right of Russia to maintain a fleet upon the Black sea which was to be no longer neutral. This treaty remained in force until the World War. It was approved by the congress of Berlin, 1878.—See also **TURKEY: 1878.**

1878-1914.—Influence of the Central Powers.—**Drang nach Osten.**—"Since 1878, new defenders of Ottoman integrity against the Russians have arisen. The Central European Powers, Italy, Austria and Germany, achieved their national unity in the two decades preceding the treaty of Berlin. Hemmed in on the west by Great Britain and France and on the east by Russia, born too late to extend their political sovereignty over vast colonial domains, and unable (if only for lack of coaling-stations) to develop sea power greater than that of their rivals, nothing was more natural than the German and Austro-Hungarian conception of a *Drang nach Osten* through the Balkan peninsula, over the bridge of Constantinople, into the markets of Asia. . . . The integrity of the Ottoman Empire became of secondary interest to the British from the moment they gained control of Egypt and realized what the Suez Canal meant to them."—H. A. Gibbons, *Reconstruction of Poland and the Near East*, pp. 57-58.—"By means of this alliance with the Kalif and Sultan, the Kaiser hoped to cut the line of communications between Great Britain and her Eastern Empire. From the Bosphorus he could threaten Egypt and the Canal. Constantinople was all-important as a station on the trunk line between Bremen and Basra. Just as in the fifteenth century the Sea-Powers of Western Europe turned the flank of the Ottoman Turks by the discovery of the Cape Route to India, so in the twentieth should Germany turn the flank of the Mistress of the Seas by the construction of the Bagdad railway."—J. A. R. Marriott, *European commonwealth*, p. 308.—See also **BAGDAD RAILWAY; GERMANY: 1890-1914.**

1887.—Regarded as international by Russia and Germany in secret treaty. See **GERMANY: 1887.**

1914-1918.—World War.—Failure of Dardanelles campaign.—"In February [1915] the world learned that an English fleet, assisted by a French squadron, was bombarding the forts of the Dardanelles, and high hopes were entertained in the allied countries that the passage of the Straits would be quickly forced. Nothing would have done so much to frustrate German diplomacy in southeastern Europe as a successful blow at Constantinople. But the hopes roused by the initiation of the enterprise were not destined to fulfilment. How far the expedition to the Dardanelles may have averted dangers in other directions it is impossible to say; but, as regards the accomplishment of its immediate aims, the enterprise was a ghastly, though a gallant failure."—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question*, pp. 16-17, 434-435.—See also **DARDANELLES: 1915.**—"By virtue of the agreement made between France, Russia, and Britain, following the Turks' entrance into the struggle on the German side, the division of the Turkish Empire, after victory, was at last set down in definite terms.

Russia was to have Constantinople. . . . But Russia fell and with the revolution Russian claims disappeared. The whole Eastern Question was thus thrown in the melting pot again. . . . In this situation the British increased their garrisons in Constantinople until they dominated the situation. . . . With the manifest approval in London and undisguised criticism in Paris and Rome, Greek troops have begun a very considerable offensive, both from Smyrna eastward and from Panderma on the Sea of Marmora southward, scoring initial victories and pushing inland toward the Anatolian section of the Bagdad Railway, possession of which would pretty thoroughly smash Turkish power to conduct a campaign, either against Smyrna or Constantinople. . . . Coincident with the Greek land operations, the British fleet has been in action on the Marmora coast and British troops on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus near Ismid have been fighting with the Turks. . . . [See **TURKEY: 1920.**] To put the thing bluntly, then, Britain seems to have decided to back the Greek in the Near East, just as Russia backed the Serbian, Germany, the Bulgarian, and exactly as the British backed the Turk in the last century. . . . Now what the British want in the Near East is not so much power as protection. The Germans used to speak of the Suez Canal, as the 'Heel of Achilles of the British Empire.' . . . In 1915, as a war necessity, the British did consent to the Russian annexation of Constantinople as one of the fruits of victory. But the consent was given reluctantly and represented a break with the whole of British policy in the preceding century. With Russia eliminated British policy returns to old channels. But for the British public the Turk has become impossible. In this situation Greece offers an attractive alternative."—F. H. Simonds, *Greek versus Turk (American Review of Reviews, August, 1920, pp. 161-162).*—See also **WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. TURKEY: a.**

1918.—Turkey yields the Bosphorus to the Allies. See **WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: d.**

ALSO IN: C. Phillipson and N. Buxton, *Question of the Bosphorus and Dardanelles (1917)*.—J. A. R. Marriott, *Eastern question (1917)*.—W. E. D. Allen, *Turks in Europe (1910)*.

1920.—Turkish peace treaty.—"The Turkish peace treaty, work on which began early in February [1920], was not ready for presentation to Tewfik Pasha, head of the Ottoman peace delegation, until May 11. By the terms of this treaty Constantinople, while left under the sovereignty of the Sultan, is to be permanently occupied by a small international force of Allied troops; similar control of the coastal areas, waters and navigation of the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus, with their approaches and the islands guarding the same, is to be placed under a Straits Commission appointed by the League of Nations and composed of British, French, Italian and Japanese representatives with two votes each, and of Greek and Rumanian representatives with one vote each. Provision is made for the future representation of Russia and the United States with two votes each and of Bulgaria with one vote. An international guard is provided to garrison the straits, which are to be open in times of peace and war alike to all vessels of commerce or war without distinction of flag. These waters are not to be subject to blockade, and no act of war may be committed in them except in enforcing the decisions of the League of Nations. . . . and all fortifications along the straits are to be destroyed. . . . The Turks have expressed keen dissatisfaction with

the treaty, but all pleas for concessions have thus far been rejected; the Nationalists under Mustapha Kemal Pasha have refused to submit to it in its present form. During May and early in June the Nationalists, in control of Asiatic Turkey, drove the French to the coast of Cilicia and then marched to attack the Straits zone. . . . Greece was given a free hand to deal with the Turkish Nationalists."—E. D. Graper and H. J. Carman, *Record of political events (Political Science Quarterly, Sept., 1910, pp. 8-12)*.—See also DARDANELLES: 1900; SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part III. Political clauses: The Straits; TURKEY: 1921 (March-April): Secret treaties.

BOSPORUS, Cimmerian.—The Cimmerian Bosphorus is the ancient name of the strait connecting the Black Sea with the Sea of Azov (now called the Straits of Kerch or Yenikale).

The city and kingdom.—"Respecting Bosphorus, or Pantikapæum (for both names denote the same city, though the former name often comprehends the whole annexed dominion) founded by Milesian settlers on the European side of the Kimmerian Bosphorus (near Kertsch) we first hear, about the period when Xerxes was repulsed from Greece (480-479 B.C.) It was the centre of a dominion including Phanagoria, Kepi, Hermonassa, and other Greek cities on the Asiatic side of the strait; and it is said to have been governed by what seems to have been an oligarchy—called the Archæanaktidæ—for forty-two years (480-438 B.C.). After them we have a series of princes standing out individually by name, and succeeding each other in the same family [438-284 B.C.] . . . During the reigns of these princes, a connexion of some intimacy subsisted between Athens and Bosphorus; a connexion not political, since the Bosphoric princes had little interest in the contentions about Hellenic hegemony—but of private intercourse, commercial exchange and reciprocal good offices. The eastern corner of the Tauric Chersonesus, between Pantikapæum and Theodosia, was well suited for the production of corn; while plenty of fish, as well as salt, was to be had in or near the Palus Mæotis. Corn, salted fish and meat, hides and barbaric slaves in considerable numbers, were in demand among all Greeks round the Ægean, and not least at Athens, where Scythian slaves were numerous; while oil and wine, and other products of more southern regions, were acceptable in Bosphorus and the other Pontic ports. This important traffic seems to have been mainly carried on in ships and by capital belonging to Athens and other Ægean maritime towns, and must have been greatly under the protection and regulation of the Athenians, so long as their maritime empire subsisted. Enterprising citizens of Athens went to Bosphorus (as to Thrace and the Thracian Chersonesus), to push their fortunes. . . . We have no means of following [the fortunes of the Bosphoric princes] in detail; but we know that, about a century B.C., the then reigning prince, Parisades IV. found himself so pressed and squeezed by the Scythians, that he was forced (like Olbia and the Pentapolis) to forego his independence, and to call in, as auxiliary or master, the formidable Mithridates Eupator of Pontus; from whom a new dynasty of Bosphoric kings began—subject, however, after no long interval, to the dominion and interference of Rome."—G. Grote, *History of Greece, pt. 2, ch. 98*.—See also MITHRADATIC WARS; ROME: Republic: B. C. 47-46.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome, bk. 8, ch. 7*.

A. D. 255.—Acquisition by the Goths. See GOTHs: Acquisition of the Bosphorus.

565-574.—Capture by the Turks.—"During the reign of Justin [565-574] the city of Bosphorus, in Tauris, had been captured by the Turks, who then occupied a considerable portion of the Tauric Chersonesus. The city of Cherson alone continued to maintain its independence in the northern regions of the Black Sea."—G. Finlay, *Greece under the Romans, ch. 4, sect. 8*. See TURKEY: 6th century.

BOSS: In politics.—Tammany Hall as an example of boss control.—"The Boss is often a man of humble birth, who has gathered the reins of party as the reward of long and faithful work in the wards of a city. He has gained control of the primaries in his district by free spending and unflagging attentions to doubtful voters. He has stood bail in the courts, attended fires and furnished quarters for the refugees, secured jobs for men out of work, bought hundreds of lottery tickets at church picnics, and has been an assiduous attendant at weddings and funerals. His ability to handle men is of vastly more importance than his principles. If he is able to wield several primary districts he gains access to the Ring and his progress to the head of the Machine is measured in direct ratio to the number of districts which he carries in his pocket. A full-fledged Boss is an autocrat in his own sphere, so long as he can produce the votes. Power cleaves to him who takes it. He enslaves the liquor interests through his control over the excise [written in 1918]. Through his possession of votes he fortifies his position by the control of a large number of city offices, some 40,000 in New York City. His entrenchments are thrown around the City Council, the Bench, and even into the State and National Legislatures. The *locus classicus* of Boss control of a city Machine is Tammany Hall, the Democratic organization in New York City. The Democratic voters in each assembly district elect delegates to the County General Committee in the ratio of one delegate for every twenty-five Democratic votes cast in the last gubernatorial election. The 'leaders' of the thirty-five districts, who are always members of this General Committee of 5,000, constitute the Executive Committee, the actual sovereign power in Tammany. In each assembly district is also maintained a District Committee, which appoints a Captain for every voting precinct in the district. The eleven hundred captains have control of some patronage and much money, and are usually closely allied to the liquor interests. Each is responsible for the vote of his precinct. This powerful mechanism, controlling upwards of 200,000 votes, is manipulated by a Boss who can guarantee the votes of a sufficient number of districts, so that he holds the whip hand in the executive committee. He may seek office for himself, as did W. M. Tweed, who had himself elected to the State Legislature and to Congress; quite as likely he rules, like Lorenzo di Medici, without a title."—C. Seymour and D. P. Frary, *How the world votes, v. 1, pp. 268-270*.—See also NEW YORK CITY: 1863-1871.

Bossism and democracy.—"The evils so prevalent in the elections of democracies are not inherent in democracy, but are due to the neglect of fundamental principles; interests are not properly represented, large numbers of the electorate are often illiterate and ignorant of political issues, and party managers too often violate every law of political ethics in their eagerness for victory. Yet 'bossism' in politics is, after all, merely a passing phase of a period of transition. The so-called practical politician is often the veriest tyro in actual knowledge of political principles. His policy is crude and

short-sighted and based on the Machiavellian principle that the end justifies the means. Permanent success is based only on a fostering of economic interests of all the people and on a strengthening of their intelligence and morality. Corrupt politicians may seem to succeed for a time, but they ultimately earn for themselves only contempt and dishonor. All experience shows that permanent honor in the political annals of any country is paid only to those men who despise trickery and dishonesty and who labor intelligently for the larger interests of their fellow-citizens. Obviously, therefore, the true policy of government should be to encourage by its laws intelligence and honesty in government. Political corruption and betrayal of trust should be sternly punished and electional systems should be so adjusted as to favor honest voters and to encourage free expression of intelligent opinion. No wise democracy can afford to allow the primary, the convention, the ballot, and the count to be so manipulated as to thwart the will of the electorate. The machinery of government should not be adjusted for incompetency and dishonesty but for the accomplishment of the best work in the most economical manner. An intelligently educated citizen body with guaranteed civil and political rights and with proper facilities for the expression of its will, may always be depended on to assert its privileges and express its will. Democracy demands energy, intelligence, and aggressiveness for its maintenance, and these must be purposively fostered by the state as an indispensable condition of its own prosperity."—J. Q. Dealey, *State and government*, pp. 323-324.

ALSO IN: H. E. Deming, *Government of American cities*.—F. J. Goodnow, *Politics and administration*.—F. C. Lowell, *Article on the American boss* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Sept., 1900).—G. Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*.—M. Ostrogorski, *Democracy and the organization of political parties*.—W. B. Munro, *Government of American cities*.

IN SPAIN. See SPAIN: 1900-1909.

BOSSUET, Jacques Bénigne (1627-1704), French divine, orator and historian. See HISTORY: 18; 24.

BOSTON, capital and largest city of the state of Massachusetts, Suffolk county. It is situated at the mouths of the Charles and Mystic rivers, on Massachusetts bay.

"When Boston was first settled, there were 780 acres of land area. To-day [1919], with the acquisition of surrounding territory and filled-in land, the acreage is over 30,000, of which 1,137 acres are water." Its population in 1920 was 747,923. "The city maintains 450 schools, of which 15 are high and Latin, one normal, 254 elementary, 143 kindergarten and 12 industrial. Besides these there are 35 evening schools. Besides these there are over 100 other schools and colleges located in the city. In 1918 there was a registration of nearly 160,000 pupils in the schools maintained by the city. The New England Conservatory of Music is the largest college of music in the United States. Harvard Medical School has the finest group of medical buildings in the country. . . . Among the many museums of the country the New England Historical Genealogical Society has the most extensive genealogical collection known. The Natural History Museums, the Naval Museum at the Government Navy Yard, the various collections owned by Harvard University and the relics preserved in several of the historical buildings of the city are varied and are inspected annually by hundreds of thousands of visitors."—*Current Affairs* (*Boston Chamber of Commerce*), June 30, 1919.

1628-1630.—Founding and naming of the city.—"As a town of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, Boston dates back to 1630. In that year Governor Winthrop arrived and selected as his official residence the spot called by the Indians 'Shawmut,' naming it 'Boston.' Boston continued under a town meeting government until 1822, when it was incorporated as a city."—See also MASSACHUSETTS: 1630.

1631.—Opposition of court against Roger Williams as minister of Salem church. See RHODE ISLAND: 1631-1636.

1631-1651.—Puritan theocracy. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1631-1636, to 1646-1651.

1656-1661.—Persecution of Quakers. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1656-1661.

1657-1669.—Halfway Covenant and the founding of the Old South Church.—"In Massachusetts after 1650 the opinion rapidly gained ground that all baptised persons of upright and decorous lives ought to be considered, for practical purposes, as members of the church, and therefore entitled to the exercise of political rights, even though unqualified for participation in the Lord's Supper. This theory of church-membership, based on what was at that time stigmatized as the Halfway Covenant, aroused intense opposition. It was the great question of the day. In 1657 a council was held in Boston, which approved the principle of the Halfway Covenant; and as this decision was far from satisfying the churches, a synod of all the clergymen in Massachusetts was held five years later, to reconsider the great question. The decision of the synod substantially confirmed the decision of the council, but there were some dissenting voices. Foremost among the dissenters, who wished to retain the old theocratic régime in all its strictness, was Charles Chauncy, the president of Harvard College, and Increase Mather agreed with him at the time, though he afterward saw reason to change his opinion and published two tracts in favour of the Halfway Covenant. Most bitter of all toward the new theory of church-membership was, naturally enough, Mr. Davenport of New Haven. This burning question was the source of angry contentions in the First Church of Boston. Its teacher, the learned and melancholy Norton, died in 1663, and four years later the aged pastor, John Wilson, followed him. In choosing a successor to Wilson the church decided to declare itself in opposition to the liberal decision of the synod, and in token thereof invited Davenport to come from New Haven to take charge of it. Davenport, who was then seventy years old, was disgusted at the recent annexation of his colony to Connecticut. He accepted the invitation and came to Boston, against the wishes of nearly half of the Boston congregation, who did not like the illiberal principle which he represented. In little more than a year his ministry at Boston was ended by death; but the opposition to his call had already proceeded so far that a secession from the old church had become inevitable. In 1669 the advocates of the Halfway Covenant organized themselves into a new society under the title of the 'Third Church in Boston.' A wooden meeting-house was built on a lot which had once belonged to the late Governor Winthrop, in what was then the south part of the town, so that the society and its meeting-house became known as the South Church; and after a new church founded in Summer Street in 1717 took the name of the New South, the church of 1669 came to be further distinguished as the Old South. As this church represented a liberal idea which was growing in favour with the people, it soon became

the most flourishing church in America. After sixty years its numbers had increased so that the old meeting-house could not contain them; and in 1729 the famous building which still stands was erected on the same spot,—a building with a grander history than any other on the American continent, unless it be that other plain brick building in Philadelphia where the Declaration of Independence was adopted and the Federal Constitution framed."—J. Fiske, *Beginnings of New England*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: H. M. Dexter, *Congregationalism of the last 300 years*, lecture 9.—B. B. Wisner, *History of the Old South Church*, sermon 1.—W. Emerton, *Historical sketch of the first church in Boston*, section 4-7.

1674-1678.—King Philip's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1674-1675; 1675; 1676-1678.

1682.—Rising for William and Mary and the downfall of Andros. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1686-1689.

1697.—Threatened attack by the French. See CANADA: 1692-1697.

18th century.—Commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Era of geographic expansion: 17th-18th centuries: North American colonies.

1704.—First newspaper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1704-1729.

1740-1742.—Origin of Faneuil hall. See FANEUIL HALL.

1761.—Question of the Writs of Assistance and James Otis's speech. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1761.

1765-1767.—Doings under the "Liberty Tree." See LIBERTY TREE.

1768.—Seizure of the sloop "Liberty."—Riotous patriotism.—"For some years these officers [of the customs] had been resisted in making seizures of uncustomed goods, which were frequently rescued from their possession by interested parties, and the determination of the commissioners of customs to break up this practice frequently led to collisions; but no flagrant outbreak occurred until the seizure of John Hancock's sloop 'Liberty' (June 10, 1768), laden with a cargo of Madeira wine. The officer in charge, refusing a bribe, was forcibly locked up in the cabin, the greater part of the cargo was removed, and the remainder entered at the custom-house as the whole cargo. This led to seizure of the vessel, said to have been the first made by the commissioners, and for security she was placed under the guns of the 'Romney,' a man-of-war in the harbor. For this the revenue officers were roughly handled by the mob. Their boat was burned, their houses threatened, and they, with their alarmed families, took refuge on board the 'Romney,' and finally in the Castle. These proceedings undoubtedly led to the sending of additional military forces to Boston in September. The General Court was in session at the time, but no effectual proceedings were taken against the rioters. Public sympathy was with them in their purposes if not in their measures."—M. Chamberlain, *Revolution impending (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 6, ch. 1)*.

1768.—Quartering of British troops.—"Before news had reached England of the late riot in Boston, two regiments from Halifax had been ordered thither. When news of that riot arrived, two additional regiments were ordered from Ireland. The arrival of an officer, sent by Gage from New York, to provide quarters for these troops, occasioned a town meeting in Boston, by which the governor was requested to summon a new General Court, which he peremptorily refused to do. The meeting then recommended a convention

of delegates from all the towns in the province to assemble at Boston in ten days; 'in consequence of prevailing apprehensions of a war with France'—such was the pretence—they advised all persons not already provided with fire-arms to procure them at once; they also appointed a day of fasting and prayer, to be observed by all the Congregational societies. Delegates from more than a hundred towns met accordingly at the day appointed [Sept. 22], chose Cushing, speaker of the late House, as their chairman, and petitioned Bernard to summon a General Court. The governor not only refused to receive their petition, but denounced the meeting as treasonable. In view of this charge, the proceedings were exceedingly cautious and moderate. All pretensions to political authority were expressly disclaimed. In the course of a four days' session a petition to the King was agreed to, and a letter to the agent, De Berdt, of which the chief burden was to defend the province against the charge of a rebellious spirit. Such was the first of those popular conventions, destined within a few years to assume the whole political authority of the colonies. The day after the adjournment the troops from Halifax arrived. There was room in the barracks at the castle, but Gage, alarmed at the accounts from Massachusetts, had sent orders from New York to have the two regiments quartered in the town. The council were called upon to find quarters, but, by the very terms of the Quartering Act, as they alleged, till the barracks were full there was no necessity to provide quarters elsewhere. Bernard insisted that the barracks had been reserved for the two regiments expected from Ireland, and must, therefore, be considered as already full. The council replied, that, even allowing that to be the case, by the terms of the act, the provisions of quarters belonged not to them, but to the local magistrates. . . . One of the regiments encamped on the common; for a part of the other regiment, which had no tents, the temporary use of Faneuil Hall was reluctantly yielded; to the rest of it, the Town House, used also as a State House, all except the council chamber, was thrown open by the governor's order. . . . Presently Gage came to Boston to urge the provision of quarters. The council directed his attention to the terms of the act, and referred him to the selectmen. As the act spoke only of justices of the peace, the selectmen declined to take any steps in the matter. Bernard then constituted what he called a Board of Justices, and required them to find quarters; but they did not choose to exercise a doubtful and unpopular authority. Gage was finally obliged to quarter the troops in houses which he hired for the purpose, and to procure out of his own military chest the firing, bedding, and other articles mentioned in the Quartering Act, the council having declined to order any expenditure for those purposes, on the ground that the appropriation of money belonged exclusively to the General Court."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v. 2, ch. 29*.

ALSO IN: R. Frothingham, *Life and times of Joseph Warren, ch. 6*.—T. Hutchinson, *History of the province of Massachusetts Bay, 1749-1774, pp. 202-217*.

1769.—Patriots threatened and Virginia speaking out. See U. S. A.: 1769.

1770.—Soldiers and citizens in collision.—The "massacre."—Removal of the troops.—"As the spring of the year 1770 appeared, the 14th and 20th regiments had been in Boston about seventeen months. The 14th was in barracks near the Brattle Street Church; the 20th was quartered just south of King Street; about midway between them, in

King Street, and close at hand to the town-house, was the main guard, whose nearness to the public buildings had been a subject of great annoyance to the people. . . . One is forced to admit . . . that a good degree of discipline was maintained; no blood had as yet been shed by the soldiers, although provocations were constant, the rude element in the town growing gradually more aggressive as the soldiers were never allowed to use their arms. Insults and blows with fists were frequently taken and given, and cudgels also came into fashion in the brawls. Whatever awe the regiments had inspired at their first coming had long worn off. In particular the workmen of the rope-walks and ship-yards allowed their tongues the largest license and were foremost in the encounters. About the 1st of March fights of unusual bitterness had occurred near Grey's rope-walk, not far from the quarters of the 29th, between the hands of the rope-walk and soldiers of that regiment, which had a particularly bad reputation. The soldiers had got the worst of it, and were much irritated. Threats of revenge had been made, which had called out arrogant replies, and signs abounded that serious trouble was not far off. From an early hour on the evening of the 5th of March the symptoms were very ominous. . . . At length an altercation began in King Street between a company of lawless boys and a few older brawlers on the one side, and the sentinel, who paced his beat before the custom-house, on the other. . . . The soldier retreated up the steps of the custom-house and called out for help. A file of soldiers was at once despatched from the main guard, across the street, by Captain Preston, officer of the guard, who himself soon followed to the scene of trouble. A coating of ice covered the ground, upon which shortly before had fallen a light snow. A young moon was shining; the whole transaction, therefore, was plainly visible. The soldiers, with the sentinel, nine in number, drew up in line before the people, who greatly outnumbered them. The pieces were loaded and held ready, but the mob, believing that the troops would not use their arms except upon requisition of a civil magistrate, shouted coarse insults, pressed upon the very muzzles of the pieces, struck them with sticks, and assaulted the soldiers with balls of ice. In the tumult precisely what was said and done cannot be known. Many affidavits were taken in the investigation that followed, and, as always at such times, the testimony was most contradictory. Henry Knox, afterwards the artillery general, at this time a bookseller, was on the spot and used his influence with Preston to prevent a command to fire. Preston declared that he never gave the command. The air, however, was full of shouts, daring the soldiers to fire, some of which may have been easily understood as commands, and at last the discharge came. If it had failed to come, indeed, the forbearance would have been quite miraculous. Three were killed outright, and eight were wounded, only one of whom, Crispus Attucks, a tall mulatto who faced the soldiers, leaning on a stick of cordwood, had really taken any part in the disturbance. The rest were bystanders or were hurrying into the street, not knowing the cause of the tumult. . . . A wild confusion . . . took possession of the town. The alarm-bells rang frantically; on the other hand the drums of the regiments thundered to arms. . . . What averted a fearful battle in the streets was the excellent conduct of Hutchinson—the lieutenant-governor, who made his way promptly to the scene, caused the troops to be sent back to their barracks, ordered the arrest of Captain Preston and the nine sol-

diers who had done the firing, and began an investigation of the affair the same night. The next day a great town meeting was held, and, as crowds from the surrounding towns pressed in, it was adjourned from Faneuil hall [see FANEUIL HALL] to the Old South church, and overflowed in the neighboring streets. A formal demand for the removal of the troops was sent to the governor and council by a committee which had Samuel Adams at its head. Governor Hutchinson disclaimed authority over the troops; but their commanding officer, Colonel Dalrymple, proposed to compromise by sending away the 29th regiment and retaining the 14th. As the committee returned to the meeting with this proposal, through the crowd, Adams dropped right and left the words, "Both regiments or none."—"Both regiments or none." So he put into the mouths of the people their reply, which they shouted as with one voice when the report of the committee was made to them. There was a determination in the cry which overcame even the obstinacy of Governor Hutchinson, and the departure of both regiments was ordered that same day. "In England the affair was regarded as a 'successful bully' of the whole power of the government by the little town, and when Lord North received details of these events he always referred to the 14th and 29th as the 'Sam Adams regiments.'"—J. K. Hosmer, *Samuel Adams*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: R. Frothingham, *Life and times of Joseph Warren*, ch. 6.—Same, *Sam Adams Regiments* (*Atlantic Monthly*, v. 9, 10, and 12; 1862-63).—J. Q. Adams, *Life of John Adams*, v. 1, ch. 3.—T. Hutchinson, *History of the province of Massachusetts Bay, 1749-1774*, pp. 270-280.—H. Niles, *Principles and acts of the Revolution*, (Centennial edition), pp. 15-79.—F. Kedder, *History of the Boston massacre*.

1770.—Fair trial of the soldiers.—"The episode [of the affray of March 5] had . . . a sequel which is extremely creditable to the American people. It was determined to try the soldiers for their lives, and public feeling ran so fiercely against them that it seemed as if their fate was sealed. The trial, however, was delayed for seven months, till the excitement had in some degree subsided. Captain Preston very judiciously appealed to John Adams, who was rapidly rising to the first place both among the lawyers and the popular patriots of Boston, to undertake his defence. Adams knew well how much he was risking by espousing so unpopular a cause, but he knew also his professional duty, and, though violently opposed to the British government, he was an eminently honest, brave, and humane man. In conjunction with Josiah Quincy, a young lawyer who was also of the patriotic party, he undertook the invidious task, and he discharged it with consummate ability. . . . There was abundant evidence that the soldiers had endured gross provocation and some violence. If the trial had been the prosecution of a smuggler or a seditious writer, the jury would probably have decided against evidence, but they had no disposition to shed innocent blood. Judges, counsel, and jurymen acted bravely and honourably. All the soldiers were acquitted, except two, who were found guilty of manslaughter, and who escaped with very slight punishment. It is very remarkable that after Adams had accepted the task of defending the incriminated soldiers, he was elected by the people of Boston as their representative in the Assembly, and the public opinion of the province appears to have fully acquiesced in the verdict. In truth, although no people have indulged more largely than the Americans in vio-

lent, reckless, and unscrupulous language, no people have at every period of their history been more signally free from the thirst for blood, which in moments of great political excitement has been often shown both in England and France."—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England in the 18th century*, v. 3, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: J. Adams, *Autobiography* (*Works*, v. 2, p. 230).—Lord Mahon (*Earl Stanhope*), *History of England, 1713-1783*, v. 5, p. 269.

1773.—Boston tea party.—"News reached Boston in the spring of this year [1773] that the East India Company, which was embarrassed by the accumulation of tea in England, owing to the refusal of the Americans to buy it, had induced parliament to permit its exportation to America without the payment of the usual duty [see U. S. A. 1772-1773]. This was intended to bribe the colonists to buy; for there had been a duty both in England and in America. That in England was six pence a pound, that in America three pence. Ships were laden and sent to Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston, and they were now expected to arrive in a short time. . . . On the 28th of November, 1773, which was Sunday, the first tea-ship (the 'Dartmouth') entered the harbor [of Boston]. The following morning the citizens were informed by placard that the 'worst of plagues, the detested tea,' had actually arrived, and that a meeting was to be held at nine in the morning, at Faneuil Hall, for the purpose of making 'a united and successful resistance to this last, worst, and most destructive measure of administration.' The Cradle of Liberty was not large enough to contain the crowd that was called together. Adams rose and made a stirring motion expressing determination that the tea should not be landed, and it was unanimously agreed to. The meeting then adjourned to the Old South meeting-house, where the motion was repeated, and again adopted without an opposing voice. The owner of the ship protested in vain that the proceedings were illegal; a watch of twenty-five persons was set, to see that the intentions of the citizens were not evaded, and the meeting adjourned to the following morning. The throng at that time was as great as usual, and while the deliberations were going on, a message was received from the governor, through the sheriff, ordering them to cease their proceedings. It was voted not to follow the advice, and the sheriff was hissed and obliged to retreat discomfited. It was formally resolved that any person importing tea from England should be deemed an enemy to his country, and it was declared that at the risk of their lives and properties the landing of the tea should be prevented, and its return effected. It was necessary that some positive action should be taken in regard to the tea within twenty days from its arrival, or the collector of customs would confiscate ships and cargoes. . . . The twenty days would expire on the 16th of December. On the fourteenth a crowded meeting was held at the Old South, and the importer was enjoined to apply for a clearance to allow his vessel to return with its cargo. He applied, but the collector refused to give an answer until the following day. The meeting therefore adjourned to the 16th, the last day before confiscation would be legal, and before the tea would be placed under protection of the ships of war in the harbor. There was another early morning meeting, and 7,000 people thronged about the meeting-house, all filled with a sense of the fact that something notable was to occur. The importer appeared and reported that the collector refused a clearance. He was then directed to

ask the governor for a pass to enable him to sail by the Castle. Hutchinson had retreated to his mansion at Milton, and it would take some time to make the demand. The importer started out in the cold of a New England winter, apologized to his Excellency for his visit, but assured him that it was involuntary. He received a reply that no pass could be given him. . . . It was six o'clock before the importer returned, and a few candles were brought in to relieve the fast-increasing darkness. He reported the governor's reply, and Samuel Adams rose and exclaimed: 'This meeting can do nothing more to save the country!' In an instant there was a shout on the porch; there was a war-whoop in response, and forty or fifty of the men disguised as Indians rushed out of the doors, down Milk Street towards Griffin's (afterwards Liverpool) Wharf, where the vessels lay. The meeting was declared dissolved, and the throng followed their leaders, forming a determined guard about the wharf. The 'Mohawks' entered the vessel; there was tugging at the ropes; there was breaking of light boxes; there was pouring of precious tea into the waters of the harbor. For two or three hours the work went on, and three hundred and forty-two chests were emptied. Then, under the light of the moon, the Indians marched to the sound of fife and drum to their homes, and the vast throng melted away, until not a man remained to tell of the deed. The committee of correspondence held a meeting next day, and Samuel Adams and four others were appointed to prepare an account of the affair to be posted to other places. Paul Revere, who is said to have been one of the 'Mohawks,' was sent express to Philadelphia with the news, which was received at that place on the 26th. It was announced by ringing of bells, and there was every sign of joy. . . . The continent was universally stirred at last."—A. Gilman, *Story of Boston*, ch. 23.

ALSO IN: E. G. Porter, *Beginning of the Revolution* (*Memorial History of Boston*, v. 3, ch. 1).—B. J. Lossing, *Field book of the Revolution*, v. 1, ch. 21.—T. Hutchinson, *History of the province of Massachusetts Bay, 1749-1774*, pp. 429-440.—Same, *Diary and letters*, p. 138.—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States* (*Author's last revision*), v. 3, ch. 34.—J. Kimball, *The 100th anniversary of the destruction of tea* (*Essex Institute, historical collections*, v. 12, no. 3).

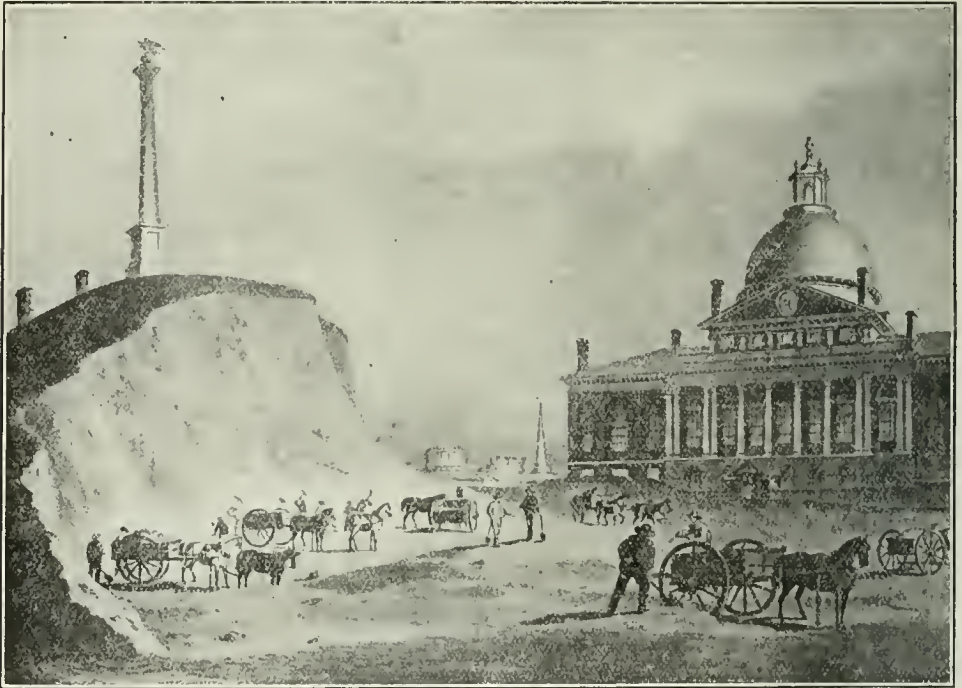
1773-1774: Agitation over tea tax; Port Act. See NEW YORK: 1773-1774.

1774.—Port bill and the Massachusetts act.—Commerce interdicted.—Town meetings forbidden. See U. S. A.: 1774 (March-April).

1774.—Enforcement of the port bill and its effects.—Military occupation of the city by General Gage.—"The execution of this measure in [the port bill] devolved on Thomas Gage, who arrived at Boston May 13, 1774, as Captain General and Governor of Massachusetts. He was not a stranger in the colonies. He had exhibited gallantry in Braddock's defeat. . . . He had married in one of the most respectable families in New York, and had partaken of the hospitalities of the people of Boston. His manners were pleasing. Hence he entered upon his public duties with a large measure of popularity. But he took a narrow view of men and things about him. . . . General Gage, on the 17th of May, landed at the Long Wharf and was received with much parade. . . . On the first day of June the act went into effect. It met with no opposition from the people, and hence, there was no difficulty in carrying it into rigorous execution. 'I hear from many,' the governor writes, 'that the act has

staggered the most presumptuous; the violent party men seem to break, and people to fall off from them.' Hence he looked for submission; but Boston asked assistance from other colonies, and the General Court requested him to appoint a day of fasting and prayer. The loyalists felt uneasy at the absence of the army. . . . Hence a respectable force was soon concentrated in Boston. [Five regiments arrived between June 4 and August 6 and additional troops were ordered from New York, the Jerseys and Quebec.] . . . The Boston Port Bill went into operation amid the tolling of bells, fasting and prayer. . . . It bore severely upon two towns, Boston and Charlestown, which had been long connected by a common patriotism. Their laborers were thrown out of employment, their poor were deprived of bread, and gloom pervaded their streets. But they were cheered and

chusetts? This was the turning-point of the Revolution. It did not find the patriots unprepared. They had an organization beyond the reach alike of proclamations from the governors, or of circulars from the ministry. This was the Committees of Correspondence, chosen in most of the towns in legal town-meetings, or by the various colonial assemblies, and extending throughout the colonies. . . . The crisis called for all the wisdom of these committees. A remarkable circular from Boston addressed to the towns (July, 1774), dwelt upon the duty of opposing the new laws; the towns, in their answers, were bold, spirited, and firm and echoed the necessity of resistance. Nor was this all. The people promptly thwarted the first attempts to exercise authority under them. Such councillors as accepted their appointments were compelled to resign, or, to avoid compulsion,



BEACON HILL, BOSTON, IN 1811
(From a drawing made by J. R. Smith)

sustained by the large contributions sent from every quarter for their relief, and by the noble words that accompanied them. . . . The excitement of the public mind was intense; and the months of June, July, and August, were characterized by varied political activity. Multitudes signed a solemn league and covenant against the use of British goods. The breach between the whigs and loyalists daily became wider. Patriotic donations from every colony were on their way to the suffering towns. Supplies for the British troops were refused. . . . It was while the public mind was in this state of excitement that other acts arrived which General Gage was instructed to carry into effect." These were the acts which virtually annulled the Massachusetts charter, which forbade town meetings, and which provided for the sending of accused persons to England or to other colonies for trial. "Should Massachusetts submit to the new acts? Would the other colonies see, without increased alarm, the humiliation of Massa-

retired into Boston." General Gage now began (in September) movements to secure the cannon and powder in the neighborhood. Some 250 barrels of powder belonging to the province were stealthily removed by his orders from a magazine at Charlestown and two field-pieces were carried away from Cambridge. "The report of this affair, spreading rapidly, excited great indignation. The people collected in large numbers, and many were in favor of attempting to recapture the powder and cannon. Influential patriots, however, succeeded in turning their attention in another direction. . . . Meantime the fact of the removal of the powder became magnified into a report that the British had cannonaded Boston, when the bells rang, beacon-fires blazed on the hills, the neighbor colonies were alarmed, and the roads were filled with armed men hastening to the point of supposed danger. These demonstrations opened the eyes of the governor to the extent of the popular movement. . . . General Gage saw no hope of procur-

ing obedience but by the power of arms; and the patriot party saw no safety in anything short of military preparation. Resistance to the acts continued to be manifested in every form. On the 9th of September the memorable Suffolk resolves [drawn by Joseph Warren] were adopted [by a convention of Suffolk county, which embraced Boston] . . . and these were succeeded by others in other counties equally bold and spirited. These resolves were approved by the Continental Congress, then in session. Everywhere the people either compelled the unconstitutional officers to resign, or opposed every attempt to exercise authority, whether by the governor or constable. They also made every effort to transport ammunition and stores to places of security. Cannon and muskets were carried secretly out of Boston. The guns were taken from an old battery at Charlestown, where the navy yard is, . . . silently, at night. . . . General Gage immediately began to fortify Boston Neck. This added intensity to the excitement. The inhabitants became alarmed at so ominous a movement; and, on the 5th of September, the selectmen waited on the general, rep-

1870.—Boston Museum of fine arts incorporated. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern Period: United States.

1872.—Great Fire.—A fire which broke out Nov. 9, 1872, swept over sixty-five acres in the business heart of the city. Loss \$80,000,000. Within two years the area was solidly built.

1873.—Massachusetts Normal School established. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern Period: United States.

1879-1922.—Organization and growth of Christian Science.—First Church of Christ, Scientist. See CHRISTIAN SCIENCE: Definition.

1895-1899.—Municipal experiments of Mayor Quincy.—First elected mayor of Boston in 1895, and reelected in 1897, the two terms of the administration of Mayor Josiah Quincy were made remarkable by the number, the originality and the boldness of the experiments which he introduced in extension of the functions of municipal government. They consisted on the one hand of the substitution, in certain branches of public work, of direct labor for the contract system, and on the other of the provision of new facilities for pro-



BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF BOSTON COMMON, ABOUT 1850

resented the public feeling, and requested him to explain his object. The governor stated in reply that his object was to protect his majesty's troops and his majesty's subjects; and that he had no intention to stop up the avenue, or to obstruct the free passage over it, or to do anything hostile against the inhabitants. He went on with the works and soon mounted on them two twenty-four pounders and eight nine pounders."—R. Frothingham, *History of the siege of Boston*, ch. 1.

Also in: R. Frothingham, *Life and times of Joseph Warren*, ch. 11, and app. 1 (giving text of the Suffolk resolves).—W. V. Wells, *Life of Samuel Adams*, v. 2, pp. 164-232.—W. Tudor, *Life of James Otis*, ch. 27-29.

1774.—Preparations for war. See U. S. A.: 1774 (May-June); 1774-1775.

1775.—Beginning of war.—Lexington.—Concord.—Bunker hill. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April).

1775-1776.—Siege.—Evacuation of the city by the British. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April-May).

1830-1840.—Literary center. See AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1830-1840.

1851.—Organization of Y. M. C. A. See YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1851-1854.

1866.—Organization of Y. W. C. A. See YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1858-1866.

moting popular health, recreation, and instruction. He established a municipal printing office, a municipal department of electrical construction, and another municipal department to conduct whatever repairing work that the city required; all of these to supersede the old system of contracts and jobs. He instituted a great number of public baths,—floating baths, beach baths, river baths and swimming pools. He opened playgrounds and gymnasiums, both outdoor and indoor. He carried the city into the work of the fresh air missions for poor children. He reorganized the administration of public charities. He placed the artistic undertakings of the city under the supervision of a competent board. He instituted cheap concerts of a high order, as well as popular lectures. Boston at length took alarm at the extent of the ventures of Mayor Quincy, complained of the cost, and refused him reelection for a third term. But the Boston correspondent of a New York journal opposed in politics to Mayor Quincy, writing on December 15, 1900, testified that "most of the experiments are working well, and a study of them cannot fail to be beneficial to those who have the government of other cities in their hands. . . . The madness of Mayor Quincy had evidently a method. It seems to have made permanent a good many excellent institutions."

1899.—Completion of the first subway.—In this year the city of Boston completed an important public improvement, undertaken in 1895, and carried out under the direction of a commission appointed that year. This was the construction of a subway under Boylston and Tremont streets, and under various streets in the northern district, for the transit of electric cars through the crowded central parts of the city. The section of subway from Park square to Park street was finished in the fall of 1897; the remainder in 1899. The entire length of underground road was one and two-thirds miles. The cost of work done was \$4,686,000; cost of real estate taken, \$1,100,000. The legislative act authorizing the work provided further for the construction of a tunnel to East Boston, and for the purchase of rights of way for an elevated road to Franklin park, with new bridges to Charlestown and West Boston.

1909.—New plan of city government chosen by popular vote.—“In 1909 the legislature submitted to the voters of Boston two alternative amendments to the city charter and what was designated as Plan II was adopted at the polls. This plan made very radical changes, the chief of which were a small one-chambered council and a mayor elected at large and possessing very great powers. This was the Short ballot idea, with the distinctive feature that the Mayor, besides having control of all the administrative departments, also largely dominates the course of legislation in the City Council. But unlike any of the larger cities so far considered, Boston has the Recall, but in a somewhat unusual and unworkable form. Another feature of Boston's plan of government, to which especial attention should be drawn, is the unusual amount of direct power of appointment exercised by the Governor of the state. The elective officers of Boston are as follows:

“The Mayor—Elected at large.

“9 Councilmen—Elected at large.

“5 School committee men—Elected at large.”

—*Equity*, Jan., 1918.

1911-1919.—Opening of a vocational bureau.—Boston Trade Union College.—In 1911, a vocational bureau was established; its central office collects and classifies information pertaining to occupations in the community, and endeavors to impress upon parents and children the need of a vocational training. It also acts as counsellor in personal vocational needs, and provides a meeting-ground for consultation between employers and those seeking employment. The bureau works in closest relation with the committee on vocational direction of the Boston school board, the Boston home and school association, the girls' trade education league, and the woman's municipal league. The committee on vocational direction of the Boston school board was formed to begin the work of guidance within the grammar schools. “During the spring of 1910 the Trade Union College, under the auspices of the Boston Central Labor Union, was organized, and its first course of instruction opened on April 7. The committee in charge was made up of 11 representatives from the Boston Central Labor Union and five representatives of the instructors giving courses in the college. The courses were open to all trade unionists of the American Federation of Labor and to members of their immediate families. . . . The courses given during the spring were the following: English, Masterpieces of Literature, Shop Committees and Collective Bargaining, Introduction to American Law, Representative Government, Economics, Physics, Psychology and Logic. Among the instructors in the various courses were several mem-

bers of the faculty of Harvard, . . . Yale, and a number of publicists and students of labor problems.”—H. W. L. Dana, *American labor year book*, 1910-1920, p. 206.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Workers' education: United States.

1911-1920.—Government work in developing Boston's port.—By a bill passed by the Massachusetts state legislature in 1911, \$25,000,000 was appropriated for the development of the port of Boston, and a board of port directors was appointed. The improvements began by the remodeling of the commonwealth docks in the heart of the city. The work done up to 1920 consumed about \$75,000,000. “The most recent addition to the facilities of the port is the Boston Army Supply Base, built during the war by the Federal Government. This is the second largest combined waterfront and storage terminal in the country. Its berthing space, over a mile in length, will accommodate nine ocean steamers. . . . In addition to the government owned facilities, the three railroads serving the port have each developed extensive and well equipped terminals.”—*Current Affairs (Boston Chamber of Commerce)*, Feb. 23, 1920.—The new marginal wharf, projected on April 3, 1918, was completed on January 1, 1919. Its length is 1,638 feet, and its two-story concrete and steel transit shed is 137 by 1,638 feet. It has five elevators of 16,000 lb. capacity to take tractor trailers. Five bridges across the driveway connect the second story of the wharf shed with a warehouse containing twenty-four elevators of 10,000 lb. capacity each. The extensive work of deepening the Weymouth Fore river, carried on by the government, was practically completed in 1917.

1912.—Opening of the Cambridge subway section.—“On March 23, 1912, the Cambridge section of the Boston subway was opened. This line extends from a terminal station under the Park Street Station of the old subway to Harvard Square, Cambridge, in a double-track tunnel in Boston, over the Cambridge Bridge across the Charles River, through a 2-mile two-track tunnel in Cambridge. The total length of the new line is 3.2 miles, and brings Harvard Square within eight minutes of Boston Common. It is operated by a private company.”—*American year book* 1912, p. 557.—The Boston end of this subway has since been extended beyond the South Station, through part of South Boston, into Dorchester.

1912-1919.—Art, exhibits, museums.—In May, 1913, the Boston Society of Landscape Architects was organized for the purpose of increasing the efficiency of the profession and promoting its influence on public education. Its exhibition of works of landscape architecture, held February 16 - March 2, 1915, was the first of its kind in the United States. In 1915, the Boston Museum of Fine Arts was enlarged by the addition of the Evans Memorial Galleries for Paintings, which were opened in February. They consist of twelve picture galleries, a tapestry hall, a lecture hall, a gallery for water colors, and a department of prints, occupying eleven rooms with 80,000 engravings, affording the opportunity to study prints from their beginning to contemporary times. In 1910, Harvey Wetzel, of Detroit, bequeathed to the Boston Museum of Fine Arts half of his art collections, and Henry C. Angell, of the city of Boston, left it a collection of paintings, including forty modern productions, chiefly French and Dutch. In the same year two mural panels by John S. Sargent were added to the series illustrating the history of religion in the Boston public library. One of these panels symbolizes the church

and the other the synagogue.—See also EDUCATION, ART: United States: Museums used for art education.

1914-1921.—Social center. See RECREATION: 1914-1921: Rapid development of municipal recreation.

1916-1919.—Housing improvements.—“The housing problem in Boston today is largely a question of improving tenement house conditions or encouraging the decentralization of population by proper suburban development.”—*North End: A survey and a comprehensive plan, Boston city planning board, 1919, p. 46.*—“Housing conditions in the North End have afforded a fruitful field for investigation and reports for years, but the recommendations contained in the recent report of the City Planning Board constitute the first attempt on the part of any agency to solve the problem as a whole, and to restore the North End to its rightful place among residential communities.”—*American City, Aug., 1919, p. 108.*—In this report, the Boston City Planning Board shows the district's usefulness as a tenement section and suggests providing the district with a reasonable amount of air and light by means of extending, widening, and relocating its streets and alleys, and creating a number of neighborhood outing places. It also proposes to build a thoroughfare connecting the wholesale market and cold storage plant with the Charlestown Bridge. “In the meantime Boston has not been idle. . . . During the year 1917, 521 dilapidated and unsafe buildings were ordered taken down, 172 repaired and 57 houses ordered vacated as being in a generally unsanitary condition. A great deal of work has also been done by the Health Department in regard to basement rooms. It is their intention to continue this work until the entire ground is covered and the illegal occupancy of such rooms for living and sleeping purposes entirely abolished. Up to December 1, 1916, 855 basements were examined, 280 approved, 340 vacated and notices served on 235 others.”—*North End: a survey and a comprehensive plan, Boston city planning board, 1919, p. 42.*

1917.—Election and reform victory.—“In the Boston mayoralty election on December 18, the reform element won, ex-Congressman Andrew J. Peters, formerly assistant secretary of the treasury, being elected mayor by a plurality of about 10,000 votes over Mayor Curley, his nearest opponent in a bitter three-cornered fight. The victory of Mr. Peters, regarded as a representative of the Back Bay and business elements of the city, was due in large measure to the strong run made by Congressman James A. Gallivan, who by his vigorous ‘anti-gang’ campaign against Mayor Curley drew from the latter many votes which doubtless could not have been attracted to any candidate regarded as ‘high-brow;’ he ran only 10,000 votes behind Mayor Curley. Ex-Mayor Fitzgerald also took active part in the campaign, as speaker, against Mr. Curley. Peters, Curley, and Gallivan are Democrats, the Boston ballot being nonpartisan. There were two other candidates in the field—Congressman Tague, also a Democrat, who received slightly over 1500 votes, and the Socialist candidate who received only 345 votes.”—*F. W. Coker, Municipal affairs (American Political Science Review, Feb., 1918, p. 123).*

1919.—Police strike.—On September 9, following the suspension of nineteen officers for activities connected with their affiliation with the American Federation of Labor, the Boston policemen went on strike to enforce the recognition of their newly formed union. Their other grievances were: overwork, underpay, and insanitary conditions in the

station houses. The strike was, however, quickly suppressed. Though at the suggestion of Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, the policemen were willing to return on the 13th to the *status quo* until after the industrial conference, Governor Coolidge declared their positions vacant, and a new body of policemen was formed. This was the first police strike in the United States and raised the issue as to whether public servants have a right to strike.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT; Police defined.

1919-1920.—Commercial status.—Among American cities Boston in 1919 claimed to be “first in value of property per capita, second in municipal assets per capita, the first shoe and leather center, the first wool market, the first fresh fish market, the second importing seaport (third in 1918), the second textile center, fourth (fifth in 1918) in total foreign trade, fourth in amount of bank clearings, fifth in Federal Reserve Bank System (but fourth as to surplus, earnings and discounts), the fourth postal district, fourth (close to third) in total assessed valuation, fourth (probably) in population [but was sixth, in 1920] the fifth exporting seaport, and eighth in value of its manufactures.”—*Boston Statistics, 1919, City of Boston Statistics Department.*—“The year ending April 30, 1919, was the biggest commercially in the history of the Boston District. The total trade was \$501,565,030. . . . Boston has the distinction of possessing the largest dry dock in the world, just completed [1920], and first used for the docking of the battleship Virginia on December 22, 1919. The dimensions of this dry dock are: length, 1,200 feet; breadth 120 feet with 45 feet of water over the sill at high water. The length of the dock is sufficient to dock two ordinary ocean steamships at one time. . . . The port is supplied with other dry docks and costly marine railways.”—*Current Affairs (Boston Chamber of Commerce), Feb. 23, 1920.*—The railroads entering the terminal of Boston are the New York, New Haven & Hartford, the Boston & Maine, and the Boston & Albany.

1921 (November-December).—Election and recount of ballots.—“Former Mayor James M. Curley was elected Mayor of Boston today by a margin of 2,315 votes, according to the unofficial count, over John R. Murphy, the ‘good government candidate.’ The winner had every newspaper in Boston, except one, against him. . . . It was one of the bitterest campaigns in Boston history, and the election was the most closely contested election. . . . The exceptionally heavy vote cast by the women, who voted this year for Mayor for the first time, decided the result. They flocked to the polls, outvoting the men 2 to 1 in the early balloting. . . . Out of a total registration of 207,000, 160,478 ballots were cast. Of this total Curley had 73,860 votes, Murphy 71,554. Charles S. Baxter, ex-Mayor of Medford, running as a straight Republican without any endorsement, 4,243, and Charles O’Connor, a member of the School Committee, running as a straight Democrat without any endorsement, 10,812. The campaign was supposed to be waged on nonpartisan lines, as Boston dropped the Republican-Democratic line-up in city politics four years ago, when the Mayor’s term of office was extended to four years and he was barred by law from succeeding himself. . . . The Election Commission, after a recount of ballots cast in the city election . . . sustained the election as mayor of James M. Curley. His official plurality over John R. Murphy was placed at 2,470, a net loss of 228 votes as compared with the unofficial returns. The official

figures were: Curley, 74,261; Murphy, 71,794. Curley gained one vote by recount; Murphy gained 229."—*New York Times*, Dec. 14, 23, 1921.

1921.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

Municipal park system. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress in city planning.

ALSO IN: C. P. Huse, *Financial history of Boston*.—J. Winsor, *Memorial history of Boston*.—N. B. Shurtleff, *Topographical and historical description of Boston*.—E. J. Clapp, *Port of Boston*.

BOSTON LEGAL AID SOCIETY. See LEGAL AID: United States: Historical retrospect.

BOSTON PORT ACT. See NEW YORK: 1773-1774; and U. S. A.: 1774 (March-April).

BOSTON PUBLIC LIBRARY. See LIBRARIES: Modern: U. S. A.: Free public libraries.

BOSTON TEA PARTY. See BOSTON: 1773; U. S. A.: 1772-1773.

BOSWORTH, Battle of (1485). See ENGLAND: 1483-1485.

BOTANY BAY, eastern coast of New South Wales. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800; 1787-1840; Map.

BOTHA, Louis (1862-1919), Boer general and statesman. In the Boer War of 1890-1902 he was victorious at Colenso and Spion Kop and was made commander-in-chief; ably directed the prolonged resistance of the Boers (see SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (May-June); 1901 (February-March); 1901-1902); aided reconstruction and in 1907 became premier of the Transvaal (see BRITISH EMPIRE: 1907; and SOUTH AFRICAN, UNION OF: 1908-1909); in 1910 became the first premier of the new Union of South Africa (see SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1910-1913); as commander in the World War crushed the rebellion of De Wet and others (1914) and conquered German Southwest Africa (1915) (see SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1914; 1915); with General Jan Smuts represented the Union of South Africa at the peace conference.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1917-1920; SOUTHWEST AFRICA, PROTECTORATE OF: 1915; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b; b, 1; 1915: VIII. Africa: 1.

BOTHA, Manie, British South African soldier, younger brother of Louis Botha. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 1; a, 13.

BOTHMER, General Count von, German commander. During the great Galician offensive of the Russians in 1916, his forces, composed mainly of Austrians, made a stubborn resistance to the advance of Brusilov.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Eastern front: f, 2; i, 6; i, 7; i, 9; 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 3.

BOTHWELL, James Hepburn, 4th Earl of (c. 1536-1578), Scottish nobleman, husband of Mary Stuart. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

BOTHWELL BRIDGE, Battle of. See SCOTLAND: 1670 (June).

BOTOCUDOS, aboriginal tribe of eastern Brazil. See TUPI.

BOTSKAI, Stephen. See BOCSKAY, Stephen.

BOTTA, Carlo Guiseppe Guglielmo (1766-1837), Italian historian. See HISTORY: 29.

BOTTA, Paolo Emilio (1802-1870), Italian archaeologist. See ASSYRIA: Art and archaeological remains.

BOTTICELLI, Sandro (1444-1510) (properly Alessandro di Mariano dei Filipepi), Florentine painter; pupil of Fra Filippo Lippi; employed chiefly by members of the Medici family, until he became a follower of Savonarola (1498); his works include many mythical and allegorical pieces

(*Spring, Birth of Venus*) as well as a number of exquisite Madonnas and various scenes from the life of the Virgin.—See also PAINTING: Italian: Early renaissance.

BOUCHAIN, town in France, on the Scheldt. Captured by Marlborough in 1711. See NETHERLANDS: 1710-1712.

BOUCHAVESNES, a village of northeastern France, on the road between Bapaume and Peronne; in 1916 was captured from the Germans by the French in the battle of the Somme. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: k, 3.

BOUCHER, François (1703-1770), French painter. See PAINTING: French.

BOUCICAUT, Jean Le Maingre (c. 1366-1421), Marshal of France. In command of an army which was sent by France in 1309 to aid Manuel II against the Turks; sent to Genoa in 1401, which was at the time under French dominion, forced to retire in 1409 when Genoa freed herself from France. See GENOA: 1381-1422.

BOUFFLERS, Louis François, Duc de (1644-1711), distinguished French soldier who served in Germany, the Netherlands and on the Spanish frontiers. Made marshal of France in 1692; duke in 1694; and a peer in 1708. See NETHERLANDS: 1702-1704.

BOUGAINVILLE, Louis Antoine de (1729-1811), French explorer in Pacific. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1764-1850.

BOUGIE, Bugiah or Bujayah, a seaport of Algeria in the department of Constantine. In ancient times it was a city of considerable importance, being the capital of Genseric the Vandal in the fifth century. In the tenth century it was the greatest commercial port of northern Africa. It was later (15th century) the stronghold of the Barbary pirates, and was captured by the Spaniards in 1510. Although the town was strongly fortified, it was seized in 1555 by Salah Rais, then pasha of Algiers, and has since fallen into decay. It was acquired by France in 1833. See BARBARY STATES: 1505-1510.

BOUGUEREAU, Adolphe William (1825-1905), French painter. See PAINTING: Europe (19th century).

BOUIDES, Buids, Bowides or Dilemites, a tenth century Mohammedan dynasty. See CALYPHATE: 815-945; TURKEY: 1004-1063.

BOULANGER, Georges Ernest Jean Marie (1837-1891), French general and politician. Served with distinction in the Franco-Prussian War, 1870-1871; 1886-1887 minister of war; formed secret alliances with the anarchists and monarchists and upon a platform demanding reform of the constitution, was elected to the Chamber of Deputies, 1888. His popularity and the strength of the movement grew to such an extent that in fear of his grasping the dictatorship, the Tirard cabinet was formed for the express purpose of combating *boulangisme*. Boulanger fled, was sentenced to exile, and committed suicide.—See also FRANCE: 1875-1880.

BOULANGISM, or boulangisme, term applied to doctrines of Boulanger. See BOULANGER; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: f.

BOULE, the single chamber of the Greek legislative body, created by the constitution of 1864, consisting in 1921 of 184 representatives. In 1922, the number of deputies, including the new territories is 316. See GREECE, CONSTITUTION OF; WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 2.

Ancient Athenian boulé. See AREOPAGUS.

BOULMOFF, Bulgarian general. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: d.

BOULOGNE, a fortified seaport in the department of Pas-de-Calais, northern France; situated on the shore of the English channel at the mouth of the Liane. [For its origin, see *GESORACUM*]. It was destroyed by the Normans in 882; was in the possession of the house of Brabant and descendants of that family until seized by the duke of Burgundy (1419). Henry VIII succeeded in taking the town (1544), but it was soon restored to France (1550).

1801.—Bonaparte's preparations for the invasion of England.—Nelson's attack. See FRANCE: 1801-1802.

1914-1918.—Channel port.—It played an important part in the World War, being one of the English ports of debarkation. Like the other channel ports of Calais and Dunkirk, it was threatened by the Germans in 1914 and again in 1918.—See also CHANNEL PORTS.

BOULON, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Progress of war of coalition.

BOUNTIES.—A fiscal bounty is a sum of money paid direct by the government to the producer or exporter of certain articles, or paid indirectly by some favor granted by the government, such as a drawback on transportation rates where the government owns the railroads. The purpose of the bounty is to encourage the production or export of the article. It enables the producer to sell his goods at a lower price than he otherwise could and to do this at the expense of the treasury. In this respect it differs from the protective tariff. In some cases the justification of the bounty is other than economic. Bounties on ship-building, for example, may be justified in the interests of national defence or to encourage mail lines. The bounty harmonizes with the mercantile theory of trade. When the British Parliament passed the navigation acts it established direct bounties on certain articles produced in the American colonies; indigo, for example. See NAVIGATION ACTS; TARIFF: 1846-1879 (Abolition of Navigation Acts).

Bounties by the United States Government.—By an act of 1790, the United States gave a bounty of ten cents a barrel on pickled fish and twenty cents a quintal on dried fish. This was really a drawback on the salt which was subject to duty. (See also TARIFF: 1789-1792.) It was repealed in 1807. The McKinley tariff act of 1890 provided a bounty on sugar. The treasury was to pay "to producers of sugar testing not less than 90 degrees by the polariscope, from beet, sorghum, or cane sugar grown within the United States, or from maple sap produced within the United States, a bounty of 2c per lb." For sugar testing between eighty and ninety degrees, a bounty of one and three-fourth cents per pound was offered. This bounty was repealed in 1894. The amount paid was received largely by producers of Louisiana cane sugar.

Since colonial times it has been a common practice to reward soldiers with land grants. Virginia in ceding her claims to the Northwest territory reserved a large tract of land which she gave mostly to revolutionary soldiers. These were known as bounty lands. Since the Civil War soldiers have had more advantageous terms than other citizens under the Homestead law.

A number of states have paid a cash bounty for the killing of certain animals, as wolves, coyotes and mountain lions.

The sharp competition for recruits between federal and state officers, following the enactment of the conscription law of 1863, led many to enlist simply to secure the bounty and then desert. This

was known as "bounty jumping" and was punished with the full rigor of military law.

ALSO IN: A. C. McLaughlin and A. B. Hart, *Cyclopedia of American government*, v. 1, pp. 166-169.—W. Cunningham, *Growth of English industry and commerce in modern times*.—P. J. Treat, *National land system*.—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the United States*, v. 5, p. 227.

BOUQUET, Dom (1685-1754), French antiquarian. See HISTORY: 25.

BOUQUET, Henry (1719-1765), British soldier serving in America from 1756 until his death. Leader of the expedition which relieved Fort Pitt from the siege of the Ottawa Indians under Pontiac. See CANADA: 1759 (July-August); PONTIAC'S WAR.

BOURBAKI, Charles Denis Sauter (1816-1897), French general of Greek origin. He fought with distinction in the Crimean War, at Alma, Inkermann and Sevastopol and in the Italian campaign of 1859. Commander of the Imperial Guard in the Franco-Prussian War, stationed first under Bazaine at Metz from which he was sent on a secret mission to ex-Empress Eugénie in England. On his return in command of the army of the east he attempted to relieve Belfort, was defeated by General Werder, and driven across the Swiss frontier.—See also FRANCE: 1870-1871.

BOURBON, Cardinal (Charles X), proclaimed king of France. See FRANCE: 1589-1590.

BOURBON, Charles, Duke of (1490-1527), French general. Made constable of France as compensation for his services at the battle of Marignano (1515). According to French historians, he abandoned the French army and made an alliance with Charles V and Henry VIII of England for the conquest and partition of France. In 1524 he led an imperial army into Italy, forced the French across the Sesia and expelled Sforza from Milan. He attacked Rome in 1527. See FRANCE: 1520-1523; 1523-1525; ITALY: 1523-1527; 1527; ROME; Modern city: 1450-1527.

BOURBON: Origin of the name. See BOANS.

BOURBON, House of (French): Its origin.—From King Louis IX of France, "through his last male child, Robert de France, Comte de Clermont, sprang the House of Bourbon. An ancient barony, the inheritance of Béatrix, wife of this prince, was erected into a dukedom in favour of Louis, his son, and gave to his descendants the name which they have retained, that of France being reserved for the Royal branch. . . . The House which had the honour of supplying sovereigns to our country was called 'France.' But our kings, jealous of that great name, reserved it for their own sons and grandsons. Hence the designation 'fils' and 'petit-fils de France.' The posterity of each 'fils de France' formed a cadet branch which took its name from the title borne by its head, Valois, Artois, Bourbon, &c. At the time of the accession of Henry IV, the name of Bourbon remained with those younger branches of Condé and Montpensier, which had sprung from the main branch before the death of Henry III. But Henry IV's children, those of Louis XIII., and those of their successors in the throne, were surnamed 'de France'; whilst in conformity with the law the descendants of Louis XIII's second son received the surname d'Orléans, from the title borne by their grandfather. . . . Possessors of vast territories which they [the Bourbons] owed more to family alliances than to the generosity of kings, they had known how to win the affection of their vassals. Their magnificent hospitality drew around them a

numerous and brilliant nobility. Thus the 'hôtel' of those brave and august princes, the 'gracieux ducs de Bourbon,' as our ancient poet called them, was considered the best school in which a young nobleman could learn the profession of arms. The order of the Écu, instituted by one of them, had been coveted and worn by the bravest warriors of France. Sufficiently powerful to outshine the rank and file of the nobility, they had at the same time neither the large estates nor the immense power which enabled the Dukes of Bourgogne, of Bretagne, and other great vassals, to become the rivals or the enemies of the royal authority." The example of the treason of the Constable Bourbon [see FRANCE: 1520-1523] "was not followed by any of the princes of his House. . . . The property of the Connétable was definitely alienated from his House, and Vendôme [his brother] did not receive the hereditary possessions of the Dukes d'Alençon, to which his wife was entitled. He died on the 25th of March, 1538, leaving but a scanty patrimony to his numerous descendants. . . . Five only of his sons obtained their majority. . . . Two of these princes founded families: Antoine [duc de Vendôme and afterwards king of Navarre through his marriage with Jeanne d'Albret, see NAVARRE: 1528-1563], father of Henry IV., who was the ancestor of all the Bourbons now living, and Louis [prince de Condé, born 1530], who was the root of the House of Condé and all its branches."—Duc d'Aumale, *History of the princes of the house of Condé*, bk. 1, ch. 1, and foot-note.—See also FRANCE: 1814-1815.

Family compacts. See FRANCE: 1733; 1743 (October); 1761 (August).

Genealogical table. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

BOURBON, House of (Spanish and Italian). See SPAIN: 1698-1700; 1701-1702; ITALY: 1715-1735; 1815.

BOURBON, Isle of. See MASCARENE ISLANDS.

BOURBON LEGITIMIST. See CHAMBORD, Henri.

BOURCHIER, James David (d. 1920), British journalist, promoter of the Balkan league. See BALKAN STATES: 1912: Balkan league.

BOURESCHES, town in France near Belleau Wood, scene of fighting during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 1; g, 2; g, 3.

BOURG. See BOURGEOIS.

BOURGEOIS, Léon Vietor Auguste (b. 1841), French statesman. Entered French parliament 1888; held various ministerial offices; premier, 1895-1896; minister of public instruction, 1898; French plenipotentiary to The Hague peace conferences of 1899 and 1907; 1902 and 1903, president of Chamber of Deputies; 1903, member of Permanent Court of Arbitration; 1905, entered the Senate; 1906, became minister of foreign affairs, being responsible for direction of French diplomacy at Algeçiras; minister of labor in three war cabinets, twice refused the presidency of the council or premiership; member of the Allied commission which drafted the covenant of the League of Nations; Chairman of Council of the League of Nations, 1920, representing France. (See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: First meeting of the assembly). Received Nobel prize for peace, 1920. (See NOBEL PRIZES: Peace: 1920.)

BOURGEOIS, BOURG.—In France, "the word Bourg originally meant any aggregation of houses, from the greatest city to the smallest hamlet. But . . . the word shifted its meaning, and came to signify an assemblage of houses surrounded with walls. Secondly, the word Bourgeois also was at first, used as synonymous with the inhabi-

tant of a bourg. Afterward, when corporate franchises were bestowed on particular bourgs, the word acquired a sense corresponding with that of the English designation Burgess; that is a person entitled to the privileges of a municipal corporation. Finally, the word Bourgeoisie, in its primitive sense, was the description of the bourgeois when spoken of collectively. But, in its later use, the word would be best rendered into English by our term citizenship; that is, the privilege or franchise of being a Burgess."—Sir J. Stephen, *Lectures, history of France, lecture 5*.—See also BELGIUM: Ancient and Medieval history; and FRANCE: 12th-13th centuries.—"It is, indeed, not surprising to discover that there was no equality in privilege between the *bourgeoisie* and the other elements of the Third Estate. The relations of the two were those of superiors and inferiors. The *bourgeoisie* clearly constituted an untitled aristocracy, quite as conscious of its social position as was the real nobility. Nothing shows this plainer than the difference in the two elements of municipal government, the *commune* and the municipality. The *commune*—never to be confused with anything like economic communism—was the armed association of all the Third Estate in a town or village; the municipality was the governing body of the town, and was composed exclusively of the *bourgeoisie*. By such an arrangement danger was shared by all commoners alike, but the perquisites and honors of office went to the *bourgeoisie* alone. In many if not all parts of France the *bourgeoisie* was free from one or more forms of taxation. The very right of labor was safe only in their hands, and they, quite as much as the aristocracy of the court, were ready to oppress the masses, while the mayors of the towns were notoriously venal, buying office and being bought themselves apparently with small sense of official honesty. It is to this extension of class inequality and consequent class hatred that one must look for the origin of that suspicion of the *bourgeois* displayed by the masses during certain periods of the Revolution [see FRANCE: 1780-1790]. That conservative spirit which, in the Constitution of 1791, set a property qualification for suffrage, was to be followed by a fierce determination on the part of the Jacobin leaders to rid the Revolution of all bourgeois control. Their brief success but deepened the class hatred, and to this day the proletariat of France regards all property holders from the small shopkeepers to the millionaire, as hereditary enemies."—S. Mathews, *French revolution*, pp. 25-26.

BOURGES: Origin of.—The city of Bourges, France, was originally the capital city of the Gallic tribe of the Bituriges, and was called Avaricum. "As with many other Gaulish towns, the original name became exchanged for that of the people, i. e., Bituriges, and thence the modern Bourges and the name of the province, Berri."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 12.—See also ÆDUI, and GAUL: B. C., 58-51.

1252.—Siege by Crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1252.

BOURGES, Synod of (1438). See FRANCE: 1438.

BOURGOGNE FOREST, France, in region of Neufchatel. Scene of fighting during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: x, 1.

BOURKE, Sir Richard (1777-1855), English colonial governor of New South Wales. See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840; NEW SOUTH WALES: 1831-1855.

BOURLON WOOD, a position some five miles west of Cambrai, northeastern France; held briefly

by the British in 1917 in their advance on Cambrai; evacuated by them as it formed an untenable salient in their line. See **WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: g; g, 7, 8, 9, 14, 16; o, 1.**

BOURMONT, Louis Auguste Victor, Comte de Ghaisne de (1773-1840), marshal of France. Led an expedition in Algeria. See **BARBARY STATES: 1830.**

BURN, Augustus Osborn (1834-), prominent figure in Rhode Island politics. Author of Bourn amendment to constitution of Rhode Island. See **RHODE ISLAND: 1819-1888; 1887-1893.**

BOURNE, Frederick Gilbert (d. 1919), American capitalist who bequeathed fund to Cathedral of St. John the Divine, New York City. See **GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.**

BOURSE DU TRAVAIL, Paris labor exchange. See **SOCIALISM: 1871-1904.**

BOURSE LAW, German: Revision of. See **GERMANY: 1900-1909.**

BOUSSINGAULT, Jean Baptiste Joseph Dieudonné (1802-1887), French chemist. See **FERTILIZERS: Chemistry applied to soil culture.**

BOUTROS PASHA (d. 1910), prime minister of Egypt, assassinated in February, 1910. See **EGYPT: 1911-1914.**

BOUVET, Pierre, French naval officer and explorer. See **ANTARCTIC EXPLORATIONS: 1519-1819.**

BOUVET, French battleship sunk in 1915 in the Dardanelles. Hit simultaneously by three shells and a floating mine, she went down with all on board. See **WORLD WAR: 1915: VI; Turkey: a, 1, and 2.**

BOUVINES, Battle of (1214).—The battle of Bouvines, fought at Bouvines, in Flanders, not far from Tournay, on July 27, 1214, was one of the important battles of European history. On one side were the French, led by their king Philip Augustus, and fighting ostensibly as the champions of the pope and the church. On the other side was an allied army of English, under King John, of Germans, under Otho, the Guelph—one of two rival claimants of the imperial crown—and of Flemings and Lotharingians, led by their several lords. Philip Augustus had expelled the English king from his Norman dukedom and caused a court of the peers of France to declare the title forfeit. From that success his ambition rose so high that he had aspired to the conquest of the English crown. Innocent III—perhaps the greatest of all popes—had approved his ambition and encouraged it; for John, the miserable English king, had given provocations to the church which had brought the thunders of the Vatican upon his head. Excommunicated, himself, his kingdom under interdict,—the latter offered itself a tempting prey to the vigorous French king, who posed as the champion of the pope. He had prepared a strong army and a fleet for the invasion of England; but fate and papal diplomacy had baffled his schemes. At the last moment, John had made a base submission, had meekly surrendered his kingdom to the pope and had received it back as a papal fief. Whereupon the victorious pope commanded his French champion to forego his intended attack. Philip, under these circumstances, determined to use the army he had assembled against a troublesome and contumacious vassal, the count of Flanders. The pope approved, and Flanders was overrun. King John led an English force across the channel to the help of the Flemish count, and Otho, the German king or emperor, who was King John's nephew, joined the coalition, to antagonize France and the pope. The battle of Bouvines was the decisive conflict of the war. It humbled, for the time, the independent spirit of Flanders, and several remoter

consequences can be traced to it. It was "the first real French victory. It roused the national spirit as nothing else could have roused it; it was the nation's first taste of glory, dear above all things to the French heart. . . . The battle somewhat broke the high spirit of the barons: the lesser barons and churches grouped themselves round the king; the greater lords came to feel their weakness in the presence of royalty. Among the incidental consequences of the day of Bouvines was the ruin of Otho's ambition. He fled from the field into utter obscurity. He retired to the Hartz mountains, and there spent the remaining years of his life in private. King John, too, was utterly discredited by his share in the year's campaign. To it may partly be traced his humiliation before his barons, and the signing of the Great Charter in the following year at Runnymede."—G. W. Kitchen, *History of France, bk. 3, ch. 7, sect. 4*.—"The battle of Bouvines was not the victory of Philip Augustus alone, over a coalition of foreign princes; the victory was the work of king and people, barons, burghers and peasants, of Ile de France, of Orleanness, of Picardy, of Normandy, of Champagne, and of Burgundy. . . . The victory of Bouvines marked the commencement of the time at which men might speak, and indeed did speak, by one single name, of 'the French.' The nation in France and the kingship in France on that day rose out of and above the feudal system."—F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France, ch. 18*.—See also **FRANCE: 1213; and ITALY: 1183-1250.**

BOVATE, or Oxxgang.—"Originally as much as an ox-team could plough in a year. Eight Bovates are usually said to have made a Carucate, but the number of acres which made a Bovate are variously stated in different records from 8 to 24."—N. H. Nicolas, *Notitia historica, p. 134*.—Other authorities state that the number of acres in a bovaté ranged from seven to thirty-two.

BOVIANUM, Battle of (B. C. 88). See **ROME: Republic: 90-88 B. C.**

BOW, Long bow. Its use in warfare. See **LONG BOW.**

BOWDOIN COLLEGE, Maine. See **UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1794.**

BOWER, Sir Graham John (1848-), secretary to high commissioners of South Africa, 1884-1897, and testified before the British parliamentary committee on the Jameson raid. See **SOUTH AFRICA. UNION OF: 1897 (February-July).**

BOWERY (Bouerie). See **NEW YORK CITY: 1637-1647.**

BOWIDES. See **CALIPHATE: 815-945.**

BOWRING, Sir John (1792-1872), English writer and traveller in China. See **CHINA: 1856-1860.**

BOX BILL, to check immigration. See **IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1920-1921: Efforts to check immigration.**

BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR."—"In the middle of the summer [1900], there suddenly flared up in China a tragedy which fastened the world's attention. The Boxers [The Righteous Harmony Fists, or Big Knife Society], a Chinese association whose aim it was to rid China of foreigners, started, with the apparent collusion of high officials, a campaign of extermination. [See **CHINA: 1900 (Boxer outbreak).**] On June 14 they assailed the foreign Legations at Peking, and during the next eight weeks they blocked the relief of the beleaguered Occidentals, who defended themselves with unflinching endurance and valor in the British compound. These numbered in all only about five hundred persons, including the women and children. Their ammuni-

tion was scanty, their provisions insufficient. About June 20 the outside world ceased to have news of them. An appalling silence brooded over the Legations week after week. On June 15 Secretary Hay, little suspecting that the crisis had already come, telegraphed to General Conger, the American Minister: 'Do you need more force? Communicate with the Admiral and report.' No answer. In vain did Mr. Hay try to get tidings through Mr. Wu, the Chinese Minister in Washington. Foreign Governments were equally unsuccessful. Then Mr. Hay appealed to Li Hung Chang, the Chinese Viceroy of greatest influence,

the Legation, they might have discovered the cipher book also. Accordingly, Secretary Hay hit upon a clever device, and telegraphed on July 21: 'Despatch received. Authenticity doubted. Answer this giving your sister's name. Report attitude and position of Chinese Government.' In due course a reply came, with the name of Mr. Conger's sister, which it was hardly probable that the wildest Boxer could know. Convinced that the besieged were still alive, Mr. Hay now urged Li Hung Chang that the Ministers be allowed to communicate freely with their governments. Li answered that he and the other Viceroys had peti-



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AMERICAN FLAG RAISED OVER BATTERED REMNANTS OF THE SOUTH GATE OF THE CITY OF PEKING, AFTER ITS CAPTURE BY THE ALLIED TROOPS

to send the following message through the Boxer lines to Conger in the Legations: 'July 2. Communicate tidings bearer.' Days passed, but brought no reply. The world began to believe the rumors which had been circulating for weeks, that the Boxers had captured the Legations, and slaughtered all the foreigners.

"At last on July 20, Secretary Hay received a despatch, dated July 16: 'For one month we have been besieged in British Legation under continued shot and shell from Chinese troops. Quick relief only can prevent general massacre.—CONGER.' Although this despatch came in the State Department's cipher, many persons doubted its genuineness, for they argued that if the Boxers had taken

tioned the Imperial Government either to do this or to deliver the Ministers, under safe escort, at Tien-Tsin.

"'I told him' (Minister Wu), Hay wrote President McKinley on July 20, 'that we could not consent to any such arrangement as the latter alternative; that if the Chinese Government was able to send them safely to Tien-Tsin, it was able to put us into free communication with them; that if the Chinese Government undertook without previous arrangement to deliver them and failed by any accident, nothing would convince the foreign Governments that the Chinese had acted in good faith. He (Wu) finally consented to telegraph Li again to-day. . . . He is greatly perturbed in

spirit, but seems to be acting squarely with us. He admits there are many things he cannot explain. He does not attempt to account for the silence of the Legations, but believes the Ministers, except Ketteler, are alive.' On August 14, Conger cabled Hay: 'Do not put trust in Li Hung Chang. He is an unscrupulous tool of the cruel Dowager. There can be no adequate negotiation with Peking until the high authors of this great crime have surrendered. Imperial troops firing on us daily. Our losses 60 killed, 120 wounded. We have reached half rations horse-flesh. Have food only for a fortnight. Six children have died. Many others sick.'

"That same day the relief expedition entered Peking and saved the Legationers. . . . To him [Hay] more than to any one else, was due the saving of the Legations. Almost alone he believed that they were still alive and so spared no effort to reach them. His trust kept Secretary Root on the alert, so that when the first telegram came from Peking, Mr. Root, without a day's delay, ordered General Chaffee to proceed to China and command the American relief expedition.

"The Boxer upheaval interrupted and made more difficult Hay's endeavor to preserve the Chinese Empire. After the Japanese defeated the Chinese in 1894, China lay like a stranded whale, apparently dead, or dying, and the chief Powers of Europe came, like fishermen after blubber, and took here a province and there a harbor, and were callous to the fact that their victim was not dead. They not only seized territory, but forced from the Chinese concessions for mines, railways, commercial privileges, and spheres of influence. From the time that Hay became Secretary, he strove to keep intact the political integrity of China and to persuade all the Powers to maintain there the policy of the Open Door.

"As early as March 16, 1899, Hay wrote confidentially to [Paul Dana] a New York editor, who was anxious for the protection of American interests, '. . . We are, of course, opposed to the dismemberment of that Empire, and we do not think that the public opinion of the United States would justify this Government in taking part in the great game of spoliation now going on. At the same time we are keenly alive to the importance of safeguarding our great commercial interests in that Empire and our representatives there have orders to watch closely everything that may seem calculated to injure us, and to prevent it by energetic and timely representations. We declined to support the demand of Italy for a lodgment there, and at the same time we were not prepared to assure China that we would join her in repelling that demand by armed force. We do not consider our hands tied for future eventualities, but for the present we think our best policy is one of vigilant protection of our commercial interests, without formal alliances with other Powers interested.' During the summer the Secretary's instructions to Mr. Conger bore the same burden. But as the European Powers continued making mutual bargains for the partition of the Empire, on September 6, 1899, Mr. Hay finally addressed to London, Berlin, and St. Petersburg his famous note on the Open Door. He did not originate the phrase, and the fact of free commercial intercourse with all nations had existed here and there in Europe during many centuries. But in applying the word to China, Hay defined a policy which would affect the political not less than the commercial status of four hundred millions of Chinese, and of the rest of the world which had relations with them.

"The American circular requested each of the

European Governments to respect the existing treaty ports and vested interests; to allow the Chinese tariff to be maintained and be collected in the respective spheres of influence; and not to discriminate against other foreigners in port and railroad rates. The powers addressed did not reply promptly. England was the first to accede; the others, which stated that they sympathized with the principle, refrained from formally endorsing it. Mr. Hay, after sufficient delay, sent word to each that in view of the favorable replies from the others, he regarded that Power's acceptance as 'final and definitive.' And he subsequently addressed France, Italy, and Japan. Next to England, Hay regarded Russia as the most important party to the agreement. Russia would sign no paper, but her Foreign Minister, Count Mouravieff, gave an oral promise to do what France did. Later, he 'flew into a passion' and insisted upon it that Russia would never bind herself in that way; that whatever she did she would do alone and without the concurrence of France. 'Still,' Hay adds, 'he did say it, he did promise, and he did enter into just that engagement. It is possible that he did so thinking that France would not come in, and that other Powers would not. If now they choose to take a stand in opposition to the entire civilized world, we shall then make up our mind what to do about it. At present I am not bothering much.' (To Henry White, April 2, 1900.) By what was one of the most adroit strokes of modern diplomacy, Hay thus accustomed the world to accept the Open Door as the only decent policy for it to adopt toward China. Not one of the Governments concerned wished to agree to it; each saw more profit to itself in exploiting what it had already secured and in joining in the scramble for more; but not one of them, after Hay had declared for the Open Door, dared openly to oppose the doctrine. It was as if, in a meeting, he had asked all those who believed in telling the truth to stand up; the liars would not have kept their seats.

"Hardly, however, had the world begun to accustom itself to the ideal of the Open Door, before the Boxer Rising intervened, and before this was put down demands for vengeance on the Chinese rose from many quarters. The German Emperor, whose Minister Ketteler had been shot in Peking, sent out a 'punitive' expedition under Count Waldersee, bidding his soldiers to give no quarter and to comport themselves so like Huns that for a thousand years to come no Chinese would dare to look a German in the face. Other Powers uttered their wrath more guardedly; but they all suspected, and probably hoped, that the new situation would justify them in dismembering China. To prevent this Hay worked indefatigably. He sent Mr. W. W. Rockhill—whom he regarded as being, next to Mr. Henry White, the best diplomat in the service—to China. He made his note of July 3 the basis of American action. As Russia occupied Niu-chwang, he sent to her a serious inquiry, to which he 'received a reply, most positive and satisfactory, that their occupation was military and temporary and that our commercial interests should not in any case be limited or injured. Russia,' he adds, 'has been more outspoken than before in her adhesion to the Open Door.' (September 8, 1900.)

"The approach of the much-prepared Waldersee,' wrote one of Hay's colleagues, 'seemed a peril. There was the danger that after all the Emperor's windy eloquence he might feel the necessity of kicking up a row to justify the appointment of Waldersee. I was very glad therefore that

the Russians gave us an opportunity to say that we would stay under a definite understanding and not otherwise. It begins to look as if there was some chance for the Open Door after all.' This was Hay's view also. He wished to hold the other Powers to their adherence to the Open Door, and at the same time to avoid the semblance of organizing an Anti-Russian coalition. To exact from the Chinese indemnities and the punishment of the chief culprits appeared to the Secretary the best sort of retribution; but the Germans went much further. Indeed, Count Waldersee's army obeyed with relish the Kaiser's command and played the congenial rôle of Huns in several districts. 'Everything appeared to be going well until this promenade of Waldersee's to Tao Ping,' Hay writes on October 16, 'which I fear will have very unfavorable results upon the rest of China. The Great Viceroys, to secure whose assistance was our first

cal moment, to wring other exactions from China. It came out later, however, that their mutual purpose was to check Russian aggression in Manchuria, and that Germany wished to prevent England from enjoying a monopoly of the Yangtze Valley trade. Before the end of the year the Powers were sufficiently agreed among themselves to join in drawing up a note in which they laid their demand before the Emperor of China, who perforce yielded to them.

"The negotiations went on for a long time yet but this was the culmination of the diplomatic battle, in which Secretary Hay won the most brilliant triumph of his career. Into the intricacies of the efforts to prevent China from being visected after the Boxer troubles, I will not enter. Hay's part in saving that Empire alive was greater than that of any other statesman. He made a magnificent bluff—which the United States could not



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BREACH MADE IN THE CITY WALLS OF PEKING BY THE ALLIED ENGINEERS
DURING THE BOXER REBELLION

effort and our success, have been standing by us splendidly for the last four months. How much longer they can hold their turbulent populations quiet in the face of constant incitements to disturbance which Germany and Russia are giving is hard to conjecture. . . . The success we had in stopping that first preposterous German movement when the whole world seemed likely to join in it, when the entire press of the Continent and a great many on this side were in favor of it, will always be a source of gratification,' he confides in the same letter to an intimate friend. 'The moment we acted, the rest of the world paused, and finally came over to our ground; and the German Government, which is generally brutal but seldom silly, recovered its senses, climbed down off its perch, and presented another proposition which was exactly in line with our position.' In spite of his having warded off the worst danger, the Secretary was both puzzled and somewhat troubled by the drawing together of England and Germany, because he feared that they intended, at the criti-

cal moment, to wring other exactions from China. Two quotations will bring before the reader the Secretary's state of mind in the autumn of 1900. First, as to the policy he upheld:—

"About China, it is the devil's own mess. We cannot possibly publish all the facts without breaking off relations with several Powers. We shall have to do the best we can, and take the consequences, which will be pretty serious. I do not doubt. "Give and take"—the axiom of diplomacy to the rest of the world—is positively forbidden to us, by both the Senate and public opinion. We must take what we can and give nothing—which greatly narrows our possibilities. . . . I take it, you agree with us that we are to limit as far as possible our military operations in China, to withdraw our troops at the earliest day consistent with our obligations, and in the final adjustment to do everything we can for the integrity and reform of China, and to hold on like grim death to the Open Door. . . ." (September 20, 1900.)

"From the next most confidential outpouring

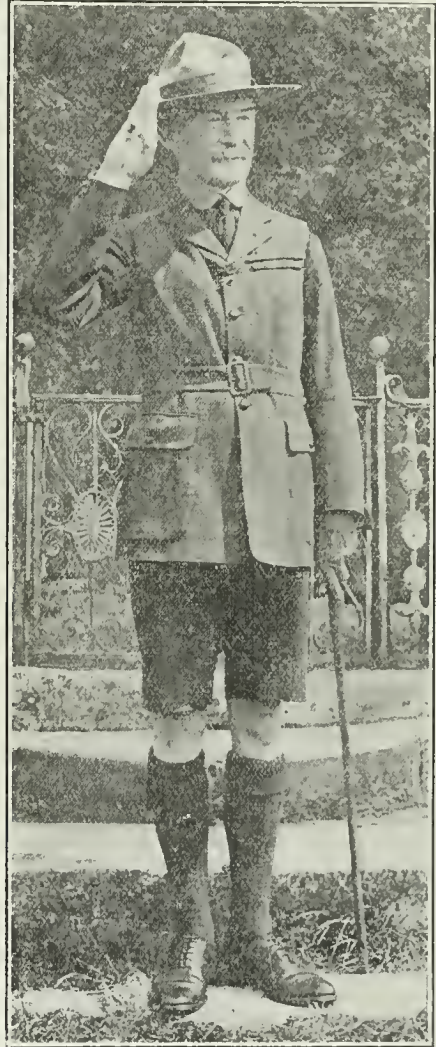
to Mr. Adams, we have Hay's private opinion of the other nations with whom he had to deal in the Chinese imbroglio. '... What a business this has been in China! So far we have got on by being honest and naïf—I do not clearly see where we are to come the delayed cropper? But it will come. At least we are spared the infamy of an alliance with Germany. I would rather, I think, be the dupe of China, than the chum of the Kaiser. Have you noticed how the world will take anything nowadays from a German? Bülow said yesterday in substance—"We have demanded of China everything we can think of. If we think of anything else we will demand that, and be d—d to you"—and not a man in the world kicks. My heart is heavy about John Bull. Do you twig his attitude to Germany? When the Anglo-German pact came out, I took a day or two to find out what it meant. I soon learned from Berlin that it meant a horrible practical joke on England. From London I found out what I had suspected, but what it astounded me, after all, to be assured of—that they did not know! Germany proposed it, they saw no harm in it, and signed. When Japan joined the pact, I asked them why. They said, "We don't know, only if there is any fun going on, we want to be in." Cassini is furious—which may be because he has not been let into the joke.' (To Henry Adams, Nov. 21, 1900.)

"Hay's achievement in this Chinese contest gave him an immense prestige. Throughout the world he was now looked upon as a statesman honest, disinterested, resourceful, and brilliant. His advocacy of arbitration which was preached at the first Hague Peace Conference in 1899, had already singled him out. [See Hague Conferences.] By his work in China Secretary Hay carried out in practice what he had professed at The Hague."—W. R. Thayer, *Life and letters of John Hay*, pp. 231-249.—See also CHINA: 1900-1908; 1901-1902; 1901-1908; 1902; MANCHURIA: 1900-1901.

ALSO IN: H. Cordier, *Histoire des relations de la Chine avec les Puissances Occidentales* (1902).—H. B. Morse, *International relations of the Chinese empire* (1910).—S. Conger, *Letters from China*.—N. Oliphant, *Diary of the siege of the legations in Peking during the summer of 1900*.

BOY SCOUTS: Origin.—"When the English Army invaded South Africa during the Boer War it discovered a very valuable auxiliary organization of boys under military age. This force known as boy scouts were thoroughly organized and performing all manner of messenger service and non-military duty in filling the places of those who had joined the Boer Army. General Baden-Powell carried the idea back to England and organized the Boy Scouts of England. During the first eight months of the European War 5,000 medals were given to Boy Scouts of England who had performed no fewer than twenty-eight days' service. About 50,000 boys had served a shorter time. Some served as Coast Guardsmen taking the place of men recalled to the fleet. In 1910 General Baden-Powell visited Canada and the United States appearing in various parts of the country advocating a similar organization here as a means of development of the potentialities of the American boys. There were in the United States at that time two similar organizations, the Woodcraft Indians founded by Ernest Thompson Seton, and the Sons of Daniel Boone founded by Dan C. Beard. These were united in 1910 under the title Boy Scouts of America and incorporated under the laws of the District of Columbia. In June,

1916, Congress granted them a special charter. The Boy Scouts of America are wielding a potent influence in the health, education, morality and business training and leadership of young America. As a Scout the boy willingly adopts as real and vital the universally accepted principles of life as set forth in the Scout Oath and Law. This effectively influences the boy's nature and character so as better to prepare him for that



SIR ROBERT S. S. BADEN-POWELL,
FATHER OF THE BOY SCOUTS

work which the church can best do. The church plays a leading rôle in the Boy Scout movement since it offers a common and free place of meeting under the inspiring environment of Christian endeavor and leadership. The Scout movement is not seeking to displace established educational institutions, for the value of school instruction is indisputable. It does, however, aim to supplement by engaging the boy's leisure energies in outdoor games and activities of culture and practical value."—H. S. Kerrick, *Military and naval America*, pp. 347-348.—The Boy Scout movement has spread to many other countries.

Purpose.—"The purpose of the corporation is 'to promote, through organization, and coöperation with other agencies, the ability of boys to do things for themselves and others, to train them in scoutcraft, and to teach them patriotism, courage, self-reliance, and kindred virtues, . . . by placing emphasis upon the Scout Oath and Law for character development, citizenship, training and physical fitness.' (C. Art. II.)"—*Boy Scouts of America, General Information Bulletin, p. 5.*—"The Boy Scout idea is a movement rather than an organization. It aims to supplement existing organizations such as the home, church and school by engaging the boys' leisure energies in outdoor games and activities of cultural and practical value. The aim of the Scout Movement is to inculcate character, which, though essential to success in life, is not taught within the school, and being largely a matter of environment is too generally left to chance, often with deplorable results. The Scout Movement endeavors to supply the required environment and ambitions through games and outdoor activities, which lead a boy to become a better man, a good citizen. . . . The Boy Scout Movement takes the boy at that time of life when he is beset with the new and bewildering experiences of adolescence and diverts his thoughts therefrom to wholesome and worth while activities. In this manner the movement has done much in numerous cities to diminish the problem of juvenile delinquency."—*Our aims and ideals (Scouting, Apr. 8, 1920, p. 4).*

Non-military spirit.—"As an organization the Scout Movement is not military in thought, form or spirit, although it does instil in boys the military virtues, such as honor, loyalty, obedience and patriotism. The uniform, the patrol, the troop, and the drill are not for military tactics; they are for the unity, the harmony and the rhythm of spirit that boys learn in Scouting. It is in the wearing of the uniform and doing of things together as scouts that they absorb the force and truth of the Scout Law, which states: 'A scout is a friend of all, and a brother to every other scout.'—*Scouting, Apr. 8, 1920, p. 6.*

Numbers and leaders.—In 1922 the Boy Scouts of America showed the highest membership since the organization of the movement. It numbers at present 528,119 men and boys actively engaged in Scouting. In addition to this, there are probably twice as many more boys who are more or less actively following out the Scout Program because they have at some time come within the influence of scout training. They pay their own expenses, but must be directed, taught and helped. Over 32,000 clean men—largely college bred—are scoutmasters and assistants, while some 70,000 men act as councilmen and troop committeemen. They receive no pay, but they must be carefully selected and stimulated by helpful publications and field work.

Motto and pledge.—"The motto of the Boy Scouts is *Be Prepared*. This means that the scout is always in a state of readiness in mind and body to do his duty. . . . Before he becomes a scout a boy must make the following promise. *On My Honor I Will Do My Best:* (1) To do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the Scout Laws; (2) To help other people at all times; (3) To keep myself physically strong, mentally awake, and morally straight."—*Ibid., p. 9.*

Scoutcraft and classes.—"Scoutcraft includes instruction in First Aid, Life Saving, Tracking, Signaling, Cycling, Nature Study, Seamanship, Campcraft, Woodcraft, Chivalry, and all of the handicrafts. . . . The Boy Scouts of America after meeting certain requirements are first enrolled as

tenderfoot scouts. Other examinations must be passed before they can be promoted to second-class scouts, and still harder tests must be met before they can graduate into first-class scouts. Then comes an opportunity for further broadening their usefulness through preparation to meet the requirements for securing each of the sixty merit badges."—*Scouting, Apr. 8, 1920, pp. 5, 8.*

1917-1918.—Work during World War.—"Two thousand Boy Scouts, gathered on the plaza before the Department of Agriculture in Washington [April 21, 1917], and carrying garden tools of all sorts, the Assistant Secretary of Agriculture said: 'Arm yourselves with pick and hoe. Till every scrap of vacant lawn. Raise tomatoes, beans and peas, and you will do an immeasurable service to your country, and the promise was given that the message would be sent to all Boy Scout organizations in the country. The day, April 21, had been called 'National Planting Day' and the boys marched to a three hundred acre plot donated by the Government for farming purposes. In New York City a mass meeting of Boy Scouts received a telegram from Mr. Hoover telling them that 'America will have to feed the world for the next two or three years, even if the war should end this year,' and Mr. Roosevelt urged them to 'start a garden and thereby help to feed the soldiers.'"—*J. B. McMaster, United States in the World War, p. 368.*—"The Government called upon the scouts for many forms of service. When the shortage of black walnut for gunstocks and aeroplane propellers became alarming, scouts located 20,758,660 board feet of standing walnut, or 5,200 carloads. There were also over 100 carloads of fruit pits collected for gas masks, and many thousand war gardens and war farms were conducted by scouts throughout the country. They are likewise recorded as having distributed 30,000,000 pieces of Government literature. Scouts rendered invaluable services to the Red Cross, United War Work Committee, and other national organizations."—*Scouting, Apr. 8, 1920, p. 20.*—"During the World War over 100,000 of the British Boy Scouts were employed in war work, over 100,000 joined the colors and about 35,000 were of service in coast-guard work under the admiralty.

1919.—Work with American Legion.—"One of the . . . developments of the year 1919 was the action taken by the American Legion to substantially contribute to the solution of the problem of leadership of the Boy Scouts of America. At their national convention held in Minneapolis in November, 1919, the following resolution was passed: 'Resolved, That the American Legion heartily commends the principles and achievements of the Boy Scouts of America and recommends that each post assist the boy scout troops in its community in whatever manner practicable.' . . . Plans have been developed whereby each Post will be requested to organize a committee for coöperation with the Boy Scouts of America. The principal responsibility of this committee will be the selection from the membership of the Post of those men who are especially adapted to become leaders of groups of boys as scoutmasters or expert instructors. These men are to be grouped in different cities for special training and then enlisted for active service. Already in the organization of new troops in churches, schools or elsewhere, the leadership has been secured from among the membership of the American Legion."—*Scouting, Apr. 8, 1920, pp. 39-42.*—See also AMERICAN LEGION.

1920.—First International Jamboree.—"The First International Boy Scout Jamboree was held

in the Olympia, London, from July 31st to August 7th, 1920. 301 Picked Boy Scouts from over two hundred representative communities of the United States comprised the delegation under the leadership of Colonel L. R. Gignilliat, Superintendent of the Culver Military Academy, assisted by fifty-six expert adult leaders in boys' work. After the contests in England, the Jamboree party crossed the Channel on August 8th to France and were the guests of the French Government for the next ten days, and after that time, were guests of the Belgian Government. The party officially visited the chief cities and principal battlefields of France and Belgium. An international conference of Scout Leaders occurred August 26-30 with President Livingstone, Vice-President Mortimer Schiff, John M. Phillips and Bolton Smith, members of the Executive Board, and Chief Scout Executive West, as [American] . . . delegates."—*Catalogue of the international Scout Jamboree and educational tour*, p. 1.

1922.—World statistics.—"According to the latest figures available from the International Scout Bureau at London, the Boy Scouts of America exceed in numbers the total membership of Scouts in all the rest of the world put together. The total membership of all other countries affiliated with the International Bureau is 460,089. There are several other active scout associations which are not yet affiliated with the Bureau and whose numbers are therefore not at present available. These unaffiliated countries are Armenia, Argentine, Brazil, Chile, China, Greece, Japan, Panama, Roumania and Uruguay.

Name of Organization	Numbers
Boy Scouts of America	528,119
Austria	1,794
Boy Scouts de Belgique	3,115
B. P. Belgian Boy Scouts	15,000
Brazilian Catholic Scouts	161
British Empire	324,700
Czecho-Slovakia	5,000
Denmark	5,300
Estonia	1,086
Eclaireurs de France	No report
Eclaireurs Unionistes de France	3,800
Scouts de France	2,000
Holland	4,962
Hungary	3,800
Italian National Scouts	10,000
Italian Catholic Scouts	4,000
Latvia	161
Liberia	359
Luxembourg Scouts	500
Luxembourg Catholic Scouts	446
Norway	5,185
Poland	30,000
Portugal	120
Serbia	1,000
Spain	28,000
Sweden	6,000
Switzerland	3,600

—*Boy Scouts of America, News Items.*

ALSO IN: *Boy Scouts of America, Scoutmasters' handbook; Handbook for boys; Boy scouts' song book; Boy scout movement and the public schools.*—*Boy Scouts of America, Greater Boston Council, City scouting, a suggestion to Greater Boston scout masters.*—R. S. S. Baden-Powell, *Scoutmastership.*—Columbia university, *Citizenship through scouting.*

BOYACA, Battle of (1810). See COLOMBIA: 1810-1810.

BOYADSHIVEFF, Bulgarian commander in Serbia. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: a.

BOYARS.—"The old Muscovite Tsars had always governed their Empire with the aid of their boyars who had been a well-organized body, permeated with the aristocratic spirit, and thoroughly inured to power. True the political status of that body had rested on no direct legal warranty, but on age long custom."—V. O. Kluchevsky, *History of Russia*, translated by Hogarth, v. 3, p. 69.—"In the old times, when Russia was merely a collection of independent principalities, each reigning prince was surrounded by a group of armed men, composed partly of Boyars, or large landed proprietors, and partly of knights, or soldiers of fortune. These men were to a certain extent under the authority of the Prince, but they were by no means mere obedient, silent executors of his will. The Boyars might refuse to take part in his military expeditions. . . . With the formation of cities, the boyars were appointed by their princes to the highest military and civil posts. They also formed a council of the ruling princes called the 'boyarskaya дума. Under the Tartar domination this political equilibrium was destroyed. [See RUSSIA: 17th century: Parliamentary institutions.] When the country had been conquered, the princes became servile vassals of the Khan, and arbitrary rulers towards their own subjects. The political significance of the nobles was thereby greatly diminished."—D. M. Wallace, *Russia*, ch. 17.—"With the middle of the fifteenth century a profound change took place in their composition. . . . In proportion as the strict *miestnichestoo* ranks of the boyars order gradually grew thinner and thinner, there stepped into the resultant vacancies new families of obscure origin. . . . Consequently, we cease to see the new Tsars surrounded by unbroken ranks of the old aristocratic families who had formerly stood at the head of the community."—V. O. Kluchevsky, *History of Russia*, v. 2, p. 39.—"In all their relations with the Suzerain Prince the boyars of this period retained the same character of free, uncovenanted councillors and covenanted retainers as had distinguished the boyars under the princes of the twelfth century."—*Ibid.*, v. 3, p. 69-70.—"With Peter the Great the class of boyars ceased to exist. The boyars as a class failed to retain their privileges because (1) the rank was not hereditary and varied in dignity, (2) a boyar could migrate from one prince to another at will. Boyar is supposed to be a derivative from the Scandinavian *boljar*, the Russian rendering of which was *Kniaz Mooj* (princely man). The name of "boyars" was adopted by Rumania, where to this day it designates land owners.—See also RUSSIA: 16th century: Economic revolution.

BOYCOTT: Origin of term.—"Few words can boast of as curious and interesting an introduction into the English language as . . . the boycott. 'I was dining with Father John O'Malley,' writes James Redpath, in his 'Talks of Ireland,' 1881, 'and he asked me why I was not eating. I said "I am bothered about a word." "What is it?" asked Father John. "Well," said I, "when a people ostracise a landgrabber we call it social excommunication, but we ought to have an entirely different word to signify ostracism applied to a landlord or land agent like Boycott. Ostracism won't do." . . . "No," said Father John, "ostracism won't do." He looked down, tapped his big forehead, and said, "How would it do to call it 'to boycott him'?" Then I was delighted, and I said, "Tell your people to call it boycotting, so that when the reporters come down from Dublin and London they will hear the word. Use it yourself in the Castlebar *Telegraph*. I'm going to Dublin, and will ask the young orators of the land

league to give it that name. I will use it in my correspondence, and between us we will make it famous" . . . Incidentally also the infamies of Captain Boycott were immortalized. . . . For years the Irish peasantry had been heavily burdened by the British landlord class. Lands had been confiscated, homes of the peasants destroyed, starvation wages paid. As the year 1880 approached, evictions became more numerous and their causes more trivial. . . . Among the most hated of the retainers of the landlord class was Captain Boycott, an agent of Lord Erne in County Mayo, in the district of Connemara. In the summer of 1880 he sent his tenants to the fields to cut oats, offering the men and women 32 and 24 cents a day respectively, instead of 62 and 37 cents, the regular wages. They refused to serve, and Boycott, his wife, nieces, nephews and servants undertook to harvest the crop, but desisted, thoroughly exhausted after a few hours' labor. The tenants were finally induced by the pleas of Mrs. Boycott to return to work, but on rent day were confronted by a formidable array of 18 constables equipped with eviction papers. Three papers were served, whereupon the outraged workers called a mass meeting, induced the servants, herders and drivers to desert Boycott, and secured the pledges of those present to cease all relations with the captain and his family. At the call of Boycott, a relief expedition, consisting of seven regiments and fifty hired men, was soon rushed to the estate, and the potatoes and other commodities were finally gathered at an expense of between \$35,000 and \$50,000—many times the value of the crop. Three days later after the decree of social ostracism was pronounced, the word 'boycott' was invented. It was first used publicly by Redpath, August, 1880, in the village of Deeanane."—H. W. Laidler, *Boycotts and the labor struggle*, pp. 23, 24, 25.—There are two forms of boycott, primary and secondary. The former is a combination directly employed against a firm, while the latter is a combination employed against a group, who in turn are compelled to refrain from dealing with a firm against whom the original combination is really formed. (See below: DUPLEX PRINTERS' CASE.)

Use in Asia.—The boycott has been employed in China, against American goods, as a tangible form of protest against the exclusion of Chinese from the United States, and, more effectively, against everything Japanese, as an expression of hostility to the occupation of Shantung by Japan. In India, *Swadeshi*, or the boycott of imported goods, and especially of British goods, has been a marked feature of the nationalist movement.—See also CHINA: 1905; 1919-1920.

Status in Europe.—The boycott has been effectively used as an economic weapon in Europe, especially in Ireland, also in England, France and Germany, where it has played a prominent part in labor struggles and in correcting abuses. From 1097 to the middle of the nineteenth century the farmer-tenants of northern France claimed the right to perpetual enjoyment of their land. Since this right was in conflict with the French law, the farmers paid the landlord a premium which he dared not refuse for fear of being boycotted. English courts recognized the legality of the boycott and punished only acts of violence or intimidation. The boycott as it exists in the United States was never felt to any great extent in England. In Germany the law is similar to that in England, and imposes penalties on those who coerce others by violence. But persuading the general public to cease dealings with a party was decided in 1906 as not actionable for damages. In none of the

European countries is there a specific law against boycotting, although the laws against intimidation might be used, if necessary, against the employment of the boycott. In England and Germany, however, the boycott is virtually legalized.—See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916; POLAND: 1872-1910.

See also GUILDS; Modern times; RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.

1809-1850.—Early development in the United States. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1809-1850.

1880-1892.—Frequent use of, in the United States.—Gradual opposition to.—"At one time in the development of labor's policy, the boycott seemed a very hopeful weapon. Between 1880 and 1890 the Knights of Labor, as a nation-wide organization, reached the height of its power. [See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1880-1900.] During the same period the American Federation of Labor came into being. [See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916.] Both organizations were enthusiastic and saw labor's millennium just ahead. With eagerness the boycott was seized as a convenient weapon for fighting. While there is no complete information available as to the number of boycotts that were instituted during this period, the facts that have been collected show that its use touched a wide variety of trades, and that the outcome in a large proportion of cases was successful to the workers. Especially favorable did the method of attack prove against the newspapers, publishers, manufacturers of cigars, hats, clothing, stoves, against flour mills, hotels and theaters. A very complete record of boycotting was published by the New York Bureau of Statistics of Labor during the eight years, 1885 to 1892 inclusive. Covering that time records were compiled of 1,352 boycotts. In the first year there were 50. The year following the number increased to 163. . . . An analysis of the data of boycotts during the eighties and nineties of the last century shows some interesting conclusions. Of those that were brought to a final termination, from two-thirds to three-fourths were successful, and, generally speaking, the greatest successes came to boycotts against primary necessities. It also appears that 'the success of boycotts is likely to be in inverse ratio to their frequency; that those boycotts which do not act effectively within the first few months are much less likely to succeed than those vigorously pushed from the very beginning; also that the causes underlying the boycott are among the determining factors in its success.' Further it appears that while boycotts are subject to abuse, such abuse is liable to prove a 'boomerang against labor.' With its continued use, the abuse tends to become less. The facts of the period indicate also a growing conservatism on the part of unions in the use of the boycott."—G. G. Groat, *Introduction to the study of organized labor in America*, pp. 257-258.—See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916.

1892.—Factors affecting its success.—Decrease in numbers of, in the United States.—"Several factors appear as of leading significance in determining the success of a boycott when no appeal is made to the court for legal interference. The following list is suggested by Laidler: the character of the market for the commodities boycotted; the strength of the boycotting organization; the frequency and regularity with which the article is purchased; the location of the boycotted firm; its capital; nation-wide extent of its trade; the degree of monopoly; the manner in which the unionists concentrate on one firm; the publicity

secured; the ease with which the boycotted goods are distinguished; the character of the competition against the firm; the directness of the boycotting attacks; the causes leading to the institution of the boycott; the vigor with which it is pushed at the very outset; and the care used in its inauguration. . . . In 1892 the New York Commissioner reports the decrease in the number of boycotts. One reason he assigns is that organized labor has attained a development where it finds it necessary to wield the 'potent weapon' with caution. Doubtless the success of indictments in court had its effect also in securing caution. The newer and more radical the union, generally the more readily the boycott was used in its more offensive form, often continuing the boycott after the demands had been granted, and driving the victim out of business as an example to others, or demanding payments of money as a most open form of blackmail."—*Ibid.*, pp. 258-261.

1894.—Pullman strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1880-1900.

1897-1920.—Hatters' boycott.—Buck Stove and Range boycott.—Recent judicial decisions in the United States.—State anti-boycott laws.—"Recent years have witnessed two great contests in which the boycott has figured as the leading if not the sole means adopted by the unions to secure their ends. These two are what are known as the Hatters' Boycott and the Buck Stove and Range Boycott. The latter began in 1906. The former was a part of a campaign for a closed shop begun by the Brotherhood of United Hatters of America in 1897. This campaign had been successful in a majority of shops. But when the shop of Daniel Loewe was attacked, he made a firm resistance and the machinery of a well-organized boycotting system was turned against it in 1902. Both of these cases were taken to court and made the cause of a desperate legal fight. Opinions went steadily against the boycotters. The Buck Stove and Range Case assumed the form of a struggle between the company of that name and the American Federation of Labor officials. Injunctions were issued forbidding the continuance of the boycott, the injunction was appealed and sentences that had been pronounced for its violation suspended pending the appeal. The case was finally brought to a settlement in the United States Supreme Court in accordance with which the accused were not required to serve sentence that had been imposed by lower courts nor were the principles in the case authoritatively decided. [See also LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916.] The Loewe Case was brought under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. The final decision of the United States Supreme Court in this case, after many years of trial and appeal, holds the boycotters, the individual members of the local union, individually liable for three times the damages sustained by the Loewe firm.

"In 1903 Alabama enacted the first state law in the United States in which boycotting is dealt with by name, declaring it to be illegal and subject to fine or imprisonment. The provisions of this statute are very rigid, making it a misdemeanor for any one to have printed or circulated any notice that a boycott 'exists or has existed or is contemplated.' Colorado, Illinois, Indiana and Texas have also placed anti-boycott laws on their statute books. These laws are similar in their general provisions. As to the legality of boycotts there can be but one opinion. 'As simple strikes are nearly always lawful, so boycotts are nearly always unlawful.' Boycott has come to mean

generally in law 'an unlawful conspiracy.' What the law is admits of no discussion from laymen. It is simply a fact, enacted by a legislature or declared by a court and a fact, of course, to be accepted. But what the law ought to be is certainly a topic open to discussion."—*Ibid.*, pp. 262-264.

1921.—Duplex printers' case.—United States Supreme Court decision interpreting the Clayton law.—"In a far-reaching decision affecting the rights of labor organizations to employ the secondary boycott against employers, the Supreme Court of the United States today [Jan. 3, 1921] held that the Clayton law amendatory of the Sherman anti-trust act did not make labor unions immune from prosecution and judicial restraint in their interference with the interstate trade of employers. This decision ranks in importance with the action of the Supreme Court in convicting the Danbury Hatters' Union of unfair practices, and is, in fact, an overturning of the contention of organized labor that the Clayton law exempted labor unions from the operations of those sections of the Sherman act which had been held to apply to them in the Danbury hatters' case. The Clayton law was enacted subsequent to the Danbury hatters' decision and the view had been asserted that part of its intent was to relieve labor organizations of liability under the Sherman act provisions forbidding combinations in restraint of trade. Six Justices of the Court, including Chief Justice White, voted to uphold the opinion rendered. Justices Holmes, Brandeis and Clarke dissented. The decision overrules the United States District Court for the Southern District of New York (Manhattan) and the United States Circuit Court of Appeals, which had held that the Clayton act rendered labor unions immune from prosecution for employing the secondary boycott. This was described by the court as 'a combination not merely to refrain from dealing with complainant or to advise or by peaceful means to persuade complainant's customers to refrain (primary boycott) but to exercise coercive pressure upon such customers, actual and prospective, in order to cause them to withhold or withdraw patronage from complainant through fear of loss or damage to themselves should they deal with it.' [See COPPAGE VS. KANSAS.]

"The case on which yesterday's decision was made began in 1913, when employees of the Duplex-Printing Press Company, which conducted an open shop, endeavored to start a strike. Of the two hundred men employed in the factory only about ten walked out. The strike being unsuccessful, the union attempted to break up the sale and distribution of the company's product by an interstate boycott, calling on all unions, affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, to prevent the hauling, assembling, repairing and operation of all printing presses made by it. A temporary injunction was obtained by the company in 1914, when the unions threatened to boycott all of the exhibitors in an exposition at the Grand Central Palace if the Duplex company was allowed to exhibit its presses. When the case came up in the United States District Court for a permanent injunction it was held that the Clayton act forbade the issuance of an injunction in such cases. This decision was upheld in the United States Circuit Court of Appeals. A year ago it was placed in the United States Supreme Court.

"The dissenting opinion of Justices Holmes, Brandeis and Clarke, delivered by Justice Brandeis, makes the contention that the court's decision renders futile an effort of more than twenty years to place employers and employees on an equal

basis before the law. These three Justices held that the action of the International Association was not a secondary boycott but, 'an instance of a strike of those who have a common interest to protect themselves by preventing use of products which part of them have tried to prevent manufacture of by a strike.' The point was made that it was clearly a case of self-defense. This contention was supported by citing that manufacturers refused to sell their products to customers employing union labor exclusively. The question is, said Justice Brandeis in the dissenting opinion, whether 60,000 laborers may not say that they would not let their men work on products manufactured in shops against which the laborers were striking."—*N. Y. Times*, Jan. 4, 1921.

See also **BLACKLIST**: Industrial; **LABOR STRIKES** AND **BOYCOTTS**.

ALSO IN: H. W. Laidler, *Boycotts and the labor struggle*.—L. Wolman, *Boycott in American trade unions*.

BOYCOTT, Charles Cunningham (1832-1897), British estate agent in Ireland. See **BOYCOTT**: Origin.

BOYD, Gerald Farrell (1877-), British major general. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: o, 2.

BOYD, John Parker (1764-1830), American general. See U. S. A.: 1811; 1813 (April-July), (October-November).

BOYDEN, Roland William (1863-), American lawyer, United States unofficial observer at Reparations Commission. See U. S. A.: 1921 (May).

BOY-ED, Captain Karl, naval attaché of the German embassy in Washington. Was dismissed December 4, 1915, by the American government for "improper activity in naval matters."

BOYER, Jean Pierre (1776-1850), president of Haiti, 1818-1848. See **HAITI**: 1804-1880.

BOYLE, Robert (1627-1691), an English physicist and chemist, one of the founders of the Royal Society; is best known for the law bearing his name relating to the elasticity of gases, and as the founder of Boyle's lectures for the defense of Christianity.—See also **CHEMISTRY**: General; **Phlogiston period**; **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: Early experiments.

BOYNE, Battle of the (1690). See **IRELAND**: 1689.

BOYS' CLUBS. See **BOY SCOUTS**: Origin.

BOYS IN BLUE; **BOYS IN GRAY**.—Soldier nicknames of the American Civil War.—"During the first year of the war [of the rebellion, in the United States] the Union soldiers commonly called their opponents, 'Rebs' and 'Secesh'; in 1862, 'Confeds'; in 1863, 'Graybacks' and 'Butternuts'; and in 1864, 'Johnnies.' The nickname 'Butternuts' was given the Confederates on account of their homespun clothes, dyed reddish-brown with a dye made of butternut bark. The last name, 'Johnnies,' is said to have originated in a quarrel between two pickets, which began by the Union man's saying that the Confederates depended on England to get them out of their scrape. . . . The Union man . . . said that a 'Reb' was no better than a Johnny Bull, anyhow. . . . The name stuck, and in the last part of the war the Confederate soldiers were almost universally called 'Johnnies.' Throughout the war the Confederates dubbed all the Union soldiers 'Yankees' and 'Yanks,' without any reference to the part of the country they came from. . . . Other nicknames for Union soldiers, occasionally used, were 'Feds,' 'Blue Birds' and 'Blue Bellies.' Since the war the opponents have been commonly called

'Boys in Blue' and 'Boys in Gray.'—J. D. Champlin, Jr., *Young folks' history of the war for the Union*, p. 137.

BOYS' WORKING RESERVE. See **UNITED STATES BOYS' WORKING RESERVE**.

BOZZARIS, Marco (c. 1799-1823), Greek patriot. See **GREECE**: 1821-1829.

BRABANT, ancient duchy, part of which is now the central and metropolitan province of Belgium. Its estimated population in 1919 was 1,561,855 to an area of 1,268 square miles. See **NETHERLANDS**: Map.

Mythical explanation of the name. See **ANTWERP**: Name.

4th century.—First settlement of the Franks. See **TOXANDRIA**.

9th century.—Known as Basse Lorraine. See **LORRAINE**: 843-870.

1096-1099.—Duke Godfrey de Bouillon in the first Crusade, and his kingdom of Jerusalem. See **CRUSADES**: 1096-1099.

12th to 15th centuries.—County and duchy.—From the beginning of the twelfth century, the county, afterwards the duchy, of Brabant, existed under its own counts and dukes, until the beginning of the fifteenth century, when it drifted under the sovereignty of the Burgundian dukes.

1430.—Acquisition by the house of Burgundy. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1428-1430.

1584-1585.—Recovery by Spain. See **NETHERLANDS**: 1584-1585.

1914.—War indemnity demanded by Germany. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: Western front: c, 2.

1916.—German deportation of citizens. See **WORLD WAR**: 1916: X. German rule in Northern France.

Reclamation projects. See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES**: Meaning of reclamation.

BRABANT, School of, school of Flemish painters founded by Roger van der Weyden, whose style was like that of the Van Eycks. Prominent members of this school were Van der Goes, Justus van Ghent, Dierick Bouts, who later founded the school at Haarlem, and Memling.

BRABANT-SUR-MEUSE, town about nine miles northwest of Verdun, France, in the outer line of defense of that fortress (1916); for a time held by the attacking Germans during the World War.

BRACCIO, Count of Montone, nicknamed Portebraccio (1368-1424), Perugian captain of adventurers. See **ITALY**: 1412-1447.

BRACCO, Roberto (1862-), Italian dramatist. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1880-1920.

BRACHYCEPHALIC, meaning short-headed. See **ANTHROPOLOGY**: Definition; **ARYANS**: Distribution; **DOLICHOCEPHALIC MEN**; **PACIFIC OCEAN**.

BRACKLEY, Thomas Egerton, Baron Ellesmere, Viscount (c. 1540-1617), English jurist and lord chancellor of England from 1603-1617. See **EQUITY LAW**: 1596.

BRACTON, Henry de (d. 1268), English jurist. See **COMMON LAW**: 1216-1272.

BRADDOCK, Edward (1605-1755), British general. See **OHIO**: 1755; U. S. A.: 1755; **Wisconsin**: 1755-1765; **CANADA**: 1755 (April).

BRADDON SECTION.—Constitution of Australia. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1910.

BRADFORD, William (1589-1657), American pioneer and governor of Plymouth colony. See **INDEPENDENTS**, **SEPARATISTS**: 1604-1617; **MASSACHUSETTS**: 1621.

BRADFORD, William (1663-1752), American printer. See **PRINTING AND THE PRESS**: 1685-1693.

BRADFORD, Battle of (1643). See **ADWALTON MOORE**.

BRADLEY, John R., American arctic explorer. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1901-1900.

BRADLEY, Joseph Philo (1813-1892), American jurist. Associate justice United States Supreme Court, 1870-1892; fifteenth member of electoral commission of 1877.

BRADSHAW, John (1602-1659) English jurist. See ENGLAND: 1649 (January).

BRADY, John Green (1848-1918), governor of Alaska 1897-1904. See ALASKA: 1884-1922.

BRAEMAR CASTLE, British hospital ship, sunk by Germans in 1916. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: 2.

BRAGA, Theophilo (1843-), president of Portugal, 1910-1911. See PORTUGAL: 1910-1912.

BRAGANZA, the capital of an administrative district in northeastern Portugal. It gave its name to the family of Braganza, different members of which were rulers of Portugal, 1640-1853, and emperors of Brazil, 1822-1889.—See also BRAZIL: 1531-1641; PORTUGAL: 1637-1668.

BRAGG, Braxton (1817-1876), American soldier. Rendered distinguished services in the Mexican War and served as general in the Confederate army during the Civil War.

Invasion of Kentucky. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

Battle of Stone river. See U. S. A.: 1862-1863 (December-January: Tennessee).

Tullahoma campaign. See U. S. A.: 1863 (June-July: Tennessee).

Chickamauga.—Chattanooga campaign. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September, and October-November: Tennessee).

Battle of Kinston (1864). See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March: North Carolina).

BRAGG, William Henry (1862-), English physicist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1915; SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Physics.

BRAGG, William John, English physicist, son of William Henry Bragg. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1915; SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Physics.

BRAHE, Tycho (1546-1601), Danish astronomer and writer. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1479-1750; SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance; 16th century.

BRAHMA.—"Brahmanism grew out of Vedism. It teaches the identification of all the forces of phenomena of Nature with one spiritual Being—the only real Entity—which, when unmanifested and impersonal, is called *Brahmā* (neut.); when manifested as a creator, is called *Brahmā* (masc.); as a disintegrator, *Śiva*; as a preserver, *Vishnu*; and when manifested in the highest order of men, is called *Brahmana* ('the Brahmins'). Brahmanism is rather a philosophy than a religion. Its fundamental doctrine is spiritual Pantheism. Hence *Brahmā* is only a creator in the sense of being the first Evolution out of the one Spirit, the evolution out of which all other evolutions have proceeded. He is not a creator in the sense of creating the world out of nothing. The only Creator or, more correctly, Evolver, is the neuter entity called *Brahmā*, the source of all created things."—M. Monier-Williams, *Brahmanism and Hinduism*, p. 2.—See also BRAHMANISM: Essential features; HINDU LITERATURE; MYTHOLOGY: India: Unparalleled length of life.

BRAHMA SAMAJ.—"The impact of Christianity and Western civilization upon India has led to at least two noteworthy efforts to adjust Hinduism to modern conditions. The earliest of these efforts is the Brahma Samaj (Society of God), founded in 1828 by Ram Mohan Ray, a

distinguished, broad-minded Brahman. It has had since his death two other distinguished leaders, Debendra Nath Tagore and Keshab Chandra Sen. As each of these leaders stood for a somewhat different religious position, and as there were some members of the society who, at each new departure, preferred the older view, the Brahma Samaj is now composed of three wings. All branches of it agree that God is a personal being, that he never became incarnate, that he hears and answers prayer, that he is to be worshiped only in spiritual ways, that men of all castes may worship him acceptably, that repentance and cessation from sin are the only way to forgiveness and salvation, and that nature and intuition are the sources of the knowledge of God, no book being authoritative. The branch of it led by Keshab Chandra Sen is known as the 'New Dispensation Samaj.' It adds to the articles already mentioned belief that the soul is immortal; that God is a Trinity, Father, Son, and Spirit; that God is Mother as well as Father; that God speaks through inspired men as well as through nature and intuition; that Brahmanism is a universal religion; and that the Brahma Samaj is God's latest dispensation and its missionaries his apostles. In 1901 there were but 4,050 members in all three branches of the society."—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 197-198.—See also BRAHMANISM.

BRAHMANISM: Essential features.—"Although Brahmanism has exercised a vast influence over the beliefs and worships of Asia during many centuries, and still numbers, at the lowest calculation, more than two hundred million votaries, it is not a Faith that can itself be traced back to an epoch or a founder. . . . In the first place, it is neither militant nor aggressively missionary; it does not openly attempt to make proselytes, in the sense of persuading them or compelling them to come in. Secondly, it is not historic; it has sacred books, but no sacred history. And, thirdly, it has never been defined by formal creeds, nor has it ever accepted a single personal Deity. The general character of Indian religion is that it is a boundless sea of divine beliefs and practices; it encourages the worship of innumerable gods by an infinite variety of rites; it permits every doctrine to be taught, every kind of mystery to be imagined, any sort of theory to be held as to the inner nature and visible operation of the divine power. . . .

"But the Indian philosophy does not ignore or hold aloof from the religion of the masses; it underlies, supports, and interprets their polytheism. This may be accounted the keystone of the fabric of Brahmanism, which accepts and even encourages the rudest forms of idolatry, explaining everything by giving it a higher meaning. It treats all the worships as outward, visible signs of some spiritual truth, and is ready to show how each particular image or rite is the symbol of some aspect of universal divinity. The Hindus, like the pagans of antiquity, adore natural objects, and forces—a mountain, a river, or an animal. The Brahman holds all Nature to be the vesture or cloak of indwelling, divine energy, which inspires everything that produces awe or passes man's understanding. Again, it is very common in India, as it was in Greece and Rome, to deify extraordinary men, and the Brahman does not tell his disciples that this is absurd; he agrees that such persons must have been special embodiments of all-pervading divine power. In short, he accepts every variety of cult and objective worships as symbolical; it is merely the expression or emblem, suited to the common intelligence, of mys-

terious truths known to the philosophic theologian. In this manner, the gross idolatry of the people is defended, and connected with the loftier ideas. It is maintained that God is a Pure Spirit, but to make Him wholly impersonal is to place Him beyond the reach of ordinary human interest and imagination; so it is well for the less advanced minds to be encouraged by forms and signs of His presence. All worship, it is said, is expressed through the senses symbolically. A temple or church is a visible mark of our belief that the divinity abides among us; an image is the mystical token of the indwelling spirit; while prayer and sacrifices are the preparatory training toward more intelligent devotion. What we can conceive in our minds we may well picture to our eyes; and, by this method, the innumerable shapes and sacred places of Hindu polytheism are consecrated and adopted into the higher theology. . . . Above and beyond the miscellaneous crowd of things and persons, living or inanimate, unœen or embodied, that are worshipped as possessed by divine power, we have the great deities of Brahmanism, from whom all this divine power proceeds, and in whom

sacrifices; they have innumerable temples, images, and personified attributes. Yet to all the more intellectual worshippers, Vishnu and Siva represent the course and constitution of Nature. And, if you inquire further about these things, you will learn all phenomenal existence is a kind of illusion, to be gradually dissipated by the acquisition of knowledge; for the reality becomes intelligible only to those whose souls have been strengthened and clarified by long meditation, by ascetic exercises, by casting out all worldly thoughts and desires. . . .

"But all Hindus worship directly the high gods of Brahmanism. Brahma, having accomplished once for all his work of creation, has retired into the background of the popular Pantheon; he has very few temples or images; Vishnu and Siva divide the allegiance of devout and orthodox people. It is impossible here to give the diverse names or emblems under which they are worshipped; yet some mention must be made of the Sakhtis—that is, of the divine forces of preservation and destruction, especially the female principle of productiveness, as personified by goddesses, the mates or consorts of Vishnu and Siva. Thus,



THE GODS OF THE INDIAN TRIAD

the principal energies and the fundamental laws of nature are personified. Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva are the realistic abstractions of the understanding from objects of sense. They denote Creation, Preservation, and Destruction, the constant succession of birth and death throughout all existence, the process of destroying to produce, and of producing to destroy. Here we perceive that, as soon as we pass upward through the disorderly mass of ordinary paganism, we come upon polytheism backed by philosophy; we may scatter the irregular levies, and are confronted by the outworks of disciplined theology. The great Brahmanic Trinity are adored with various rites and

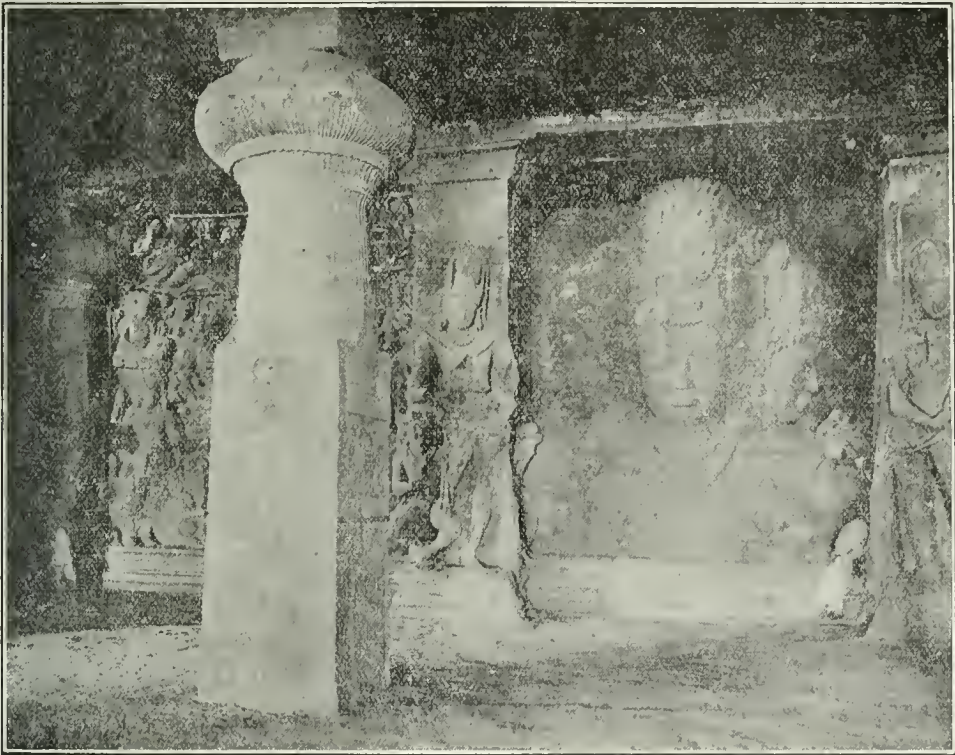
Vishnu and Siva, with their consorts, are the pinnacles of the visible Brahmanic edifice; they are different manifestations of the Supreme Being; they represent among educated men separate systems of worship, which, again, are founded on separate schools or opinions regarding the relations between God and man, and the proper ways and means of attaining to spiritual emancipation. For, the whole purpose of the higher Brahmanism is to find and show the path which leads upward, from the simple unvarnished popular superstitions to the true and pure knowledge of the Supreme Being, by laying out a connection between the upper and lower aspects of religion. . . . This, then, is the

philosophic religion at the back of the popular worship, to which it gives an explanation and a final purpose. For Brahmanism holds out to all men, as its scheme of salvation, the hope of escape from the pain and weariness of sensitive existence in any shape or stage. . . .

"In regard to the Sacred Books, they contain, partly, the sayings, precepts, and mystic utterances of the ancient sages; partly, prayers and psalms; and, partly, abstruse speculations on the divine nature, with scholastic dissertations and commentaries. The modern students and teachers of the various schools or sects of Brahmanism treat these books as authoritative, and are constantly discussing, expounding, or adapting them

matic backbone has left the religion elastic and tolerant, has enabled its teachers to assimilate and adapt the lower forms of worship, instead of endeavoring to destroy them."—A. C. Lyall, *Brahmanism* (*North American Review*, Dec., 1900, pp. 920-928).—See also EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 15th-5th centuries: India.

"The first general impression produced by a perusal of the law-books is that the popular religion has remained unaffected by philosophy. And this is correct in so far as that it must be put first in describing the codes, which, in the main, in keeping the ancient observances, reflect the inherited faith. When, therefore, one says that pantheism succeeded polytheism in India, he must



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CAVES ON ELEPHANTA ISLE, NEAR BOMBAY

Showing ancient sculptures of Hindu deities, including the great image formerly thought to be the Hindu Triad, but now held to be a triform representation of Siva alone

to the ideas and circumstances of a people that is becoming profoundly affected by European modes of thought. One thing must be noticed in these Books, that they are not historical: they give no account of the rise of spreading of the religion, they do not trace it back to a founder, as in Christianity, Mohammedanism, or even Buddhism. [See INDIA: B. C. 312.] The Hindu would say, in the words of an early Christian Father, that the objects of religious knowledge are not historical, that such things in their essence can only be comprehended intellectually, or through divine inspiration. And the fact that Brahmanism has no authentic and universally accepted sacred narrative, that it is not concentrated round the life and acts of a personal founder is, I think, one reason why it has remained diffuse, incoherent, without a central figure or dominant plan. On the other hand, this very want, so to speak, of dog-

qualify the assertion. The philosophers are pantheists, but what of the vulgar? Do they give up polytheism; are they inclined to do so, or are they taught to do so? No. For there is no formal abatement in the rigor of the older creed. Whatever the wise man thought, and whatever in his philosophy was the instruction which he imparted to his peers, when he dealt with the world about him he taught his intellectual inferiors a scarcely modified form of the creed of their fathers. . . . With rare exceptions it was only the grosser religion that the vulgar could understand; it was only this that they were taught and believed. Thus the old Vedic gods are revered and worshipped by name. The Sun, Indra, and all the divinities embalmed in ritual, are placated and 'satiated' with offerings, just as they had been satiated from time immemorial. But no hint is given that this is a form; or that the Vedic gods

are of less account than they had been. Moreover, it is not in the inherited formulæ of the ritual alone that this view is upheld. To be sure, when philosophical speculation is introduced, the Father-god comes to the fore; Brahmā sits aloft, indulgently advising his children, as he does in the intermediate stage of the Brahmanas; and *atma* (*brahmā*) [the impersonal aspect of the Supreme Soul] too is recognized to be the real being of Brahmā, as in the Upanishads. But none of this touches the practice of the common law, where the ordinary man is admonished to fear Yama's hell and Varuna's bonds, as he would have been admonished before the philosopher grew wiser than the Vedic seers. Only personified Right, Dharma, takes his seat with shadowy Brahmā among the other gods."—E. W. Hopkins, *Religions of India*, pp. 247-249.—See also BRAHMA; UPANISHADS; VE-DANTISM.

Modern Hindu view.—"The one thing that comes out most prominently when we study the history of the progress of all religions, great or small, known to man is that anything like a wooden uniformity in religious matters is both unnatural and impossible. Whether your religion is merely historic, or higher than historic including as a part of it the historic manifestation of divinity within its wide embrace, whether again your religion is defined by formal creeds or not so defined, the limitation of uniformity imposed by force upon that religion cannot but make it unsuited to the ever growing spiritual capacity of the human soul. In Brahminism, for instance, the *Avatar* of Sri Krishna is positively historic, and Sri Krishna is well-known to have been a great religious teacher. Indeed it is chiefly to Him that Brahminism owes its universality and comprehensiveness. It is He who first proclaimed to humanity the great truth that any form of religion is better than irreligion, and that in religious endeavours the human mind rises gradually from the lower to the higher, and that in man's effort to realise the divine in his every day life even the lowest forms of religion are, when suitably adopted, more or less productive of good. The idea that Brahminism has not accepted a single personal deity can be attributed only to ignorance. Brahminism is absolutely monotheistic and believes only in one God who is however worshipped under many names. . . . Do the names Lord, Christ, God, Jehovah, Heavenly Father—all mean the same thing, or do they imply that the Christian does not worship a single deity? We have no doubt that there is nothing wrong in calling the one God of the Christians by these many names. Only in Saivism and Vaishnavism the similar existence of many names to denote the God, that the followers of these religions worship, leads the critics of Brahminism to assert that this religion does not accept a single deity. . . . Even an ardent Christian mystic like Novalis has declared that if God can be seen in flesh and blood he can be seen also in stalks and stones.

"Thus what appears as gross idolatry to the unphilosophic fanatic becomes in the eye of the Brahmin a source of great helpfulness to the weak worshipper in the conduct of his devotions and prayers. Is the Brahmin really wrong in supposing that God is apprehended only symbolically by man and worshipped also only symbolically? The relation of symbols to worship and to the apprehension of religious philosophy and final religious truths is a question of perennial interest to man. Man can never do without symbols in these matters, and his progress herein consists simply in his rejecting one set of symbols to rely

more and more upon another set, human language itself being nothing other than such a symbol. Brahminism is high and true philosophy expressed in accurate language and concretised into visible symbols and practices, and the worth of such a religion is to be judged more from the philosophy which forms the life of it than from the symbols which form its external embodiment."—*Brahmavadin*, May, 1901, pp. 460-466.—See also BUD-DHISM; ETHICS: India; INDIA: People; B. C. 2000-600; MYTHOLOGY: India: Primitive elements in mythology of India; CASTE SYSTEM OF INDIA; RELIGION: B. C. 1,000.

BRAHMS, Johannes (1833-1897), German composer, and called the last of the great classical masters. Studied with Cossel, and later with Marxsen; 1854, given the post of choir-master and music master to the prince of Lippe-Detmold; 1863, appointed director of the Singakademie, Vienna; 1871-1874, conducted concerts of the Gesellschaft der Musikfreunde; 1877, wrote his first symphony upon the study of which von Bülow called it the "tenth symphony" and originated his famous phrase of "the three B's" (Bach, Beethoven, Brahms). His style is the ideal combination of the older polyphonic with the later homophonic, as an instrumental composer he stands with Beethoven, with his great choral works he ranks with Bach, and his "German Requiem" induced Hanslick to write: "since Bach's 'Mass in B minor', and Beethoven's 'Missa Solemnis' nothing has been written in this field that can be placed by the side of Brahms' 'German Requiem.'"—See also MUSIC: Modern: 1843-1897.

BRAHUI, Tribe. See BALUCHISTAN: 17th century.

BRAILA, or Brailov, the capital of a department of the same name in Rumania, situated on the left bank of the Danube. Braila with Galatz, are the ports of entry for Wallachia and serve as the center for the grain region of the section. The city was captured by the Germans under Mackensen January 5, 1917, during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 6, v; 1917: V. Balkan theater: d, 1.

Fall of Braila (1828), in the second of the Russo-Turkish wars fought during the 19th century. See TURKEY: 1826-1829.

BRAILLE, Louis (1809-1852), teacher of the blind in Paris. Was himself blind from an early age; constructed simple dot or point system of writing. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

BRAKE, Vehicle. See INVENTIONS: 16th and 17th centuries: Instruments.

BRAMANTE, or Bramante Lazzari (Donato d'Augnolo) (c. 1444-1514), Italian architect and painter; worked in Milan and other Lombard towns; about 1500 went to Rome; employed by Pope Julius II; his greatest work was the beginning of the new St. Peter's, for which he made complete designs.

BRANCA, Giovanni (fl. 1629), Italian engineer. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development up to Watt's time.

BRANCOURT, a village near Cambrai, northwest France, captured by the Americans in 1918 during the final allied offensive of the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: r.

BRANDEIS, Louis Dembitz (1856-), justice of United States Supreme Court. See BOYCOTT: 1921; SUPREME COURT: 1917-1921.

BRANDENBURG: Area.—Population.—Resources.—As a Prussian province Brandenburg comprises the two governments of Potsdam and

Frankfurt-on-Oder, and the capital Berlin, which forms a separate jurisdiction. It occupies an area of 15,376 square miles, bounded by Mecklenburg, Pomerania, Posen, Silesia, and Prussian Saxony. (See GERMANY: Map.) Its population in 1919 was 2,445,627. It has 600 or 700 lakes, some of which are connected by canal with its greatest rivers, the Elbe and the Oder. The chief agricultural products are barley and rye, fruits, vegetables, hemp, flax, hops, and tobacco. Sheep are also raised extensively, and wool constitutes an article of export. Its extensive forests, mainly pine and fir, abound in game and its rivers and lakes supply fish. Its mineral resources are lignite, limestone, gypsum, alum, and potter's earth. Its various industries include the manufacture of cigars and cigarettes, machinery, glass articles, chemicals, spinning and weaving silk, wool, linen, and cotton, dyeing, distilling of brandy, and brewing. Before the World War in 1914, it was an active trade center of manufactured articles.

928-1142.—Beginnings of the margravate.—In "928, Henry the Fowler, marching across the frozen bogs, took Brannibor, a chief fortress of the Wends; first mention in human speech of the place now called Brandenburg; Bor or 'Burg of the Brenns' (if there ever was any Tribe of Brenns,—Brennus, there as elsewhere, being name for King or Leader); 'Burg of the Woods,' say others,—who as little know. Probably, at that time, a town of clay huts, with ditch and palisaded sod-wall round it; certainly 'a chief fortress of the Wends.' . . . That Henry appointed due Wardenship in Brannibor was in the common course. Sure enough, some Markgraf must take charge of Brannibor,—he of the Lausitz eastward, for example, or he of Salzwedel westward:—that Brannibor, in time, will itself be found the fit place, and have its own Markgraf of Brandenburg; this, and what in the next nine centuries Brandenburg will grow to, Henry is far from surmising. . . . In old books are lists of the primitive Margraves of Brandenburg, from Henry's time downward; two sets, 'Markgraves of the Witekind race,' and of another; but they are altogether uncertain, a shadowy intermittent set of Markgraves, both the Witekind set and the Non-Witekind; and truly, for a couple of centuries, seem none of them to have been other than subaltern Deputies, belonging mostly to Lausitz or Salzwedel; of whom therefore we can say nothing here, but must leave the first two hundred years in their natural gray state,—perhaps sufficiently conceivable by the reader. . . . The Ditmarsch-Stade kindred, much slain in battle with the Heathen, and otherwise beaten upon, died out, about the year 1130 (earlier perhaps, perhaps later, for all is shadowy still); and were succeeded in the Salzwedel part of their function by a kindred called 'of Ascanien and Ballenstädt'; the Ascanier or Anhalt Margraves; whose History, and that of Brandenburg, becomes henceforth articulate to us. . . . This Ascanien, happily, has nothing to do with Brute of Troy or the pious Æneas's son; it is simply the name of a most ancient Castle (etymology unknown to me, ruins still dimly traceable) on the north slope of the Hartz Mountains; short way from Aschersleben,—the Castle and Town of Aschersleben are, so to speak, a second edition of Ascanien. . . . The kindred, called Grafs and ultimately Herzogs (Dukes) of 'Ascanien and Ballenstädt,' are very famous in old German History, especially down from this date. Some reckon that they had intermittently been Markgrafs, in their region, long before this; which is conceivable enough; at all events it is very plain they did now attain the

Office in Salzwedel (straightway shifting it to Brandenburg); and held it continuously, it and much else that lay adjacent, for centuries, in a highly conspicuous manner. In Brandenburg they lasted for about two-hundred years."—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, bk. 2; ch. 3-4.

1142-1152.—Electorate.—"He they call 'Albert the Bear (Albrecht der Bär),' first of the Ascanien Markgraves of Brandenburg;—first wholly definite Markgrave of Brandenburg that there is; once a very shining figure in the world, though now fallen dim enough again, . . . got the Northern part of what is still called Saxony, and kept it in his family; got the Brandenburg Countries withal, got the Lausitz; was the shining figure and great man of the North in his day. The Markgraftom of Salzwedel (which soon became of Brandenburg) he very naturally acquired (1142 or earlier); very naturally, considering what Saxon and other honours and possessions he had already got hold of. We can only say, it was the luckiest of events for Brandenburg, and the beginning of all the better destinies it has had. A conspicuous Country ever since in the world, and which grows ever more so in our late times. . . . He transferred the Markgraftom to Brandenburg, probably as more central in his wide lands; Salzwedel is henceforth the led Markgraftom or Marck, and soon falls out of notice in the world. Salzwedel is called henceforth ever since the 'Old Marck (Alte Marck, Altmarck)'; the Brandenburg countries getting the name of 'New Marck.' . . . Under Albert the Markgraftom had risen to be an Electorate withal. The Markgraf of Brandenburg was now furthermore the Kurfürst of Brandenburg; officially 'Arch-treasurer of the Holy Roman Empire'; and one of the Seven who have a right (which became about this time an exclusive one for those Seven) to choose, to 'kieren' the Romish Kaiser; and who are therefore called 'Kur-Princes,' 'Kurfürste or Electors, as the highest dignity except the Kaiser's own.'"—T. Carlyle, *Frederick the Great*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—See also GERMANY: 1125-1272.

1168-1417.—Under the Ascanian, the Bavarian and the Luxemburg lines, to the first of the Hohenzollern.—Albert the Bear was succeeded in 1168 by his son Otho. "In 1170, as it would appear, the name of Brandenburg was substituted for that of North Mark, which had ceased to describe more than the original nucleus of the colony, now one of the several districts into which it was divided. The city and territory of Brandenburg were not probably included in the imperial grant, but were inherited from the Wendish prince, Pribislaw, whom Albert had converted to Christianity. . . . Under Otho II., brother of the preceding, the family inheritance was sorely mismanaged. The Margrave becoming involved in some quarrel with the See of Magdeburg, the Archbishop placed him under the ban; and as the price of release Otho was required to accept the Suzerainty of the prelate for the older and better part of his dominions. His brother and successor, Albert II., was also unfortunate in the beginning of his career; but recovered the favor of the Emperor, and restored the prestige of his house before his death. . . . Very important acquisitions were made during the reign of these two princes. The preoccupations of the King of Denmark gave them a secure foothold in Pomerania, which the native nobility acknowledged; the frontiers were pushed eastward to the Oder, where the New Mark was organized, and the town of Frankfort was laid out; purchase put them in possession of the district of Lebus; and the bride of Otho III., a

Bohemian princess, brought him as her dowry an extensive region on the Upper Spree with several thriving villages—all this in spite of the division of power and authority. . . . Otho III. died in 1267, John one year later; and a new partition of the estate was made between their several sons, the oldest, Otho IV., receiving, however, the title and prerogatives of head of the house." The last margrave of the Ascanian line, Waldemar, died in 1310. "His cousin and only heir, Henry, was a minor, and survived him but a year." Then "a host of claimants arose for the whole or parts of the Mark. The estates showed at first a gallant devotion to the widow, and intrusted the reins of authority to her; but she repaid this fidelity by hastily espousing the Duke of Brunswick, and transferring her rights to him. The transaction was not, however, ratified by the estates, and the Duke failed to enforce it by arms. Pomerania threw off the yoke which it had once unwillingly accepted; Bohemia reclaimed the wedding portion of Otho's bride; the Duke of Liegnitz sought to recover Lebus, although it had once been regularly sold; and in the general scramble the Church, through its local representatives, fought with all the energy of mere worldly robbers. But in this crisis the Emperor forgot neither the duties of his station nor the interests of his house. Louis II. of Bavaria then wore the purple. By feudal law a vacant fief reverted to its suzerain. . . . It was not therefore contrary to law, nor did it shock the moral sense of the age, when Louis drew the Mark practically into his own possession by conferring it nominally upon his minor son. . . . During the minority of Louis the Margrave, the province was administered by Louis the Emperor, and with some show of vigor." But troubles so thickened about the emperor, in his conflict with the house of Austria, on the one hand, and with the pope on the other [see GERMANY: 1314-1347], that he could not continue the protection of his son. The mark of Brandenburg was invaded by the king of Poland, and its margrave "watched the devastation in helpless dismay." The people defended themselves. "The young city of Frankfurt was the leader in the tardy but successful uprising. The Poles were expelled; the citizens had for the time saved the Mark. . . . The Margrave finally wearied even of the forms of authority, and sold his unhappy dominions to his two brothers, another Louis and Otho. In the meantime his father had died. The Electors—or five of them—had already deposed him and chosen in his place Charles of Moravia, a prince of the house of Luxemburg, as his successor. He became respectably and even creditably known in history as Charles IV. . . . Although he failed in the attempt to subdue by arms the Margrave of Brandenburg, who had naturally espoused his father's cause, he was persistent and ingenious in diplomatic schemes for overthrowing the House of Bavaria and bringing the Mark under his own sceptre. . . . From Louis he procured . . . a treaty of succession, by which he should acquire Brandenburg in case of the death of that Margrave and his brother Otho without heirs. [See GERMANY: 1347-1403.] His intrigues were finally crowned with complete success. Louis died suddenly in 1365. Otho, thenceforth alone in the charge, vacillated between weak submission to the Emperor's will, and spurts of petulant but feeble resistance; until Charles put an end to the farce by invading the Mark, crushing the army of the Margrave, and forcing him to an abject capitulation. In 1371, after a nominal rule of half a century, and for the price of a meagre annuity, the

Bavarian line transferred all its rights to the family of Charles IV." Charles died in 1378. His son Wenzel, "for whom the Mark had been destined in the plans of Charles, acquired, meanwhile, the crown of Bohemia, a richer prize, and Brandenburg passed to the next son, Sigismund. The change was a disastrous one." Sigismund pawned the mark to his kinsman, Jobst, of Moravia, and it fell into great disorder. "Imperial affairs during" this period were in scarcely less confusion. Wenzel of Bohemia had been chosen emperor, and then deposed for obvious unfitness. Rupert, Count Palatine, had next been elected, and had died. Again the post was vacant, and Sigismund, still the real Elector of Brandenburg, . . . issued successfully from the contest. His good fortune was due in a conspicuous degree to the influence and the money of Frederic, Burgrave of Nuremberg; and it is to the credit of Sigismund that he did not add ingratitude to his other vices, but on his election as emperor hastened [1411] to make his patron statthalter, or viceroy of the Mark." Six years later, in 1417, Frederic was formally invested with the sovereignty of the mark, as margrave and elector.—H. Tuttle, *History of Prussia to the accession of Frederic the Great*, ch. 1 and 3.

1180.—Control of Lauenburg. See SAXONY: 1180-1553.

1355.—Declared an integral part of the kingdom of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1355.

1417-1640.—Rising importance of the Hohenzollern family.—Acquisition of the duchy of Prussia.—On being invested with the electorate of Brandenburg, Frederick of Nuremberg sold the office of burgrave to the Nurembergers and devoted himself to his new province. [See GERMANY: 1417.] "Temperate, just, and firm in his dealings, he succeeded in reducing Brandenburg from anarchy to order. Already as deputy for Sigismund he had begun the task. . . . During the reign of his son and successor, characteristically known as Frederick Iron-teeth [1430-1472], the strong hand was not relaxed; and Brandenburg became thenceforward tamed to law and order. The Electorate, which during the preceding century had been curtailed by losses in war and by sales, began again to enlarge its borders. The New March, which had been sold in the days of Sigismund to the Teutonic Knights, was now [1455] bought back from them in their need. . . . Albert Achilles, the brother and successor of Frederick II., was a man as powerful and as able as his predecessor. By his accession the principalities of Baireuth and Anspach, which had been separated from the Electorate for the younger sons of Frederick I., were reunited to it; and by a scheme of cross-remainders new plans were laid for the acquisition of territory. . . . It was already understood that the Electorate was to descend according to the law of primogeniture; but Anspach and Baireuth were still reserved as appanages for younger sons; and upon the death of Albert Achilles, in 1484, his territories were again divided, and remained so for more than a hundred years. The result of the division, however, was to multiply and not to weaken the strength of the House. The earlier years of the 16th century saw the Hohenzollerns rising everywhere to power. Albert Achilles had been succeeded [1486] by John, of whom little is known except his eloquence, and by Joachim [1400], who was preparing to bear his part against the Reformation. A brother of Joachim had become, in 1514, Elector of Mentz; and the double vote of the family at the election of Charles V. had increased their importance.

The younger branch was rising also to eminence. George of Brandenburg, Margrave of Anspach, and grandson of Albert Achilles, was able in 1524 to purchase the Duchy of Jagerndorf in Silesia, and with it the reversions to the principalities of Opehn and Ratibor, which eventually fell to him. His younger brother, Albert, had been chosen in 1511 Grand Master of the Teutonic Order, and was already converting his office into the hereditary Dukedom of Prussia," which it became in 1525 (see POLAND: 1333-1572). "The Elector Joachim I. of Brandenburg is perhaps the least prominent, but was not the least prudent, of his family. Throughout his life he adhered to the old faith, and preserved his dominions in tranquillity. His son and successor, Joachim II., to the joy of his people, adopted the new religion [1539]; and found in the secularized bishoprics of Brandenburg, Havelburg, and Lebus, some compensation for the ecclesiastical Electorate which was about to pass, upon the death of Albert of Mentz, from his family. But he also was able to secure the continuance of peace. Distrustful of the success of the League of Smalkald he refused to join in it, and became chiefly known as a mediator in the struggles of the time. The Electors John George [1571-1598] and Joachim Frederick [1598-1608] followed the same policy of peace. . . . Peace and internal progress had characterized the 16th century; war and external acquisitions were to mark the 17th. The failure of the younger line in 1603 caused Bayreuth, Anspach, and Jagerndorf to fall to the Elector Joachim Frederick; but as they were re-granted almost at once to younger sons, and never again reverted to the Electorate, their acquisition became of little importance. The Margrave, George Frederick, however, had held, in addition to his own territories, the office of administrator for Albert Frederick, second Duke of Prussia, who had become imbecile; and, by his death, the Elector of Brandenburg became next of kin, and claimed to succeed to the office. The admission of this claim placed the Electors in virtual possession of the Duchy. By a deed of co-infeoffment, which Joachim II. had obtained in 1568 from his father-in-law the King of Poland, they were heirs to the Duchy upon failure of the younger line. . . . Duke Albert died in 1618, and Brandenburg and Prussia were then united under the Elector John Sigismund. It was well that the Duchy had been secured before the storm which was already gathering over the Empire had burst. . . . During the long struggle of the Thirty Years' War, the history of Brandenburg is that of a sufferer rather than an actor. . . . George William, who died in 1640, bequeathed a desert to his successor. That successor was Frederick William, to be known in history as the Great Elector."—C. F. Johnstone, *Historical abstracts*, ch. 5.

ALSO IN: T. Carlyle, *History of Frederick the Great*, v. 1, bk. 3.

1419-1434.—Battles with Hussites. See BOHEMIA: 1419-1434.

1552-1561.—Rule of Albert the Wild.—Desire for war.—Reformation wars with Emperor Charles V. See GERMANY: 1552-1561.

1609-1627.—Jülich-Cleve contest.—Elector placed under the ban of empire.—Occupied by Wallenstein and Imperial army. See GERMANY: 1608-1618; 1621-1623; 1627-1629.

1630-1634.—Compulsory alliance with Gustavus Adolphus.—Alliance with the emperor.—In 1630 during the Thirty Years' War the Elector of Brandenburg was forced to join Gustavus Adolphus against Ferdinand, but abandoned the

Swedes (1634) and deserted the Protestant cause, when all the princes of Northern Germany subscribed to the treaty of alliance concluded between Saxony and the emperor in 1635.—See GERMANY: 1630-1631; 1631; 1632-1634; and 1634-1639.

1640-1688.—Great Elector.—His development of the strength of the Electorate.—His successful wars.—His acquisition of the complete sovereignty of Prussia.—Battle of Fehrbellin.—"Frederic William, known in history as the Great Elector, was only twenty years old when he succeeded his father. He found everything in disorder: his country desolate, his fortresses garrisoned by troops under a solemn order to obey only the mandates of the Emperor, his army to be counted almost on the fingers. His first care was to conclude a truce with the Swedes; his second to secure his western borders by an alliance with Holland; his third—not in order of action, for in that respect it took first place—to raise the nucleus of an army; his fourth, to cause the evacuation of his fortresses. . . . To allay the wrath of the Emperor, he temporised until his armed force had attained the number of 8,000. That force once under arms, he boldly asserted his position, and with so much effect that in the discussions preceding the Peace of Westphalia he could exercise a considerable influence. By the terms of that treaty, the part of Pomerania known as Hinter Pommern, the principalities of Magdeburg and Halberstadt, and the bishoprics of Minden and Kammin were ceded to Brandenburg. . . . [See GERMANY: 1648; Map: At peace of Westphalia; WESTPHALIA, PEACE OF (1648).] The Peace once signed, Frederic William set diligently to work to heal the disorders and to repair the mischief which the long war had caused in his dominions. . . . He specially cherished his army. We have seen its small beginning in 1640-42. Fifteen years later, in 1655, or seven years after the conclusion of the Peace of Westphalia, it amounted to 25,000 men, well drilled and well disciplined, disposing of seventy-two pieces of cannon. [See also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 27.] In the times in which he lived he had need of such an army. In 1654, Christina, the wayward and gifted daughter of Gustavus Adolphus, had abdicated. Her successor on the throne of Sweden was her cousin, Charles Gustavus, Duke of Zweibrücken. . . . The right of Charles Gustavus to the succession was, however, contested by John Casimir, King of Poland. . . . War ensued. In that war the star of Charles Gustavus was in the ascendant, and the unfortunate John Casimir was forced to abandon his own dominions and to flee into Silesia. The vicinity of the two rivals to his own outlying territories was, however, too near not to render anxious Frederic William of Brandenburg. To protect Prussia, then held in fief from the King of Poland, he marched with 8,000 men to its borders. But even with such a force he was unable, or perhaps, more correctly, he was prudently unwilling, to resist the insistence put upon him at Königsberg by the victorious King of Sweden (1656) to transfer to him the feudal overlordship of that province. Great results followed from this compliance. Hardly had the treaty been signed, when John Casimir, returning from Silesia with an Imperial army at his back, drove the Swedes from Poland, and recovered his dominions. He did not evidently intend to stop there. Then it was that the opportunity arrived to the Great Elector. Earnestly solicited by the King of Sweden to aid him in a contest which had assumed dimensions so formidable, Frederic William consented, but only on the condition that he should

receive the Polish palatinates (Woiwodshafthen) of Posen and Kalisch as the price of a victorious campaign. He then joined the King with his army, met the enemy at Warsaw, fought with him close to that city a great battle, which lasted three days (28th to 30th July 1656), and which terminated then, thanks mainly to the pertinacity of the Brandenburgers—in the complete defeat of the Poles. The victory gained, Frederic William with-

Labian. There the Elector halted and there, joined the next day, 20th November 1656, by King Charles Gustavus, he signed a treaty, by which, on condition of his material aid in the war, the latter renounced his feudal overlordship over Prussia, and agreed to acknowledge the Elector and his male descendants as sovereign dukes of that province. In the war which followed, the enemies of Sweden and Brandenburg multiplied on



FREDERICK WILLIAM, THE GREAT ELECTOR OF BRANDENBURG
(From a painting by Camphausen)

drew his troops. . . . Again did John Casimir recover from his defeat; again, aided by the Imperialists, did he march to the front, reoccupy Warsaw, and take up a threatening position opposite to the Swedish camp. The King of Sweden beheld in this action on the part of his enemy the prelude to his own certain destruction, unless by any means he could induce the Elector of Brandenburg once more to save him. He sent, then, urgent messengers after him to beg him to return. The messengers found Frederic William at

every side. The Danes and Lithuanians espoused the cause of John Casimir. Its issue seemed to Frederic William more than doubtful. He asked himself, then, whether—the new enemies who had arisen being the enemies of Sweden and not of himself—he had not more to gain by sharing in the victories of the Poles than in the defeats of the Swedes. Replying to himself affirmatively, he concluded, 20th September 1657, through the intermediation of the Emperor, with the Poles, at Wehlau, a treaty whereby the dukedom of Prus-

sia was ceded in absolute sovereignty to the Elector of Brandenburg and his male issue, with reversion to Poland in case of the extinction of the family of the Franconian Hohenzollerns; in return, Frederic William engaged himself to support the Poles in their war against Sweden with a corps of 4,000 men. But before this convention could be acted upon, fortune had again smiled upon Charles Gustavus. Turning in the height of winter against the Danes, the King of Sweden had defeated them in the open field, pursued them across the frozen waters of the Belt to Fünen and Seeland, and had imposed upon their king the humiliating peace of Roeskilde (1658). He seemed inclined to proceed still further in the destruction of the ancient rival of his country, when a combined army of Poles and Brandenburgers suddenly poured through Mecklenburg into Holstein, drove thence the Swedes, and gave them no rest till they had evacuated likewise Schleswig and Jutland (1659). In a battle which took place shortly afterwards on the island of Fünen, at Nyborg, the Swedes suffered a defeat. This defeat made Charles Gustavus despair of success, and he had already begun to treat for peace, when death snatched him from the scene (January 1660). The negotiations which had begun, however, continued, and finally peace was signed on the 1st May 1660, in the monastery of Oliva, close to Danzig. This peace confirmed to the Elector of Brandenburg his sovereign rights over the duchy of Prussia. From this epoch dates the complete union of Brandenburg and Prussia—a union upon which a great man was able to lay the foundation of a powerful North German Kingdom! During the next dozen years, the Great Elector was chiefly busied in establishing his authority in his dominions and curbing the power of the nobles, particularly in Prussia. In 1674, when Louis XIV of France provoked war with the German princes by his attack on the Dutch, Frederic William led 20,000 men into Alsace to join the imperial forces. Louis then called upon his allies, the Swedes, to invade Brandenburg, which they did, under General Wrangel, in January, 1675. "Plundering and burning as they advanced, they entered Havelland, the granary of Berlin, and carried their devastations up to the very gates of that capital." The elector was retreating from Alsace before Turenne when he heard of the invasion. He paused for some weeks, to put his army in good condition, and then he hurried northwards, by forced marches. The enemy was taken by surprise, and attacked while attempting to retreat, near Fehrbellin, on June 18. After two hours of a tremendous hand-to-hand conflict, "the right wing of the Swedes was crushed and broken; the centre and left wing were in full retreat towards Fehrbellin. The victors, utterly exhausted—they had scarcely quitted their saddles for eleven days—were too worn out to pursue. It was not till the following morning that, refreshed and recovered, they followed the retreating foe to the borders of Mecklenburg. . . . The Great Elector promptly followed up his victory till he had compelled the Swedes to evacuate all Pomerania. Three years later, when they once more crossed the border from Livonia, he forced them again to retreat; and although in the treaty signed at St. Germain in 1679 he was forced to renounce his Pomeranian conquests, he did not the less establish the ultimate right of the State of which he was the real founder to those lands on the Baltic for which he had so hardly struggled at the negotiations which preceded the Peace of Westphalia. When he died (9th May 1688) he left the Kingdom already made

in a position of prosperity sufficient to justify his son and successor in assuming, thirteen years later, on the anniversary of the victory of Fehrbellin, the title of King."—G. B. Malleson, *Battle fields of Germany*, ch. 8.—At the time of his accession "self-government prevailed in his scattered dominions. As the nobility and the Estates jealously defended their privileges and refused to vote the necessary funds [with which to create an army], the Elector resolved to break their power and to place taxation on a compulsory basis. He gradually destroyed popular representation, such as it was, and made the Estates a mere tool. At last they were called together exclusively for the purpose of voting money. They were allowed to sit only for a fortnight, and to discuss nothing except the proposals which the Elector put before them. At the same time, they were informed that any funds which they failed to vote would be collected from them by force, by 'military execution.' . . . The Great Elector ruthlessly and tyrannously suppressed existing self-government in his possessions, and gave to his scattered and parochially minded subjects a strong sense of unity. Relying upon his powerful army, he enforced his will upon the nobility, the Estates, and the citizens, and made himself the absolute master of the country. He ruled the State with savage energy and with great ability. To enable the people to bear the cost of a large army, he strove to increase their wealth by promoting agriculture, commerce, and the manufacturing industries. He imported from Holland skilled engineers who reclaimed swamps, and able farmers and gardeners who improved cultivation. Every peasant had to lay out a garden, and none might marry unless he had planted at least six oak trees, and had planted and grafted at least six fruit trees. To improve industry and commerce, he constructed the Frederick William Canal, connecting the Oder with the Spree and the Elbe, and numerous high roads, and introduced a modern system of posts and mails. As his country had been depopulated by the Thirty Years' War, he wished to attract to it new inhabitants. By an Edict of October 29, 1685, he promised to the Huguenots who fled from France owing to the revocation of the Edict of Nantes assistance for defraying their travelling expenses, permission to settle where they liked, freedom to bring in their goods and chattels free of all charges. The needy were to receive empty houses which the Elector would buy from their owners. They were to be given building material of every kind for repairing these houses, and to be freed from all imposts for six years. The well-to-do who wished to build houses for themselves were to be given land and building materials, and to be free from all imposts for ten years. The rights of citizenship were to be given gratis. . . . By the policy outlined the Great Elector greatly increased the population, the wealth, and the military power of his country. By a skilful and daring diplomacy, and by the energetic use of his excellent army, which he had been able to create only by destroying the power of the Estates and by greatly increasing the wealth of the people, he vastly enlarged his territories and gave to the State a great prestige throughout Europe."—J. E. Barker, *Foundations of Germany*, pp. 4-7.

1672-1697.—Withdrawal from the coalition against Louis XIV; in the War of the Grand Alliance.—In 1673, the elector of Brandenburg withdrew from the coalition formed by him and the emperor Leopold, in 1672, to check the aggressions of Louis XIV. [See NETHERLANDS: 1672-1674.] He fought, however, once more against

Louis XIV in the War of the Grand Alliance, and by the treaty of Ryswick (1697) had certain restitutions made to Brandenburg.

1700-1701.—Elector made king of Prussia.—When, by a treaty of Nov. 16, 1700, ducal Prussia was erected into a kingdom by the emperor, Elector Frederick III caused himself to be proclaimed king in Königsberg on Jan. 18, 1701.

1785.—In league of Princes. See GERMANY: 1785.

ALSO IN: J. A. R. Marriott and C. G. Robertson, *Evolution of Prussia*.—F. Lampe, *Berlin und die Mark Brandenburg*.—F. Voigt, *Geschichte des brandenburgisch-preussischen Staats*.

BRANDY STATION, or Fleetwood, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1803 (June: Virginia).

BRANDYWINE, Battle of the (1777). See U. S. A.: 1777 (January-December).

BRANGWYN, Frank (1807-), English illustrator and decorator. See PÁINTING: EUROPE (19th century).

BRANKIRKA, Battle of (1518). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1307-1527.

BRANNIBOR, ancient name of Brandenburg. See BRANDENBURG: 028-1142.

BRANT, Joseph (1742-1807), Mohawk chief, who waged Indian warfare in the service of the British during the Revolutionary war. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June-November and July); 1779 (August-September).

BRANTING, Hjalmar, Swedish Socialist. Prominent in parliament and cabinet office since 1890; made prime minister, Mar. 10, 1920.

BRASIDAS (d. 422 B.C.), Spartan general. See GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

BRATIANU, Joan, son of Joan C., prime minister of Rumania during the World War. See JEWS: Rumania: 1916-1919; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 2.

BRATIANU, Joan C. (1821-1891), Rumanian statesman. One of the leaders of the rebellion of 1848 in Rumania; prefect of police under the provisional government. With the restoration of Russo-Turkish dictatorship, Bratianu was forced into exile. He returned in 1856 and again figured as a Liberal leader; serving as minister of the interior under Prince Charles from 1867 until July, 1869; and minister at the Congress of Berlin in 1878.

BRATISLAVA, identified with modern Pressburg. See PRESSBURG.

BRAUN, Karl Ferdinand (1850-), German physicist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Physics: 1909.

BRAUNSBURG, Surrender of (1626). See SWEDEN: 1611-1629.

BRAUNSTEIN, or Bronstein. See TROTSKY, LEON.

BRAVO, Melchor de, Chilean governor, 1568-1575. See CHILE: 1568.

BRAVO, Nicholas (c. 1700-1854), Mexican general. See MEXICO: 1822-1828.

BRAXTON, Carter (1736-1797), signer of the Declaration of Independence. See U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

BRAY-SUR-SOMME, a town of France, about ten miles west of Peronne. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: c, 24; k, 1.

BRAYE-EN-LAONNAIS, southeast of Laon, France. See WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: b, 1 (ii).

BRAZIL: Geographic description.—“The immense and rich Brazilian territory which occupies the most eastern part of South America is situated in Lat. 5° 10' North to 33° 46' 10" South, and between 8° 21' 24" Eastern Longitude to 32°

Western Longitude of the Meridian of Rio de Janeiro. The extension of its coasts from the Orange Cape to the Barra Chuy is approximately 7,000 kilometres, counting from the beginning of the Cotinco River in the Roraima Mountains to the mouth of the Chuy, and it is, more or less, 4,360 kilometres from the Stony Point in Pernambuco to the starting of the Jaquirana River which forms the Yavari. Its area is calculated to be 8,650,959 square kilometres. The boundaries of Brazil are: On the north, the Guianas (French, Dutch and British) and the Republics of Venezuela and the Colombia; on the northeast, east and southeast, the Atlantic Ocean; on the south, the Republic of Uruguay; on the southwest, the Argentine Republic; on the west the Republics of Paraguay, Bolivia and Peru, and on the northwest, the Republic of Colombia. . . . Brazil is the largest of the countries of Latin America [see also LATIN AMERICA], its area being sixteen times that of France and practically equal to that of the United States, excluding Alaska, and, although much of its extensive territory is still uncultivated and its immense natural resources for the most part undeveloped, its great national industries, the growth of its foreign trade, its large and beautiful cities, its admirable systems of education and government, together with its general progress in everything pertaining to modern civilisation, give to Brazil the justifiable claim to be regarded as a truly great nation.”—R. Reyes, *Two Americas*, pp. 84, 102. See LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

“Within her wide area Brazil encloses a great variety of soils and climates. She has no snow line, because she has no great mountain heights; a peak less than three thousand metres high, Itatiaia, in the Mantiqueiras, is the point of greatest altitude. But she has almost every other climatic gift that can be included within the fifth degree of North and thirty-third of South Latitude; between the eighth degree East and thirtieth West Longitude of the meridian of Rio de Janeiro. Brazil is a vast plateau with a steep descent to the sea along half her coast and a flat hot sea margin of varying widths; this plateau, scored by great rivers, sweeps away in undulating prairies, sloping in two principal directions—inland, in the centre and south, to the great Paraná valley; and in the upper regions, northward to the immense Amazon basin. [See AMAZON RIVER: Discovery and naming of.] This is not a basin so much as a wide plate, for not only is the course of the huge *rio-mar* almost flat for the last thousand miles of its journey to the sea (Manáos is only 85 feet above sea-level) but this practically level ground extends northward all the way to the confines of Venezuela and the three Guianas, and southward until the Cordilheiras of Matto Grosso are encountered. Great expanses of this plate are filled with sweltering forests of tropical tradition, forests containing a thousand kinds of strange orchids, immense and curious trees, insects, reptiles and animals. . . . There is a remarkable contrast between this humid forestal area of the north and the cool, high cattle-lands of the centre, the pine and matte woods and wheat lands of the south and the hot coastal belt of the great promontory with its deep fringe of coconuts, its sugar country, tobacco fields and cacao plantations; between the coffee country of São Paulo and the regions of the carnauba palm and the babassú. No physical contrast could be more acute than that of the flat tropic swamps of Pará and the austere, fantastic and beautiful granite peaks of the Serra do Mar near Rio—the slender Finger of God in the Orgao

Mountains, the curved up-rearing of the Corcovado, the cloud-wreathed head of Tijuca. Nor is there less contrast in the different industries resulting from the different products of the widely diversified regions, and the population inhabiting them. The extreme north exists largely upon the rubber business, where independent individuals extract gum from wild trees in regions that are sometimes scarcely charted; in the south an imported Italian population performs routine tasks on the highly organized coffee plantations. In between these two sharply marked divisions there are many industries and many grades of labour, from the *caboclo* half-Indian of the north to the negro of the centre and the Japanese, Syrian and Pole of the southerly colonies, as well as the de-

He has, however, been modified by intermixture with two other races. The first of these is the native Indian. [See GUCK or COCO GROUP.] The settlers . . . intermarried freely with the Indian women. In the south this mixed race as well as the pure Indian race has been absorbed in the rest of the population. The second modifying influence is that of the imported Africans. . . . The intermingling of Indians and negroes which is supposed to produce an especially undesirable class of citizens was comparatively small. The intermarriage of blacks and whites has grown apace and the negroes constitute a large, the mulattoes, and quadroons still larger, percentage of the population. The intermixture continues as no sentiment of race opposes it. Brazil is distinguished



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VIEW OF THE CITY OF RIO DE JANEIRO AND HARBOR

Sugarloaf mountain in the background

scendant of the Portuguese. There is in some parts of Brazil such a mixture of races and tongues that it seems as if the Jesuits were needed again to invent a new *lingua geral*. Contrasts in personality, as well as in soil and climate in Brazil, and the difference in accessibility between an open seaboard and a deep and roadless interior, have all aided to bring about the marked diversity of interests which have more than once proved the salvation of the country."—L. E. Elliott, *Brazil to-day and to-morrow*, pp. 3-5.—See LATIN AMERICA: Agriculture; also 1918-1921: Effect of natural resources.

Aboriginal inhabitants.—See TUPI.

Racial elements.—"But what of the Brazilian people itself? The influences that tend to make it vary from its original type are counterworked by the steady immigration from Portugal and Spain. . . . The Brazilian is primarily a Portuguese in the outlines of his mind and character.

from the other republics by the fact that in addition to her small mestizo population and her pure Indian population . . . she has a great mass of negroes and a still larger mass of mulattoes and quadroons. . . . They do not feel toward it that repulsion which marks the attitude of the whites to the negroes in North America and South Africa. The Brazilian lower class intermarries freely with the black people, the Brazilian middle class intermarries with the mulattoes and quadroons. Brazil is the one country in the world, besides Portuguese colonies on the east and west coasts of Africa, in which a fusion of the European and African races is proceeding unchecked by law or customs."—*Hispanic American Historical Review*, Aug., 1919, pp. 407-408, 414.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1867-1900; RACE PROBLEMS: Previous to 1900.

Population.—According to a census taken in September, 1920, the results of which were an-

nounced by the Brazilian embassy in Washington on Jan. 13, 1921, the population of Brazil was 30,553,509. Minas Geraes, the largest state, had a population of 5,788,837; the state of Rio de Janeiro, 1,501,069, and the capital city of that name, 1,157,873.

Origin of the name.—"As the most valuable part of the cargo which Americus Vespuceus carried back to Europe was the well-known dyewood, 'Cæsalpina Braziliensis,'—called in the Portuguese language 'pau brazil,' on account of its resemblance to 'brazas,' 'coals of fire,'—the land whence it came was termed the 'land of the brazil-wood'; and finally this appellation was shortened to Brazil, and completely usurped the names Vera Cruz, or Santa Cruz."—J. C. Fletcher and D. P. Kidder, *Brazil and the Brazilians*, ch. 3.

1498-1504.—Discovery, exploration of the coast and first settlement. See AMERICA: 1490-1500, 1500-1514, and 1503-1504, and map showing voyages of discovery.

1510-1661.—Portuguese colonization and agriculture.—Introduction of slavery.—Coming of the Jesuits.—Conquests of the Dutch, and the Portuguese recovery of them.—"Brazil, on which the Portuguese ships had been cast by accident, had been found to unite in itself the capabilities of every part of the world in which Europeans have settled, though happily gold and silver had not yet been discovered, and the colonists betook themselves from the first to agriculture. The first permanent settlements on this coast were made by Jews, exiled by the persecution of the Inquisition; and the government supplemented these by sending out criminals of all kinds. But gradually the consequence of Brazil became recognized, and, as afterwards happened in New England, the nobility at home asked to share the land among themselves. Emmanuel would not countenance such a claim, but this great prince died in 1521, and his successor, John III., extended to Brazil the same system which had been adopted in Madeira and the Azores. The whole sea-coast of Brazil was parcelled out by feudal grants. It was divided into captaincies, each 50 leagues in length, with no limits in the interior; and these were granted out as male fiefs, with absolute power over the natives, such as at that time existed over the serfs who tilled the soil in Europe. But the native Brazilians were neither so easy a conquest as the Peruvians, nor so easily induced to labour; and the Portuguese now began to bring negroes from the Guinea coast. This traffic in human flesh had long been vigorously pursued in various parts of Europe; the Portuguese now introduced it to America. The settlers of Brazil were, properly speaking, the first European colonists. For they sold their own possessions at home, and brought their households with them to the new country. Thus they gradually formed the heart of a new nation, whereas the chief Spaniards always returned home after a certain tenure of their offices, and those who remained in the colony descended to the rank of the conquered natives. Many of those who came to Brazil had already served in the expeditions to the East; and they naturally perceived that the coast of America might raise the productions of India. Hence Brazil early became a plantation colony, and its prosperity is very much due to the culture of the sugar cane. The Portuguese were greatly assisted, both in the East and the West, by the efforts of the newly founded order of the Jesuits. . . . John III. in [1549] sent out six of the order with the first governor of Brazil. . . . The Dutch, made bold by their great successes in the East, now sought to win

the trade of Brazil by force of arms, and the success of the East India Company encouraged the adventurers who subscribed the funds for that of the West Indies, incorporated in 1621. The Dutch Admiral, Jacob Willekens, successfully assaulted San Salvador [Bahia] in 1624, and though the capital was afterwards retaken by the intrepid Archbishop Texeira, one half of the coast of Brazil submitted to the Dutch. Here, as in the East, the profit of the company was the whole aim of the Dutch, and the spirit in which they executed their design was a main cause of its failure. . . . But . . . the profits of the company . . . rose at one time to cent per cent. The visions of the speculators of Amsterdam became greater; and they resolved to become masters of all Brazil. . . . The man whom they despatched [1637] to execute this design was Prince John Maurice of Nassau. . . . In a short time he had greatly extended the Dutch possessions. But the Stad-houder was subject, not to the wise and learned men who sat in the States-General, but to the merchants who composed the courts of the company. They thought of nothing but their dividends; they considered that Maurice kept up more troops and built more fortresses than were necessary for a mercantile community, and that he lived in too princely a fashion for one in their service. Perhaps they suspected him of an intention of slipping into that royal dignity which the feudal frame of Brazilian society seemed to offer him. At any rate, in 1643, they forced him to resign. A recent revolution had terminated the subjection of Portugal to Spain, and the new king of Portugal concluded a truce for ten years with Holland. War was therefore supposed to be out of the question. . . . But the recall of Maurice was the signal for an independent revolt in Brazil. Though the mother countries were at peace, war broke out between the Dutch and the Portuguese of Brazil in 1645. The Jesuits had long preached a crusade against the heretic Dutch. . . . John Ferdinand de Vieyra, a wealthy merchant of Pernambuco, led a general uprising of the Brazilians, and although the Dutch made a stubborn resistance, they received no assistance from home; they were driven from one post after another, until, in 1654, the last of the company's servants quitted Brazil. The Dutch declared war against Portugal; but in 1661 peace was made, and the Dutch sold their claims for 8,000,000 florins, the right of trading being secured to them. But after the expulsion of the Dutch, the trade of Brazil came more and more into the hands of the English."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 2-3.

ALSO IN: R. G. Watson, *Spanish and Portuguese South America*, v. 1, ch. 9 and 15; v. 2, ch. 1-4.—R. Southey, *History of Brazil*, v. 1-2.

1524.—Conceded to Portugal. See AMERICA: 1510-1524.

1531-1641.—Republic of St. Paul.—Paulistas or Mamelukes.—"The celebrated republic of St. Paul, as it is usually denominated, had its rise about the year 1531, from a very inconsiderable beginning. A mariner of the name of Ramalho, having been shipwrecked on this part of the coast, was received among a small Indian tribe called the Piratinga, after the name of their chief. Here he was found by De Sousa some years afterwards, and, contrary to the established policy of permitting no settlement excepting immediately on the seacoast, he allowed this man to remain, on account of his having intermarried and having a family. The advantages of this establishment were such, that permission was soon after given to others to settle here, and as the adventurers in-

termarried with the natives, their numbers increased rapidly. . . . A mixed race was formed, possessing a compound of civilized and uncivilized manners and customs. The Jesuits soon after established themselves with a number of Indians they had reclaimed, and exerted a salutary influence in softening and harmonizing the growing colony. In 1581, the seat of government was removed from St. Vincent on the coast to St. Pauls; but its subjection to Portugal was little more than nominal. . . . The mixture produced an improved race, 'the European spirit of enterprise,' says Southey, 'developed itself in constitutions adapted to the country.' But it is much more likely that the free and popular government which they enjoyed produced the same fruits here as in every other country. . . . They soon quarreled with the Jesuits [1581], on account of the Indians whom they had reduced to slavery. The Jesuits declaimed against the practice; but as there were now many wealthy families among the Paulistas, the greater part of whose fortunes consisted in their Indians, it was not heard with patience. The Paulistas first engaged in war against the enemies of their allies and afterwards on their own account, on finding it advantageous. They established a regular trade with the other provinces whom they supplied with Indian slaves. They by this time acquired the name of Mamelukes, from the peculiar military discipline they adopted, bearing some resemblance to the Mamelukes of Egypt. The revolution in Portugal, when Philip II. of Spain placed himself on its throne, cast the Paulistas in a state of independence, as they were the only settlers in Brazil which did not acknowledge the new dynasty. From the year 1580 until the middle of the following century, they may be regarded as a republic, and it was during this period they displayed that active and enterprising character for which they were so much celebrated. . . . While a Spanish king occupied the throne of Portugal, they attacked the Spanish settlements on the Paraguay, alleging that the Spaniards were encroaching on their territory. . . . They attacked the Jesuit missions [1620] . . . As they had fixed themselves east of the Parana, the Paulistas laid hold of this as a pretext. They carried away upwards of 2,000 of their Indians into captivity, the greater part of whom were sold and distributed as slaves. The Jesuits complained to the king of Spain and to the pope; the latter fulminated his excommunication. The Paulistas attacked the Jesuits in their college, and put their principal to death, expelled the remainder, and set up a religion of their own; at least no longer acknowledged the supremacy of the pope. In consequence of the interruption of the African trade during the Dutch war, the demand for Indian slaves was very much increased. The Paulistas redoubled their exertions, and traversed every part of the Brazils in armed troops. . . . The foundation was laid of enmity to the Portuguese, which continues to this day, although a complete stop was put to the infamous practice in the year 1756. . . . When the house of Braganza, in 1640, ascended the throne, the Paulistas, instead of acknowledging him, conceived the idea of electing a king for themselves. They actually elected a distinguished citizen of the name of Bueno, who persisted in refusing to accept, upon which they were induced to acknowledge Joam IV. [1641]. It was not until long afterwards that they came under the Portuguese government."—H. M. Brackenridge, *Voyage to South America*, v. 1, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: R. Southey, *History of Brazil*, v. 2, ch. 23.

1540-1541.—Orellana's voyage down the Amazon. See AMAZON RIVER.

1555-1560.—Attempted Huguenot colony on the bay of Rio Janeiro. See FLORIDA: 1562-1563.

1654-1777.—Portuguese policy of exclusion and restriction.—Boundary disputes with Spain.—"The period of peace which followed these victories [over the Dutch] . . . was used by the Portuguese government only to get up a kind of old Japanese system of isolation, by which it was intended to keep the colony in perpetual tutelage. In consequence of this even now, after the lapse of half a century since it violently separated itself, Brazilians generally entertain a bitter grudge against the mother country. All the trade to and from Brazil was engrossed by Portugal; every functionary, down to the last clerk, was Portuguese. Any other European of scientific education was looked at with suspicion; and particularly they sought to prevent by all means the exploration of the interior, as they feared not only that the eyes of the natives might be opened to their mode of administration, but also, that such travellers might side with the Spaniards in their long dispute regarding the boundaries of the two nations, as the French astronomer, La Condamine, had done. This question, which arose shortly after the discovery, and was hushed up only during the short union of both crowns (from 1581-1640), broke out with renewed vigor now and then, maugre the Treaty of Tordesilhas in 1494 [see AMERICA: 1494]. . . . By the Treaty of São Ildefonso, in 1777, both parties having long felt how impracticable the old arrangements were—at least, for their American colonies—the boundaries were fixed upon the principle of the 'uti possidetis,' at any rate so far as the imperfect knowledge of the interior allowed; but this effort also proved to be vain. . . . The unsolved question descended as an evil heritage to their respective heirs, Brazil and the South American Republics. A few years ago it gave rise to the terrible war with Paraguay; and it will lead to fresh conflicts between Brazil and the Argentine Republic."—F. Keller, *Amazon and Madeira rivers*, pp. 23-24.

ALSO IN: R. Southey, *History of Brazil*, v. 3.

1713.—Portuguese title confirmed. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1720.—Vice royalty system of government inaugurated. See LATIN AMERICA: 1715-1810.

1759.—Expulsion of the Jesuits. See JESUITS: 1757-1773.

1808-1822.—Becomes the asylum of Portuguese royalty.—Founding of the independent empire.—"While anarchy and ruin . . . overspread the greater part of the beautiful continent of South America, the Empire of Brazil won an independent existence without bloodshed, and kept it with credit. The Dutch conquest of Brazil, and its reconquest by the Portuguese, has been mentioned in a former chapter. The country long remained under the close and oppressive monopoly imposed upon it by the Portuguese; but in 1808 [1807] when Napoleon invaded Portugal, the regent embarked [see PORTUGAL: 1807], with the royal insignia, for Brazil, which at once assumed the dignity of an integral part of the kingdom. The ports were opened to the commerce of the world; the printing-press was introduced; learning was encouraged; the enormous resources of the country were explored; foreign settlers were invited to establish themselves; embassies were sent to European powers of the first rank, and diplomatic agents received. New towns and harbours were planned; new life was breathed into every department of the state. After a few years, the

state of affairs in Europe compelled King John VI. to return to Europe, as the only chance of preserving the integrity of the monarchy. The Cortes of Lisbon invited their sovereign to revisit his ancient capital, and deputies from Brazil were summoned to attend the sittings of the National Assembly. But before the deputies could arrive, the Cortes had resolved that Brazil should be again reduced to absolute dependence on Portugal. A resolution more senseless or more impracticable can hardly be imagined. The territory of Brazil was as large as all Europe put together; Portugal was a little kingdom, isolated and without influence among the monarchies of the Old World; yet it was deliberately decreed that all the monopolies of the exploded colonial system should be revived, and that England should be deprived of her free trade to Brazil. The king appointed his eldest son, Dom Pedro, Regent of the new kingdom, and soon after took his departure for Lisbon, with many of the emigrant nobility. Dom Pedro assumed the government under the perplexing circumstances of an empty treasury, a heavy public debt, and the provinces almost in revolt. Bahia disavowed his authority, and the Cortes withheld their support from him. The regent reduced his expenditure to the monthly sum allowed to his princess for pin money; he retired to a country house, and observed the most rigid economy. By great exertions he reduced the public expenditure from \$50,000,000 to \$15,000,000; but the northern and internal provinces still withheld their taxes; the army became mutinous, and the ministers of his father, who still remained in power, were unpopular; the regent in despair demanded his recall. But the Brazilians were at length disarmed by his noble conduct; they recognized his activity, his beneficence, his assiduity in the affairs of government, and the habitual feelings of affection and respect for the House of Braganza, which had for a moment been laid asleep by distrust, were re-awakened with renewed strength. It was fortunate that the quarrels which disturbed Brazil were accommodated before the arrival of intelligence from Portugal. Hardly had the king arrived in Lisbon when he found himself obliged to assent to a constitution which treated his Brazilian subjects as mere colonists; succeeding mails brought orders more and more humiliating to the Brazilians. The design of declaring Brazil an independent kingdom, grew more and more in public favour; but the prince was unwilling to place himself in direct rebellion to the crown of Portugal, and steadily adhered to his determination to leave America. At length, it is related, a despatch was delivered to the regent, which he declined to show to any of his ministers, but which evidently excited in his mind no ordinary emotions of anger: he crushed the paper in his hand, and moved away to a window, where he stood for a few moments in thought; at length he turned to his council with the words '*Independencia ou morte*':—the exclamation was received with tumultuous cheers, and was adopted as the watchword of the Revolution. The Portuguese troops were sent back to Europe. The Cortes of Lisbon were now anxious to recall their obnoxious decrees; to admit the deputies from Brazil; to make any concession that might be demanded. But it was too late: the independence of Brazil was formally proclaimed in August, 1822, and in December of the same year, Dom Pedro was crowned Emperor of Brazil. This is the first, and as yet the only instance of a modern colony achieving its independence, and separating itself completely from its metropolis without bloodshed."—Viscount Bury, *Exodus of the west-*

ern nations, v. 2, ch. 11.—See also PORTUGAL: 1820-1824.

ALSO IN: J. Armitage, *History of Brazil*, ch. 1-7.

1821.—Annexation of Uruguay as province. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

1824.—At first congress of South American republics. See LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830.

1825.—Independence won by Uruguay. See URUGUAY: 1821-1905.

1825-1865.—Wars with the Argentines.—Abdication of Dom Pedro I.—*Guerra dos Cabanos*.—"In 1825, chiefly through the mediation of England, Brazil was acknowledged as an independent empire. But the inner commotions continued, and were not even soothed by a new Constitution, drawn up in 1823, and sworn to by the Emperor in 1824. New revolts in Pernambuco, and some of the other Northern provinces, and a war of three years with the Argentine Republic, which ended in 1828 by Brazil giving up Banda Oriental, annexed only eleven years before, disturbed and weakened the land. The foreign soldiers, enlisted for this war, and retained after its conclusion to keep down the Opposition, and the extravagant private life of the Emperor, who recklessly trampled down the honour of respectable families, provoked dissatisfaction and murmurs, which rose to the highest pitch when he insisted upon carrying on a most unpopular war in Portugal to defend the rights of his daughter, Dona Maria da Gloria (in whose favour he had abdicated the Portuguese Crown), against his brother, Don Miguel [see PORTUGAL: 1824-1889]. In April, 1831, Dom Pedro I., so enthusiastically raised to the Brazilian throne only nine years before, was forced to abdicate it, deserted and betrayed by every one, in behalf of his younger son, Pedro. The next period was the most disturbed one that the young Empire had yet witnessed. Slave revolts at Bahia, a civil war in the South, which almost cost it the province of Rio Grande do Sul, and the bloody rebellion known as the *Guerra dos Cabanos*, in Pará and Amazon, from 1835 to 1837, followed each other quickly. In this last revolt, the Brazilians had stirred up the Indians and mestizoes against the abhorred Portuguese, without considering that they should not be able to quench the fire they had themselves kindled. In a short time, the fury of the whole colored population turned against all whites, Brazilians and Portuguese alike, without any distinction. More than 10,000 persons are said to have perished in this *Guerra dos Cabanos*; and, to the present day, those terrible times and the barbarous cruelties committed by the Indians, half-castes, and mulattoes, continue to be talked of with awe in the two provinces. A revolution in Minas, got up by the personal ambitions of a few political leaders, rather than emanating from the spirit of the people, and the war against Rosas, the Dictator of the Argentine Republic, passed over Brazil without leaving deep traces, at least when compared with the last war against Paraguay; which, besides the stimulus of the old differences about boundaries, was occasioned by the endless vexations and restrictions with which the Dictator Lopez strove to ruin the Brazilian trade on the Paraguay, and to prejudice the province of Mato Grosso."—F. Keller, *Amazon and Madeira rivers*, pp. 25-26.—See also ARGENTINA: 1819-1874.

ALSO IN: J. Armitage, *History of Brazil*, 1808-1831.

1830.—Freedom from Spain. See LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824.

1865-1870.—War with Paraguay. See PARAGUAY: 1608-1873.

1871-1888.—Emancipation of slaves.—The Brazilian act of emancipation, known as the law of Rio Branco (taking that name from the minister who carried it through) was passed on September 28, 1871, "and from that date it was enacted 'that children henceforth born of slave women shall be considered of free condition.' . . . Such children are not to be actually free, but are bound to serve the owners of their mothers for a term of 21 years, under the name of 'apprentices.' These must work, under severe penalties, for their hereditary masters; but if the latter inflict on them excessive bodily punishment, they are allowed to bring suit in a criminal court, which may declare their freedom. A provision was also made for the emancipation of government slaves; and there was a clause which insured a certain sum, to be annually set aside from fines, which was to aid each province in emancipating by purchase a certain number of slaves. . . . The passage of this law did not prove merely prospective in its effects. In a very short time the sums placed aside for emancipating slaves by purchase resulted in the freedom of many bondmen. And more than this, there seemed to be a generous private rivalry in the good work, from motives of benevolence and from religious influence. Many persons in various parts of Brazil liberated their slaves without compensation. . . . I am happy to say that the number liberated, either by the provisions of the State or by private individuals, is always in an increasing ratio. When the writer first went to Brazil [1852] . . . it was estimated that there were 3,000,000 in slavery. . . . There were at the beginning of 1875, when the law of emancipation had been but a little more than three years in operation, 1,476,567 slaves."—J. C. Fletcher and D. P. Kidder, *Brazil and the Brazilians*, ch. 28.—"On the 25th of March, 1884, slavery was abolished in the province of Ceará. The Rio News says, 'The movement began only 15 months ago, the first municipality liberating its slaves on the 1st of January, 1883. The new tax law of last November greatly accelerated this progress, because it made slave-holding impossible, the value of the slave being less than the tax.' " On September 28, 1885, the impatience of the Brazilians to rid themselves of slavery expressed itself in a new emancipation act, known as the Saraiva law. It provided for facilitating and hastening the extension of freedom, by increasing the public fund appropriated to it, by defining the valuation of slaves, and by other effective provisions, so that "within ten years [from its date] it is supposed that slavery will have ceased to exist in Brazil."—H. C. Dent, *Year in Brazil*, pp. 281-266.—"On March 30, 1887, the official return gave the number of slaves in Brazil as 723,419, of the legal value of \$485,225,212. On May 13, 1888, the Crown Princess, as regent, gave the royal assent to a short measure of two clauses, the first declaring that slavery was abolished in Brazil from the day of the promulgation of the law, and the second repealing all former Acts on the subject. Both Chambers refused to consider the claim for compensation made by the slave owners."—*Statesman's year-book*, 1890, p. 301.

1872-1912.—Development of railroads in South America. See RAILROADS: 1872-1912.

1889-1891.—Revolution.—Overthrow of the empire.—Establishment of the republic of the United States of Brazil.—Religious freedom declared.—"The sudden collapse of the Imperial Government in November [1889], resulting in the downfall of Dom Pedro and his banishment, caused universal surprise. For some time the Government had been credited by the Republican jour-

nals with the wish and intention to disperse the army throughout the provinces and along the frontier, so that, with the assistance of the newly organised National Guard, the succession of the Princess Imperial to the throne might be secured in the event of the death or incapacity through old age of the Emperor Dom Pedro. An infantry battalion, ordered to embark for a distant province, mutinied and refused to go. The War Department resolved to compel them by force to depart." The result was a general mutiny (November 15, 1889), which soon became a revolution. "The organiser of the mutiny was Colonel Benjamin Constant Botelho de Magalhaes, an officer of exceptional ability and Professor in the Military Academy. The movement seemed directed at first only against the obnoxious Ouro Preto Ministry; but the enthusiasm of the Republicans, under the



DOM PEDRO II, EMPEROR OF BRAZIL

leadership of a popular agitator, Jose de Patrocinio, was so very pronounced, that at a meeting held in the city hall, in the afternoon of Nov. 15, a resolution proclaiming the Republic was passed by acclamation. About the same hour, a self-constituted committee, consisting of General Deodoro [da Fonseca], Benjamin Constant, and Quintino Bocayuva, met and organised a Provisional Government," with Marshal Deodoro da Fonseca for its chief, Colonel Botelho de Magalhaes for minister of war. "A formal decree was issued declaring a federal Republic, the several provinces of the late Empire constituting the States and each State arranging its own constitution and electing its deliberative bodies and local governments. On the morning of the 16th the deposed Emperor received intimation that he and his family must leave the country within twenty-four hours:—'Between 2 and 3 o'clock on the morning of the 17th an officer appeared at the palace and informed the Emperor that he must at once embark, with all the members of his family. The wretched old man protested that he was not a fugitive, and that he preferred to embark by day; but after listening to the officer's explanation that a conflict might occur and blood might be shed, he finally yielded, protesting that in such a crisis his old grey head was the only one that was cool. And so at the dead hour of

night, with no one to say a farewell and bid him God-speed, the aged Emperor, with his devoted wife and children, went down to the Caes Pharonx, where a launch was waiting to convey them out to the small gunboat Parnahyba. About 10 o'clock the gunboat steamed out of the harbour and went down to Ilha Grande to wait for the merchant steamer Alagoas, which had been chartered to convey the exiles to Europe'. . . It was said that the Imperial Ministry, principally through the instrumentality of Ouro Preto, had arranged with Dom Pedro to abdicate at the end of January, 1890, in favour of his daughter, the Countess d'Eu. But the Countess, with her husband, was extremely unpopular with the army and navy, and from these the feeling of disloyalty spread rapidly among the people. By decree of the Provisional Government, the provinces of Brazil, united by the tie of federation, were to be styled the 'United States of Brazil,' and general elections were to take place in August, 1890, to confirm the establishment of the Republic. A counter-revolution broke out in Rio on Dec. 18. A number of soldiers, sailors, and civilians took part in it, and troops had to be ordered out to disperse them. It was not until the 20th that the disturbance was finally quelled."—*Annual Register*, 1889, pt. 1, pp. 444-448.—"The revolution was the work of leaders who were not only conscious of their power, but also confident that the nation would inevitably condone their temporary acts of usurpation. There were no signs of weakness, vacillation or uncertainty in their action. . . . A coalition of the army officers and the constitution-makers and political dreamers of the League would have been impracticable if the leaders had not known that the 20 provinces of the Empire were profoundly disaffected and would readily acquiesce in a radical change of government. . . . The Emperor of Brazil has enjoyed the reputation of being one of the most enlightened and progressive sovereigns of his time. . . . He was a ruler with many fascinating and estimable traits, who endeared himself to his people. This and much more may be said in praise of the deposed and banished Emperor; but when the record of his public services and of his private virtues is complete, the fact remains that he stood for a system of centralization that practically deprived the great series of federated provinces of their autonomy and his subjects of the privileges of self-government. Dom Pedro II. was not a constitutional reformer. The charter which he had received from his father was not modified in any essential respect during his long reign."—*N. Y. Tribune Extra*, v. 1, no. 12 (188a).—"A new Constitution . . . was ratified by the first National Congress, convened on Nov. 15, 1890. By this instrument the Brazilian nation constituted itself into a federal republic, under the name of the United States of Brazil. Each of the old provinces was declared a self-governing state, to be administered under a republican form of government, with power to impose taxes, and subject to no interference from the Central Government, except for purposes of national defense or the preservation of internal order or for the execution of Federal laws. Legislation relating to customs, paper currency, and postal communications is reserved to the Federal Government. The right of suffrage is secured to all male citizens over 21 years old, with the exception of beggars, persons ignorant of the alphabet, soldiers in actual service, and persons under monastic vows, registration being the only prerequisite. The executive authority is vested in the President . . . elected by the people directly for the term of six years, and . . . not eligible for

the succeeding term. . . . Senators are elected by the Legislatures of the States for nine years, three from each State, one retiring and his successor being chosen every three years. . . . The Chamber of Deputies has the initiative in all laws relating to taxation. Deputies are elected for three years by direct popular vote in the proportion of one to every 70,000 inhabitants. . . . It is declared that no sect or church shall receive aid from the National or State governments." In 1891, differences arose between the president and Congress, at first over financial measures passed by the Chambers and vetoed by the president and schemes recommended by the president that were voted down by Congress. In November the president published a decree dissolving Congress, closed the Chambers by force, proclaimed himself dictator on the invitation of officers of the army, and convoked a new congress, to be charged with the revision of the constitution. The state of Rio Grande do Sul led off in a revolt against this usurpation, and on November 23, after some shots had been fired into the city of Rio de Janeiro by a naval squadron acting against him, President Fonseca resigned. "Floriano Peixoto was immediately installed by the revolutionary committee as President in his stead."—*Appleton's annual cyclopædia* 1891, pp. 91-96.—See also FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Modern federations.

1890.—First International American Congress at Washington, D. C. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1893-1894.—Triumph of the Peixoto government.—Presidential election.—For a time, the government under President Peixoto was maintained with considerable success; but in 1893 a serious rebellion, in which the navy took the lead, broke out. The naval insurgents held the harbor of Rio de Janeiro for some months, but gradually lost support. On March 1, 1894, a presidential election was held, which resulted in the choice of Prudente Moraes, a civilian. This removed the leading grievance of the rebels, that Peixoto was perpetuating a régime of pure militarism. On March 11, the fleet which the government had been fitting out in the United States and Europe appeared at the entrance to the harbor of Rio. The insurgent commander offered to surrender on conditions, which being refused, he and his officers sought asylum on first a French and later a Portuguese war vessel. Thus deserted, the crews of the insurgent vessels surrendered without resistance when the government batteries opened fire. In the first part of April the government forces totally defeated the rebels in Rio Grande do Sul.

1897.—Conflict with the "Fanatics."—A religious enthusiast, called Conselheiro (Counselor), who had made his appearance in the state of Bahia and gathered a great number of followers, began in 1897 to become dangerous to the government, which he denounced as atheistic; his following grew disorderly, and political malcontents were taking advantage of the disturbance which he caused. Attempts on the part of the government to stop the disorder were fiercely resisted, and its conflict with "the Fanatics," as Conselheiro and his followers were known, soon became a very serious war, demanding many thousands of troops, and spreading over wide regions of the country. Amazonian bands of women fought with "the Fanatics," and were among the most dreaded forces on their side. The headquarters and stronghold of the movement were finally taken in July, after an obstinate defense, and in October Conselheiro was killed; after which the rebellion came to an end.

1898.—Election of Dr. Campos Salles to the presidency.—The nomination and election of Dr. M. F. de Campos Salles, who was inaugurated president of the United States of Brazil on November 15, 1898, "marks the decided distinction of parties in Brazil. Previously, there had been various divergencies among the Republicans, but no distinct party differences. But at that time there arose a party advocating the selection of a candidate who would favor the national against the foreign (naturalized) element; one who would have influence with the few remaining advocates of the monarchical government; who would give preference to a military over a civil government; finally, one who would introduce into the government the system called 'Jacobinism,' a designation which the new party did not refuse to accept. Dr. Campos Salles was the candidate of the moderate Republicans or Conservatives, who were organized under the name of the Republican party, with a platform demanding respect for the constitution and declaring for the institution of such reforms as only reason and time should dictate. The sympathies of the conservative element and of foreigners who had interests in the country were with the candidate of this party and gave him their support. The election of Dr. Campos Salles inspired renewed confidence in the stability of Brazil, a confidence which was at once manifested by the higher quotation of the national bonds, by an advance in the rate of exchange, and by greater activity in business throughout the country. Brazil, in spite of all hindrances, has prospered since 1889."—*Bulletin of the bureau of American republics, Dec., 1898.*

1900.—Arbitration of the French Guiana boundary dispute.—Award of the Swiss government.—A dispute with France concerning the boundary of the French possessions in Guiana, which Brazil inherited from Portugal, and which dates back to the seventeenth century, was submitted at last to the Swiss federal council, as a tribunal of arbitration, and settled by the award of the council on December 1, 1900. The decision fixes the river Oyapok and the watershed of the Tumuc Humac mountains as the boundary. It is practically in favor of Brazil, for France had claimed, a year before, a territory of not less than 400,000 square kilometres, ten times the area of Switzerland itself. Even after a large abatement had been made, the claim was still for 260,000 square kilometres, or 100,000 square miles, much more than the area of Great Britain. The actual territory allotted to France by the federal government of Switzerland is about 3,000 square miles. The arbitrators had no excuse for saying that the case was not brought before them in all its length and breadth. The documents presented by France formed four large volumes, supplemented by an atlas of 35 maps, while Brazil, not to be outdone, put in 13 volumes of documents and three atlases, with about 200 maps.

1901.—Second International American Congress at Mexico City. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1901-1921.—Madeira and Mamoré railways. See LATIN AMERICA: 1901-1921: Transportation.

1902.—Inauguration of President Alves. Dr. Rodriguez Alves was inducted in office as president of the United States of Brazil on November 15, 1902, succeeding Dr. Campos Salles.

1902-1909.—Controversy with Argentina over equilibrium of armament. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1902-1909.

1903.—Settlement of boundary dispute with Bolivia. See ACRÉ DISPUTES.

1904.—Impromptu revolt that became a comedy of errors.—"To the American who is under the impression that all South America is continually in the throes of one or another revolution it will come as a surprise to learn that this vast district, comprising one half the territory and almost two thirds the population of the whole continent, has known no revolution since the founding of the Republic. The revolts of 1803, 1897, and 1904, menacing in varying degree, were outbursts fostered by a centralization of national vitality which inspired the belief in each insurrectionist that it was but necessary to strike the head,—the body would lie dormant. The justification of this belief lay in the historical fact that the vast majority of successful revolts throughout South America have consisted merely in *coups d'état*. The masses have lain dormant, and the fighting, if any, has generally come after the somersault.

"The revolt of November of last year in Brazil was so typical of South American revolutions, and so elementary, that it affords a lucid illustration. Owing to the prompt and efficient measures taken by the government to suppress true reports of the disturbance, and owing, too, to its signal failure, this revolt was scarcely mentioned by the American press. Nevertheless, it missed by little causing international commotion. . . .

"A great epidemic of smallpox led the government to require of Congress a law making vaccination compulsory. Long and heated debate on the constitutionality of the measure went on, while the epidemic assumed alarming proportions. The Executive's patience being worn out, arbitrary pressure was brought to bear, and the law passed. This intervention brought down the general censure of the press, and the opposition seized the handle with disproportionate avidity. On the eleventh of November a mass meeting was held in one of the central squares of Rio Janeiro. . . . The mounted police broke up the meeting with the flat of the sword: no lives were lost. On the following day the scene was duplicated, several people injured, and a life lost. By night riots had broken out in various parts of the city.

"Up to the fourteenth of November, revolution was not even rumored. . . . Toward evening city and government were genuinely surprised by the news that General Travassos, who was to have commanded a battalion in the review, immediately upon the announcement of its postponement had proceeded to the Military Academy on the outskirts of the city, and, before the student body, had demanded of the officer in charge transfer of his command. Frightened by the attitude of the cadets, the commanding officer made a puerile protest, and surrendered. He and his staff were allowed to withdraw, and carried the news of the revolt to the city. It was soon confirmed: the cadets were advancing on the President's palace, under the leadership of General Travassos. . . .

"The shortest line of march was along the bay front, and to repulse the attack were sent by land a battalion of the line reinforced by police, and by sea two gunboats under the play of searchlights from an armored cruiser. The cadets marched under the assurance that no soldier of the line would fire on them, as the army was back of the movement. . . . They were met by an armed force, indistinguishable owing to the destruction of all the lamps by rioters. The force was the advancing battalion, and it is generally believed that it fired on the cadets, mistaking them for the returning body of police which had followed the water front. Brisk fighting ensued, when suddenly the cry arose among the cadets that they had been betrayed,

and were attacked by soldiers of the line. They broke and made a disorderly retreat to the Academy. Almost simultaneously the soldiers learned their mistake, and that they had opposed a commanding officer; and they turned in precipitous flight. General Travassos was mortally wounded in the engagement. . . .

"Meanwhile the detachment of police dispatched from the city had advanced along the bay front to the stone quarry, where they awaited the rebels. Drawn up at this spot under close formation, they were mistaken by the gunboats for the cadets, and were made the target of a disastrous hail of bullets from quick-firing guns. Their retreat also was precipitous.

"Such was the comedy of errors which will be known as the Revolt of 1904. Its net results were a rude but salutary recall of the government to watchfulness; added prestige abroad for the government, vouched by a rise in its bonds; and, most significant of all, spontaneous and immediate support of the Chief Executive from neighboring states. And yet the credit was not due to the government, which avowedly had been caught napping, but to the Goddess of Chance, the arbiter of every *coup d'état*."—G. A. Chamberlain, *Cause of South American revolution (Atlantic Monthly, June, 1905)*.

1904.—Settlement of boundary between Brazil and British Guiana.—By the decision of the king of Italy, to whom the boundary question in dispute between Brazil and British Guiana had been referred, the line separating the territories of the two states was defined, as drawn by Nature, along the watershed, starting from mount Yakontipu and running easterly to the source of the river Mahu, thence down that river to the Tacuta and up the latter to its source, where it touches the boundary already determined. Both countries to have free navigation of the rivers in question.

1906.—Presidential election.—The quadrennial presidential election occurring in Brazil in the spring of 1906 raised Dr. Alfonso Moreira Penna from the vice-presidency to the presidency of the republic, with no disturbance of its quiet.

1906.—Status of the German colonists.—"Already 500,000 Germans, emigrants and their offspring, are resident in Brazil. The great majority of them, it is true, have embraced Brazilian citizenship, but their ideals and ties are essentially and inviolably German. In the south, where they are thickest, they have become the ruling element. German factories, warehouses, shops, farms, schools and churches dot the country everywhere. German has superseded Portuguese, the official language of Brazil, in scores of communities. Twenty million pounds of vested interests—banking, street railroads, electric works, mines, coffee-plantations, and a great variety of business undertakings—claim the protection of the Kaiser's flag. A cross-country railway and a still more extensive projected system are in the hands of German capitalists. The country's vast ocean traffic, the Amazon river shipping, and much of the coasting trade are dominated by Germans.

"Over and above this purely commercial conquest, however, looms a factor of more vital importance to North American susceptibilities—namely, the creation of a nation of Germans in Brazil. That is the avowed purpose of three German colonising concerns, which have become lords and masters over 8,000 square miles of Brazilian territory, an area considerably larger than the kingdom of Saxony, and capable of dwarfing half-a-dozen German Grand Duchies. It is the object of these territorial syndicates to people

their lands with immigrants willing to be 'kept German'—a race of transplanted men and women who will find themselves amid conditions deliberately designed to perpetuate 'Deutschthum,' which means the German language, German customs, and unyielding loyalty to German economic hopes."—F. W. Wile, *German colonisation in Brazil (Fortnightly Review, Jan., 1906)*.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1910: European and American invasion.

1906.—Third International American Conference at Rio de Janeiro. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1907.—Adoption of obligatory military service.—By a law enacted in 1907 military service was made obligatory.

1908.—Relations with United States. See BRAZILIAN COFFEE CASE.

1909.—Frontier agreements and demarcations.—The message of President Penna to Congress, May 3, 1909, contained the following announcements: "On September 15 last, a treaty between Brazil and Holland was finally approved at The Hague, to determine the limits of our frontier with the Colony of Surinam or Dutch Guiana. The demarcation of the new frontier line between Brazil and Bolivia in Matto Grosso is now completed, and awaits only the approval of the two Governments interested. The same mixed commission to which was intrusted this survey will now proceed to reconnoitre the head-waters of the Rio Verde. The Government of the French Republic proposes the appointment of a mixed commission for the demarcation of the common boundary established on December 1, 1900, by arbitration of the Swiss Federal Council. An agreement will shortly be arrived at with Great Britain to determine the frontier of Brazil with British Guiana."

1909-1910.—Death of President Penna.—Accession of the vice-president.—Presidential election.—Dr. Alfonso Penna, president of Brazil, died suddenly on June 14, 1909, and was succeeded in the office by the vice-president, Señor Nilo Peçanha, who filled out the presidential term, ending Nov. 15, 1910. Meantime an active canvass of candidates for the succeeding term had been in progress, the names most discussed being those of General Hermes de Fonseca, Baron Rio Branco, minister of foreign affairs, and Señor Ruy Barbosa, a prominent advocate. General Hermes da Fonseca was elected on March 1, 1910, and inaugurated on November 15 of the same year.

1909-1914.—Agricultural legislation.—"Brazil is essentially an agricultural country, although only a fraction of its soil has been brought under cultivation. It furnishes 75 per cent of the entire coffee crop of the world and a very large proportion of the rubber crop. The exports of cacao are worth annually about \$10,000,000. The main resources of the country—dye-woods, hardwoods, and minerals—are as yet scarcely touched. The fertility of the soil and the ease with which the natural products are grown explain in some measure the indifference to scientific agriculture and agricultural training which prevailed up to a very recent time. It was not until 1900 that the Government manifested a serious purpose to develop and direct this industry by appointing a secretary of agriculture. In October of the following year a decree was issued providing for the establishment of a superior school of agriculture and veterinary medicine at Rio de Janeiro, and the institution was formally inaugurated July 4, 1913. By a decree of April 15, 1914, there was created a class of practical schools of agriculture, and in

accordance with successive decrees preparatory schools of agriculture were established in several places and experimental stations were created. Thus legal provision was made for a great system of agricultural education under Government control."—*Report of the Commissioner of Education*, 1915, v. 1, pp. 655-656.

1910.—**Marine mutiny at Rio de Janeiro.**—The crews, almost entirely negroes, of the two great dreadnoughts, *Minas Geraes* and *São Paulo*, revolted November 22. The captain of the *Minas Geraes* was murdered by his crew as he stepped on board. Some of the other officers were killed and the rest put on shore. The crews of a cruiser and two smaller vessels joined in the revolt. All the ships flew the red flag. The grievances alleged were overwork, small pay and too frequent corporal punishment. A message was sent to the president and no reply being received, the bombardment of the city began. A member of the Chamber of Deputies went out to them with a flag of truce. The Senate yielded to the mutineers' demand but the Chamber of Deputies hesitated. To overcome this hesitancy the *Minas Geraes* took a post opposite the government palace and started to drop shells near the naval arsenal. The Chamber voted an amnesty and promised to redress the grievances. The mutineers had in the meantime put out to sea but returned on November 27 and gave the ships back to the government.

1910.—**Fourth International American Conference**, at Buenos Aires. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

1911.—**New educational legislation.**—"The educational system in Brazil differs somewhat from most of the other states, in that the federal government provides the higher education, while the primary education is left to the several states. Naturally there is a difference among the states in the way they maintain their schools. The most progressive states, Minas Geraes, Rio Grande do Sul, and São Paulo, have over half of the public schools. Brazil has no universities, but maintains separate schools of medicine, law, engineering, etc. Neither has it any central educational organization, which leaves much to be desired. The government has recently (1911) passed a new educational law abolishing the degree of doctor, maintaining that such a degree is undemocratic."—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin America*, pp. 220-230.—"Professional education in Brazil is at present in a most interesting stage. The new law promulgated in 1911 has theoretically made a complete revolution in the professional schools, and the outcome of the change is still so uncertain that it offers an inviting field for prophetic speculation. Heretofore the national schools of law, medicine, and engineering have enjoyed rights and privileges not unlike the universities of the middle ages. Other schools not supported by the nation might be granted, by special enactment, certain privileges and prerogatives, but such privileges could be revoked by the same power that granted them. The national schools of medicine at Bahia and Rio de Janeiro; of law at São Paulo and Recife; of engineering at Rio de Janeiro, enjoyed a prestige that could not nearly be attained by private or local schools. Their degrees had national rights, and the conferring of the doctorate was attended by all the pomp and solemnity of an ancient university. The new law, called a 'reforma de ensino,' abolished by a stroke of the pen the rights, privileges, and prerogatives of these ancient and aristocratic faculties. Their degrees have no longer any more virtue than those of the newest and humblest school. In fact all degrees

have been abolished as unsuited to a democratic society. Instead of the coveted doctorate, conferred with cap and gown in an elaborate ceremony, the graduate now receives a simple certificate of having finished the presented course of study. This statement entitles him to the right to practice his profession. Any school, therefore, whether Federal, State, or private, may prepare physicians, lawyers, dentists, pharmacists, and engineers. The federal monopoly is gone. For this reason the reforma is said to grant 'freedom of instruction.' Theoretically, any sect, society, city, or State may found a professional school or university, and all certificates of graduation will have equal force in all parts of the Republic.

"One might suppose that the result would be the foundation of a large number of nonstate universities, untrammelled by national regulations. But there is a paragraph in the law that may tend to make professional training more national than heretofore. If a faculty or university is self-supporting, it has, under the new law, complete freedom. It can regulate the length of its course, the age of its students, the number of its professors, and system of instruction. If, on the other hand, it asks and receives a subvention from Congress, it must conform in the essentials to the standards presented by the law, such as length of term and order of studies, and the professors must be appointed by the Government from a list submitted by the faculty. This last clause especially puts all the federal-aided schools under the direct control of the Federal Government, and as it is easier to receive a subvention from Congress than to raise an endowment, it seems probable that instead of loosing the professional schools from the control of the central Government, the new law will bring them into more direct subjection, and instead of a very limited number of national faculties there may arise many more in different centers, but all equally national. Where the law really works for absolute freedom is in the matter of secondary education. These schools are now completely divorced from the professional faculties. A certificate of graduation from a collegio will no longer admit to a professional school. All students must pass an entrance examination fixed and administered by the particular faculty. This policy is theoretically correct considering actual conditions in Brazil, but it may result in the evil of young men studying only to pass the entrance examination, and not with the aim of acquiring a real education. Already there is appearing the special preparatory-to-examination school, and the race of skillful tutors who 'insure' their pupils against the risks and dangers of the examining board."—*Bulletin of the Pan-American Union*, May, 1912, p. 638.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

1913-1914.—**Relations with Mexico.** See MEXICO: 1913-1914.

1914.—**ABC conference at Niagara Falls.** See ABC CONFERENCE; U. S. A.: 1914 (April).

1914.—**Presidential election.**—The presidential election of March resulted in an easy victory for Vice President Wenceslao Braz, who was elected for the term beginning November 15, 1914. The election was attended by disturbances in the state of Ceara, and it was necessary to proclaim martial law in Rio de Janeiro and some other cities in order to prevent outbreaks of the insurrectionary elements.

1914.—**Percentage of railways controlled by the government.** See RAILROADS: 1917-1910.

1914-1918.—**Effect of World War upon ship-**

ping of. See COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1914-1921.

1915.—Pan-American conference, Washington, D. C.—Formation of ABC alliance.—Reasons.—See LATIN AMERICA: 1912-1915; U. S. A.: 1915 (August-October).

1915-1919.—Immigration.—From the year 1820 there has been considerable immigration from other countries. In 1915 the estimate of the number of immigrants entering up to that time was found to be as follows:

Italians	1,361,266
Portuguese	976,386
Spaniards	468,583
Germans	122,830
Russians	103,683
Austrians	78,545
Turk-Arabs	52,434
French	28,072
English	22,005
Japanese	15,608
Swiss	10,713
Swedes	5,435
Belgians	4,727
Others	200,000

See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Brazil; LATIN AMERICA: 1910-1914.

1917-1920.—Part played in World War.—“Brazil was the only one of the larger states of Latin America that actually entered the war. The relations between Brazil and the United States have almost always been peculiarly close and friendly. From the outbreak of the European war strong sympathy for the allied cause was manifested in Brazil, and a league for aiding the Allies through the agency of the Red Cross was organized under the presidency of Ruy Barbosa, the most distinguished statesman of Brazil and one of the most brilliant orators of Latin America. Brazil's experience during the period of neutrality was very similar to that of the United States. Her commerce was interfered with and her ships were sunk by German submarines. A few weeks after the United States entered the war, Brazil severed relations with Germany (because of the torpedoing of the Brazilian steamer *Paraná* off Cherbourg) and seized the forty-six German ships interned in Brazilian harbors. In a circular note of June 2 the Brazilian government declared to the world that it had taken this step because the Republic of Brazil was bound to the United States ‘by a traditional friendship and by a similarity of political opinion in the defense of the vital interests of America and the principles accepted by international law,’ and because it wished to give to its foreign policy, in this critical moment of the world's history, ‘a practical form of continental solidarity—a policy indeed which was that of the old régime on every occasion on which any of the other friendly sister nations of the American continent were in jeopardy.’ President Wilson's reply to this note expressed the deep appreciation of the United States and the hope that the act of the Brazilian Congress was ‘the forerunner of the attitude to be assumed by the rest of the American states.’ On October 26, 1917, on the receipt of the news of the torpedoing of another Brazilian ship by a German submarine, a resolution recognizing ‘the state of war initiated by the German Empire against Brazil’ was adopted by the unanimous vote of the Brazilian Senate and by a vote of 149 to 1 in the Chamber of Deputies. At the request of the British government in December, 1917, Brazil sent two cruisers and four destroyers to European waters to cooperate with the Brit-

ish navy, and a few months later a group of Brazilian aviators took their place on the Western front. A number of physicians and several Red Cross units from Brazil also cooperated with the Allies. Brazil's enthusiastic support of the United States and of the allied cause has been recognized by those powers in giving her representation on the Council of the League of Nations. In fact at the first meeting of the Council in London in February, 1920, Brazil was the sole American power represented.”—J. H. Latané, *United States and Latin America*, pp. 313-314.—See also LATIN AMERICA: 1914.

1918.—Presidential election.—In March, 1918, the presidential election was held and Rodriguez Alves (president from 1902 to 1906) was chosen. On January 15, 1919, he died without assuming office and Vice President Delfim Moreira administered the affairs during the next month. An election to fill the unexpired term of Alves was held on April 13, and Epitácio Pessoa was chosen for the balance of the term. He varied the practice of the Latin-American republics by filling all the posts in his cabinet with civilians. Pessoa was interested in developing the commercial and economic relations of Brazil and the United States and in bringing closer together the countries of North and South America and solidifying their interests without antagonizing the European countries.

1918 (October).—Settlement of Uruguay's debt to Brazil.—“On December 10, 1918, the Uruguayan Legislature approved the treaty signed on July 22, 1918, at Rio de Janeiro by the Uruguayan and Brazilian Governments for the purpose of determining, liquidating and applying Uruguay's debt to Brazil. The origin of this debt is to be found in a series of eight conventions entered into from 1851 to 1868 by which Brazil advanced to Uruguay amounts which had by 1868 reached a total of slightly over \$4,000,000. As expressed in the treaty of July 22, 1918, the moneys thus loaned were expended in the common struggle for liberty. . . . Brazil proved itself a most tolerant creditor and failed to demand payment of capital or interest. On several occasions the Uruguayan Foreign Office opened negotiations looking to the liquidation of the debt; the first definite proposal being made in 1896. The debt and the interest then amounted to \$12,000,000 and a project was drawn up providing for its reduction to \$5,170,000 which amount was to be paid in 4 per cent bonds guaranteed by all direct and indirect taxes. This last clause led to the withdrawal of the project and although further negotiations took place particularly in 1906 and 1910, no definite agreement was reached until July, 1918. The treaty which has now been approved fixes its amount of Uruguay's debt to Brazil at \$5,170,000 and provides for the expenditures of this sum by Uruguay in works of mutual benefit on the frontier between the two countries. The sum of \$1,034,000 is to be devoted for and the construction of, an international bridge over the Yaguaron River. The further sum of \$1,757,000 is to be expended for an Institute of Labor to be founded on the frontier. . . . In addition to this an equal number of Uruguayans and Brazilians will receive in Spanish and Portuguese scientific and professional instruction in agricultural industries as well as in allied industries.”—*Hispanic American Historical Review*, Aug., 1919, pp. 481-482.

1918.—Participation in London and Paris Scientific Conferences. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1919.—Paris conference and Versailles treaty.

See PARIS CONFERENCE: outline of work: VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1920.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: South America.

1921.—Diplomatic mission from the United States under Secretary of State Colby. See U. S. A.: 1921.

1922.—Budget plan vetoed by President Pessoa.—“President Pessoa’s veto of the budget plan for 1922 as passed by both branches of Congress has created passionate comments in political circles and throughout the country. While some political leaders, like Senator Machada, maintain that the President has no authority to limit appropriations made by the Legislature, public opinion, and especially commercial circles, is outspoken in praise of the Presidential measure. In his message to Congress the President declares that he feels it his duty to oppose an inflation of the financial conditions of the country. Congress, furthermore, had usurped Executive privileges in dictating an increase in salaries for Treasury employes and creating other places for political favorites.”—*New York Times Current History, April, 1922, p. 176.*

BRAZIL, Constitution of.—The following text of the constitution of the United States of Brazil, adopted February 24, 1891 (see also BRAZIL: 1889-1891), is taken from a translation published in Bulletin No. 7 of the Bureau of American republics, Washington:

We, the representatives of the Brazilian people, united in constitutional congress, to organize a free and democratic régime, do establish, decree and promulgate the following constitution of the republic of the United States of Brazil:

Article 1. The Brazilian nation, adopting as a form of government the federal republic proclaimed November 15, 1889, constitutes itself, by the perpetual and indissoluble union of its former provinces, the United States of Brazil.

Art. 2. Each of the former provinces shall constitute a state, and the former municipal district shall form the federal district, continuing to be the capital of the union until the following article shall be carried into effect.

Art. 3. In the center there is allotted as the property of the union a zone of 14,400 square kilometers, which in due time shall be laid off for the establishment of the future federal capital. [After the change of site of the capital, the present federal district shall constitute a state.]

Art. 4. The states shall have the right to incorporate themselves, one with another, subdivide themselves, dismember themselves to join with others or form new states, with the consent of the respective local legislatures in two successive annual sessions and the approval of the national Congress.

Art. 5. It shall be the duty of each state to provide, at its own expense, for the necessities of its government and administration; but the union shall extend assistance to any state which, in case of public calamity, shall demand it.

Art. 6. The federal government shall not interfere in matters pertaining peculiarly to the states, save: (1) To repel foreign invasion, or the invasion of one state by another. (2) To maintain the federative republican form of government. (3) To reestablish order and tranquillity in the states at the request of the respective governments. (4) To assure the execution of the laws and federal decrees.

Art. 7. It is the exclusive prerogative of the union to decree: (1) Duties on imports from for-

eign countries. (2) Duties of entry, departure, and stay of vessels; the coasting trade for national articles being free of duties, as well as for foreign merchandise that has already paid an import duty. (3) Stamp duties, save the restrictions imposed by article 9, § 1, No. 1. (4) Postal and federal telegraphic taxes. § 1. The union alone shall have the power: (1) To establish banks of emission. (2) To create and maintain custom-houses. § 2. The taxes decreed by the union shall be uniform for all the states. § 3. The laws of the union and the acts and decisions of its authorities shall be executed throughout the country by federal officials, except that the enforcement of the former may be committed to the governments of the states, with the consent of the said states.

Art. 8. The federal government is forbidden to make distinctions and preferences in favor of the ports of any of the states against those of others.

Art. 9. The states alone are competent to decree taxes: (1) On the exportation of merchandise of their own production. (2) On landed property. (3) On the transmission of property. (4) On industries and professions. § 1. The states also have the exclusive right to decree: (1) Stamp duties on instruments emanating from their respective governments and business of their internal economy. (2) Contributions touching their own telegraph and postal service. § 2. The products of the other states are exempt from imposts in the state whence they are exported. § 3. It is lawful for a state to levy duties on imports of foreign goods only when intended for consumption in its own territory; but it shall, in such case, cover into the federal treasury the amount of duties collected. § 4. The right is reserved to the states of establishing telegraph lines between the different points of their own territory, and between these and those of other states not served by federal lines; but the union may take possession of them when the general welfare shall require.

Art. 10. The several states are prohibited from taxing the federal property or revenue, or anything in the service of the union, and vice versa.

Art. 11. It is forbidden to the states, as well as to the unions: (1) To impose duties on the products of the other states, or of foreign countries, in transit through the territory of any state, or from one state to another, as also in the vehicles, whether by land or water, by which they are transported. (2) To establish, aid, or embarrass the exercise of religious worship. (3) To enact *ex post facto* laws.

Art. 12. In addition to the sources of revenue set forth in articles 7 and 9, it shall be lawful for the union, as well as for the states, cumulatively or otherwise, to create any others whatsoever which may not be in contravention of the terms of articles 7, 9, and 11, § 1.

Art. 13. The right of the union and of the states to legislate in regard to railways and navigation of internal waters shall be regulated by federal law. [The coastwise trade shall be carried on in national vessels.]

Art. 14. The land and naval forces are permanent national institutions, intended for the defense of the country from foreign attack and the maintenance of the laws of the land. Within the limits of the law, the armed forces are from their nature held to obedience, each rank to its superior, and bound to support all constitutional institutions.

Art. 15. The legislative, executive, and judicial powers are organs of the national sovereignty, harmonious and independent among themselves.

Art. 16. The legislative power is vested in the national Congress, with the sanction of the president of the republic. § 1. The national Congress is composed of two branches: the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. § 2. The elections for senators and for deputies shall be held simultaneously throughout the country. § 3. No person shall be senator and deputy at the same time.

Art. 17. The Congress shall assemble in the federal capital on the 3d day of May of each year, unless some other day shall be fixed by law, without being convoked, and shall continue in session four months from the date of the opening, and may be prorogued, adjourned, or convoked in extraordinary session. § 1. The Congress alone shall have the power to deliberate on the prorogation or extension of its session. § 2. Each legislature shall last for three years. § 3. The governor of any state in which there shall be a vacancy in the representation, including the case of resignation, shall order a new election to be held at once.

Art. 18. The Chamber and the Senate shall hold their sessions apart and in public, unless otherwise resolved by a majority vote, and shall deliberate only when, in each of the chambers, there shall be present an absolute majority of its members. [To each of the chambers shall belong the right to verify and recognize the powers of its members, to choose its own presiding officers, to organize its internal government, to regulate the service of its own police rules, and to choose its own secretaries.]

Art. 19. The deputies and senators can not be held to account for their opinions, expressions, and votes in the discharge of their mandate.

Art. 20. Deputies and senators, from the time of receiving their certificate of election until a new election, can not be arrested or proceeded against criminally without the permission of their respective chambers, except in the case of a flagrant crime, in which bail is inadmissible. In such case, the prosecution being carried to exclusive decision, the prosecuting authority shall send the court records to the respective chamber for its decision on the prosecution of the charge, unless the accused shall prefer immediately judgment.

Art. 21. The members of the two chambers, on taking their seats, shall take a formal obligation, in public session, to perform their duties faithfully.

Art. 22. During the sessions the senators and deputies shall receive an equal pecuniary salary and mileage, which shall be fixed by Congress at the end of each session for the following one.

Art. 23. No member of the Congress, from the time of his election, can make contracts with the executive power or receive from it any paid commission or employment. § 1. Exceptions to this prohibition are: (1) Diplomatic missions. (2) Commissions or military commands. (3) Advancement in rank and legal promotion. § 2. No deputy or senator, however, can accept an appointment for any mission, commission, or command mentioned in Nos. 1 and 2 of the preceding paragraph, without the consent of the chamber to which he belongs, when such acceptance would prevent the exercise of his legislative duties, except in case of war or such as involve the honor or integrity of the nation.

Art. 24. No deputy or senator can be president or form part of a directory of any bank, company, or enterprise which enjoys the favors of the federal government defined in and by law. [Nonobservance of the provisions of the fore-

going article by any deputy or senator shall involve the loss of his seat.]

Art. 25. The legislative commission shall be incompatible with the exercise of any other functions during the sessions.

Art. 26. The conditions for eligibility to the national Congress are: (1) To be in possession of the rights of Brazilian citizenship and to be registered as a voter. (2) For the Chamber, to have been for more than four years a Brazilian citizen; and for the Senate, for more than six years. This provision does not include those citizens referred to in No. 4, article 60.

Art. 27. The Congress shall by special legislation declare the cases of electoral incompetency.

Art. 28. The Chamber of Deputies shall be composed of the representatives of the people, elected by the states and the federal district by direct suffrage, the representation of the minority being guaranteed. § 1. The number of the deputies shall be fixed by law in such a way as not to exceed one for each 70,000 inhabitants, and that there shall not be less than four for each state. § 2. To this end the federal government shall at once order a census to be taken of the population of the republic, which shall be revised every ten years.

Art. 29. To the Chamber belongs the initiative in the adjournment of the legislative sessions and in all legislation in regard to taxation, to the determination of the size of the army and navy, in the discussion of propositions from the executive power, and in the decision to proceed or not in charges against the president of the republic under the terms of article 53, and against the ministers of state in crimes connected with those of the said president.

Art. 30. The Senate shall be composed of citizens eligible under the terms of article 26 and more than thirty-five years of age, to the number of three senators for each state and three for the federal district, chosen in the same manner as the deputies.

Art. 31. The mandate of a senator shall continue for nine years, and one-third of the Senate shall be renewed every three years. [A senator elected in place of another shall exercise his mandate during the remainder of the term of the latter.]

Art. 32. The vice president of the republic shall be the president of the Senate, where he shall vote only in case of tie, and shall be replaced in case of absence or impediment by the vice president of that body.

Art. 33. The Senate alone shall have the power to try and sentence the president of the republic and the other federal officers designated by the constitution, under the conditions and in the manner which it prescribes. § 1. The Senate, when sitting as a tribunal of justice, shall be presided over by the president of the federal supreme court. § 2. It shall not pass sentence of condemnation unless two-thirds of its members be present. § 3. It shall not impose other penalties than the loss of office and prohibition from holding any other, without prejudice to the action of ordinary justice against the condemned.

Art. 34. The national Congress shall have exclusive power: (1) To estimate the revenue, and fix the expenditures of the federal government annually, and take account of the receipts and expenditures of each financial budget. (2) To authorize the executive to contract loans and make other operations of credit. (3) To legislate in regard to the public debt and furnish means for its payment. (4) To control the collection and dis-

position of the national revenue. (5) To regulate international commerce, as well as that of the states with each other and with the federal district; to establish and regulate the collection of customs duties in the ports, create or abolish warehouses of deposit. (6) To legislate in regard to navigation of rivers running through more than one state, or through foreign territory. (7) To determine the weight, value, inscription, type, and denomination of the currency. (8) To create banks of emission, legislate in regard to this emission and to tax it. (9) To fix the standard of weights and measures. (10) To determine definitely the boundaries of the states between each other, those of the federal district, and those of the national territory with the adjoining nations. (11) To authorize the government to declare war, if there be no recourse to arbitration or in case of failure of this, and to make peace. (12) To decide definitively in regard to treaties and conventions with foreign nations. (13) To remove the capital of the union. (14) To extend aid to the states in the case referred to in article 5. (15) To legislate in regard to federal postal and telegraph service. (16) To adopt the necessary measures for the protection of the frontiers. (17) To fix every year the number of the land and naval forces. (18) To make laws for the organization of the army and navy. (19) To grant or refuse to foreign forces passage through the territory of the country to carry on military operations. (20) To mobilize and make use of the national guard or local militia in the cases designated by the constitution. (21) To declare a state of siege at one or more points in the national territory, in the emergency of an attack by foreign forces, or internal disturbance, and to approve or suspend the state of siege proclaimed by the executive power or its responsible agents in the absence of the Congress. (22) To regulate the conditions and methods of elections for federal offices throughout the country. (23) To legislate upon the civil, criminal, and commercial laws and legal procedures of the federal judiciary. (24) To establish uniform naturalization laws. (25) To create and abolish federal public offices, to fix the duties of the same, and designate their salaries. (26) To organize the federal judiciary according to the terms of article 55 and the succeeding section 3. (27) To grant amnesty. (28) To commute and pardon penalties imposed upon federal officers for offenses arising from their responsibility. (29) To make laws regarding government lands and mines. (30) To legislate in regard to the municipal organization of the federal district, as well as to the police, the superior instruction and other services which in the capital may be reserved for the government of the union. (31) To govern by special legislation those points of the territory of the republic needed for the establishment of arsenals, other establishments or institutions for federal uses. (32) To settle cases of extradition between the states. (33) To enact such laws and resolutions as may be necessary for the exercise of the powers belonging to the union. (34) To enact the organic laws necessary for the complete execution of the requirements of the constitution. (35) To prorogue and adjourn its own sessions.

Art. 35. It shall belong likewise to the Congress, but not exclusively: (1) To watch over the constitution and the laws, and provide for necessities of a federal character. (2) To promote in the country the development of literature, the arts, and sciences, together with immigration, agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, without privileges such as would obstruct the action of the local

governments. (3) To create institutions of higher instruction and of high school education in the states. (4) To provide for high school instruction in the federal district.

Art. 36. Save the exceptions named in article 27, all bills may originate, indifferently, in the Chamber or in the Senate, and may be introduced by any of their members.

Art. 37. A bill, after being passed in one of the chambers, shall be submitted to the other, and, if the latter shall approve the same, it shall send it to the executive, who, if he approve it, shall sanction and promulgate it. § 1. If, however, the president of the republic shall consider it unconstitutional, or contrary to the good of the nation, he shall refuse his sanction to the same within ten working days, counted from that on which he received it (the bill), and shall return it, within the same period, to the chamber in which it originated, with his reasons for his refusal. § 2. The failure of the executive to signify his disapproval within the above-named ten days shall be considered as an approval, and in case his sanction be refused after the close of the session of the Congress, the president shall make public his reasons therefor. § 3. The bill sent back to the chamber where it originated shall be discussed and voted upon by call of names, and shall be considered as passed if it obtain two-thirds of the votes of the members present; and, in this case, it shall be sent to the other chamber, whence, if it receive the same majority, it shall return, as a law, to the executive to be formally promulgated. § 4. The sanction and promulgation shall be effected in the following forms: (1) "The national Congress enacts and I sanction the following law (or resolution)." (2) "The national Congress enacts and I promulgate the following law (or resolution)."

Art. 38. If the law be not promulgated by the president of the republic within forty-eight hours, in the cases provided for in §§ 2 and 3 of the preceding article, the president of the Senate, or the vice president, if the former shall not do so in the same space of time, shall promulgate it, making use of the following formula: "I, president (or vice president) of the Senate, make known to whomsoever these presents may come, that the national Congress enacts and promulgates the following law (or resolution)."

Art. 39. A bill from one chamber, amended in the other, shall return to the former, which, if it accept the amendments, shall send it, changed to conform with the same, to the executive. § 1. In the contrary case, it shall go back to the amending chamber, where the alterations shall be considered as approved, if they receive the vote of two-thirds of the members present; in the latter case, the bill shall return to the chamber where it originated, and there the amendments can be rejected only by a two-thirds vote. § 2. If the alterations be rejected by such vote, the bill shall be submitted without them to the approval of the executive.

Art. 40. Bills finally rejected or not approved, shall not be presented again in the same legislative session.

Art. 41. The executive power shall be exercised by the president of the United States of Brazil, as elective chief of the nation. § 1. The vice president, elected simultaneously with the president, shall serve in place of the latter in case of impediment and succeed him in case of vacancy in the presidency. § 2. In case of impediment or vacancy in the vice presidency, the following officers, in the order named, shall be called to the presidency: The vice president of

the Senate, the president of the Chamber of Deputies, the president of the federal supreme court. § 3. The following are the conditions of eligibility to the presidency or vice presidency of the Republic: (1) Must be a native of Brazil. (2) Must be in the exercise of political rights. (3) Must be more than thirty-five years of age.—See also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: South American republics.

Art. 42. In case of vacancy from any cause in the presidency or vice presidency before the expiration of the first two years of the presidential term, a new election shall be held.

Art. 43. The president shall hold his office during four years, and is not eligible for reelection for the next succeeding term. § 1. The vice president who shall fill the presidency during the last year of the presidential term shall not be eligible to the presidency for the next term of that office. § 2. On the same day on which his presidential term shall cease the president shall, without fail, cease to exercise the functions of his office, and the newly elected president shall at once succeed him. § 3. If the latter should be hindered or should fail to do so, the succession shall be effected in accordance with §§ 1 and 2 of article 41. § 4. The first presidential term shall expire on November 15, 1894.

Art. 44. On taking possession of his office, the president, in a session of the Congress, or, if it be not assembled, before the federal supreme court, shall pronounce the following affirmation: "I promise to maintain the federal Constitution and comply with its provisions with perfect loyalty, to promote the general welfare of the Republic, to observe its laws, and support the union, integrity, and independence of the nation."

Art. 45. The president and vice president shall not leave the national territory without the permission of the Congress, under penalty of loss of office.

Art. 46. The president and vice president shall receive the salary fixed by the Congress in the preceding presidential term.

Art. 47. The president and vice president shall be chosen by direct suffrage of the nation and an absolute majority of the votes. § 1. The election shall take place on the first day of March in the last year of the presidential term, and the counting of the votes cast at the different precincts shall at once be made in the respective capitals of the states and in the federal capital. The Congress shall make the count at its first session of the same year, with any number of members present. § 2. If none of those voted for shall have received an absolute majority, the Congress shall elect, by a majority of votes of those present, one of the two who, in the direct election, shall have received the highest number of votes. In case of a tie the older shall be considered elected. § 3. The manner of the election and of the counting of the votes shall be regulated by ordinary legislation. § 4. The relatives, both by consanguinity and by marriage, in the first and second degrees, of the president and vice president shall be ineligible for the offices of president and vice president, provided the said officials are in office at the time of the election or have left the office even six months before.

Art. 48. To the president of the republic shall belong the exclusive right to—(1) Sanction, promulgate, and make public the laws and resolutions of the Congress; issue decrees, instructions, and regulations for their faithful execution. (2) Choose and dismiss at will the cabinet officers. (3) Exercise or appoint some one to exercise supreme com-

mand over the land and naval forces of the United States of Brazil, as well as over the local police, when called to arms for the internal or external defense of the union. (4) Govern and distribute, under the laws of the Congress, according to the necessities of the national government, the land and naval forces. (5) Dispose of the offices, both military and civil, of a federal character, with the exceptions specified in the constitution. (6) Pardon crimes and commute penalties for offenses subject to federal jurisdiction, save in the cases mentioned in article 34, No. 28, and article 52, § 2. (7) Declare war and make peace, under the provisions of article 34, No. 11. (8) Declare war at once in case of foreign invasion or aggression. (9) Give an annual statement to the national Congress of the condition of the country, with a recommendation of pressing provisions and reforms, through a message, which he shall send to the secretary of the Senate on the day of the opening of the legislative session. (10) Convoke the Congress in extra session. (11) Appoint the federal judges when proposed by the supreme court. (12) Appoint the members of the federal supreme court and ministers of the diplomatic corps, with the approval of the senate; and, in the absence of the Congress, appoint them in commission until considered by the senate. (13) Appoint the other members of the diplomatic corps and consular agents. (14) Maintain relations with foreign states. (15) Declare, directly, or through his responsible agents, a state of siege at any point of the national territory, in case of foreign aggression or serious internal disturbance. (Article 6, No. 3; article 34, No. 21; and article 80.) (16) Set on foot international negotiations, celebrate agreements, conventions, and treaties, always ad referendum to the Congress, and approve those made by the states in conformity with article 65, submitting them when necessary to the authority of the Congress.

Art. 49. The president of the republic shall be assisted by the ministers of state (cabinet officers), agents of his confidence, who sign the acts and preside over their respective departments into which the federal administration is divided.

Art. 50. The cabinet ministers shall not exercise any other employment or function of a public nature, be eligible to the presidency or vice presidency of the union, or be elected deputy or senator. [Any deputy or senator, who shall accept the position of cabinet minister, shall lose his seat in the respective chamber, and a new election shall at once be held, in which he shall not be voted for.]

Art. 51. The cabinet ministers shall not appear at the sessions of the Congress, and shall communicate with that body in writing only or by personal conference with the committees of the chambers. The annual report of the ministers shall be addressed to the president of the republic, and distributed to all the members of the Congress.

Art. 52. The cabinet ministers shall not be responsible to the Congress or to the courts for advice given to the president of the republic. § 1. They shall be responsible, nevertheless, with respect to their acts, for crimes defined in the law. § 2. For common crimes and those for which they are responsible they shall be prosecuted and tried by the federal supreme court, and for those committed jointly with the president of the republic, by the authority competent to judge this latter.

Art. 53. The president of the United States of Brazil shall be brought to trial and judgment, after the Chamber of Deputies shall have decided

that he should be tried on the charges made against him, in the federal supreme court, in the case of common crimes, and in those of responsibility, in the Senate. [As soon as it shall be decided to try him on the charges brought, the president shall be suspended in the exercise of the duties of his office.]

Art. 54. Crimes of responsibility on the part of the president of the republic are such as are directed against—(1) The political existence of the union. (2) The constitution and the form of the federal government. (3) The free exercise of the political powers. (4) The legal enjoyment and exercise of political or individual rights. (5) The internal security of the country. (6) The purity of the administration. (7) The constitutional keeping and use of the public funds. (8) The financial legislation enacted by the Congress. § 1. These offenses shall be defined in a special law. § 2. Another law shall provide for the charges, the trial, and the judgment. § 3. Both these laws shall be enacted in the first session of the first Congress.

Art. 55. The judicial power of the union shall be lodged in a federal supreme court, sitting in the capital of the republic, and as many inferior federal courts and tribunals, distributed through the country, as the Congress shall create.

Art. 56. The federal supreme court shall be composed of fifteen justices, appointed under the provisions of article 48, No. 12, from among the oldest thirty citizens of well-known knowledge and reputation who may be eligible to the Senate.

Art. 57. The federal justices shall hold office for life, being removable solely by judicial sentence. § 1. Their salaries shall be fixed by law of the Congress, and can not be diminished. § 2. The Senate shall try the members of the federal supreme court for crimes of responsibility, and this latter the lower federal judges.

Art. 58. The federal courts shall choose their presidents from among their own members, and shall organize their respective clerical corps. § 1. In these corps the appointment and dismissal of the respective clerks, as well as the filling of the judicial offices in the respective judicial districts, shall belong to the presidents of the respective courts. § 2. The president of the republic shall appoint from among the members of the federal supreme court the attorney-general of the republic, whose duties shall be defined by law.

Art. 59. To the federal supreme court shall belong the duty of—(1) Trying and judging by original and exclusive jurisdiction—(a) The president of the republic for common crimes, and the cabinet ministers in the cases specified in article 52. (b) The ministers of the diplomatic corps for common crimes and those of responsibility. (c) Cases and disputes between the states and the union, or between the states one with another. (d) Disputes and claims between foreign states and the union, or between foreign nations and the states. (e) Conflicts between the federal courts one with another, or between these and those of the states, as well as those between the courts of one state and those of another. (2) Deciding, on appeal, questions pronounced upon by the lower federal courts and tribunals, as well as those mentioned in § 1 of the present article and in article 60. (3) Reviewing the proceedings of finished trials, under the provisions of article 81. § 1. Decisions of state courts in last appeal can be carried to the federal supreme court—(a) When the validity or application of the federal laws or treaties is called in question and the decision of the state court shall be against the same. (b)

When the validity of laws or acts of the governments of the states in respect to the constitution or of the federal laws is contested and the state court shall have decided in favor of the validity of the acts or laws in question. § 2. In the cases which involve the application of the laws of the states, the federal court shall consult the jurisprudence of the local tribunals, and vice versa, the state court shall consider that of the federal tribunals when the interpretation of the laws of the union is involved.

Art. 60. It shall belong to the federal courts to decide—(a) Cases in which the plaintiff or the defendant shall rest the case on some provision of the federal constitution. (b) All suits brought against the government of the union or the national treasury based on constitutional provisions, on the laws and regulations of the executive power, or on contracts made with the said government. (c) Suits arising from compensations, claims, indemnification of damages, or any others whatsoever brought by the government of the union against private individuals, and vice versa. (d) Litigations between a state and the citizens of another, or between citizens of different states having differences in their laws. (e) Suits between foreign states and Brazilian citizens. (f) Actions begun by foreigners, and based either on contracts with the federal government or on conventions or treaties of the union with other nations. (g) Questions of maritime law and navigation, whether on the sea or on the rivers and lakes of the country. (h) Questions of international law, whether criminal or civil. (i) Political crimes. § 1. Congress is forbidden to commit any part of the federal jurisdiction to the state courts. § 2. Sentences and orders of the federal judges will be executed by federal court officers, and the local police shall assist them when called upon by the same.

Art. 61. The decisions of the state courts or tribunals in matters within their competence shall put an end to the suits and questions, except as to (1) habeas corpus, or (2) effects of a foreigner deceased in cases not provided for by convention or treaty. In such cases there shall be voluntary recourse to the federal supreme court.

Art. 62. The state courts shall not have the power to intervene in questions submitted to the federal tribunals, or to annul, alter, or suspend the sentences or orders of these latter; and, reciprocally, the federal judiciary can not interfere in questions submitted to the state courts, or annul, alter, or suspend their decisions or orders, except in the cases provided in this constitution.

Art. 63. Each state shall be governed by the constitution and laws which it shall adopt, respect being observed for the constitutional principles of the union.

Art. 64. The unexplored mines and wild lands lying within the states shall belong to these states respectively; and to the union only as much territory as may be necessary for the defense of the frontiers, for fortifications, military works, and federal railways. [The national properties, not necessary for the service of the union, shall pass to the domain of the states in whose territory they may be situated.]

Art. 65. The states shall have the right to—(1) Conclude agreements and conventions among themselves, if such be not of a political character. (Article 48, No. 16.) (2) Exercise in general any and every power or right not denied expressly by the constitution, or implicitly in its express terms.

Art. 66. It is forbidden to the states to—(1) Refuse to recognize public documents of the union, or of any of the states, of a legislative, administra-

tive, or judicial character. (2) Reject the currency or notes issued by banks, which circulate by act of the federal government. (3) Make or declare war, one with another, or make reprisals. (4) Refuse the extradition of criminals demanded by the justice of other states, or of the federal district, in conformity with the laws of Congress which relate to this subject. (Article 41, No. 32.)

Art. 67. Save the restrictions specified in the constitution, and the federal laws, the federal district shall be governed directly by the municipal authorities. [Expenses of a local character in the capital of the Republic must be provided for exclusively by the municipal authorities.]

Art. 68. The states shall organize themselves in such a manner as to assure the autonomy of the municipalities in everything that concerns their peculiar interests.

Art. 69. The following shall be Brazilian citizens: (1) Natives of Brazil, though of foreign parentage (father), provided he be not in the service of his nation. (2) Sons of a Brazilian father, and illegitimate sons of a Brazilian mother, born in foreign parts, if they take up their residence (domicile) in the republic. (3) Sons of a Brazilian father who may be in another country in the service of the republic, although they do not make their domicile in Brazil. (4) Foreigners, who, being in Brazil November 15, 1880, shall not declare, within six months from the time when the constitution enters into force, their desire to preserve their original nationality. (5) Foreigners who possess property (real estate) in Brazil and are married to Brazilian women, or have Brazilian children, provided they reside in Brazil, unless they shall declare their intention of not changing their nationality. (6) Foreigners naturalized in any other way.

Art. 70. Citizens of more than twenty-one years of age, and registered according to law, shall be electors. § 1. The following shall not be registered as electors for federal or state elections: (1) Beggars. (2) Persons ignorant of the alphabet. (3) Soldiers on pay, except alumni of the military schools of higher instruction. (4) Members of monastic orders, companies, congregations, or communities of whatsoever denomination, who are subject to vows of obedience, rule, or statute, which implies the surrender of individual liberty. § 2. Citizens who can not be registered shall not be eligible.

Art. 71. The rights of the Brazilian citizen can be suspended or lost only in the following cases: § 1. The rights may be suspended—(a) For physical or moral incapacity. (b) For criminal conviction, during the operation of the sentence. § 2. They may be lost—(a) By naturalization in a foreign country. (b) By acceptance of employment or pension from a foreign power, without permission of the federal executive. § 3. The means of reacquiring lost rights of the Brazilian citizen shall be specified by federal law.

Art. 72. The constitution secures to Brazilians and foreigners residing in the country the inviolability of their rights touching individual liberty, and security, and property, in the following terms: § 1. No person shall be forced to do, or leave undone, anything whatever, except by virtue of law. § 2. Before the law all persons are equal. The republic does not recognize privileges of birth, or titles of nobility, and abolishes all existing honorary orders, with all their prerogatives and decorations, as well as all hereditary and conciliar titles. § 3. All persons and religious professions may exercise, publicly and freely, the right of worship, and may associate themselves for that purpose, acquire

property, observance being had to the provisions of the common law. § 4. The republic recognizes only the civil marriage, the celebration of which shall be gratuitous. § 5. The cemeteries shall be secular in character, and be managed by the municipal authorities, being free to all religious sects for the exercise of their respective rites as regards their members, provided they do not offend public morals or the laws. § 6. The instruction given in the public institutions shall be secular. § 7. No sect or church shall receive official aid, nor be dependent on, nor connected with, the government of the union or of the states. § 8. All persons have the right of free association and assembly, without arms; and the police force shall not intervene, except to maintain the public order. § 9. Any person whatsoever shall have the right to address, by petition, the public powers, denounce abuses of the authorities, and appeal to the responsibility of the accused. § 10. In time of peace any person may, without passport, enter or leave the territory of the republic, with his fortune and goods, whenever and however he may choose. § 11. The house is the inviolable asylum of the person; no one can enter it at night without the consent of the inhabitant, except to aid the victims of a crime or disaster; nor by day, unless in the cases and in the form prescribed by law. § 12. The expression of opinion shall be free, in respect to whatever subject, through the press or through the tribune, without subjection to censorship, each one being responsible for the abuses he may commit, in the cases and in the form prescribed by law. Anonymous publications are forbidden. § 13. Cases of flagrante delicto alone excepted, no arrest shall be made, unless after declaration of the charge (save in cases determined by law), and by written order of the competent authorities. § 14. No person shall be kept in prison without charge formally made, save the exceptions mentioned in the law, or taken to prison, or detained there, if he give bail, in cases where such is lawful. § 15. No person shall be condemned, except by competent authority, and in virtue of law already existing and in the form prescribed by it. § 16. The law shall secure to the accused the fullest defense by all the recourses and means essential to the same, including the notice of the charge, delivered to the prisoner within twenty-four hours and signed by the proper authority along with the names of the accusers and witnesses. § 17. The rights of property are maintained in all their plenitude, and no disappropriation shall be made, except from necessity or public utility, and indemnity shall, in such cases, be made beforehand. Mines belong to the owners of the soil, under the limitations to be established by the law to encourage the development of this branch of industry. § 18. Correspondence under seal is inviolable. § 19. No penalty shall extend beyond the person of the delinquent. § 20. The penalty of the galleys is abolished, as also judicial banishment. § 21. The death penalty is abolished, except in the cases under military law in time of war. § 22. The habeas corpus shall always be granted when the individual suffers violence or compulsion, through illegality or abuse of power, or considers himself in imminent danger of the same. § 23. There shall be no privileged tribunal, except in such cases as, from their nature, belong to special courts. § 24. The free exercise of any profession, moral, intellectual, or industrial, is guaranteed. § 25. Industrial inventions belong to their authors, to whom the law will grant a temporary privilege, or to whom the Congress will give a reasonable premium, when it is desirable to

make the invention public property. § 26. To authors of literary and artistic works is guaranteed the exclusive right of reproducing them through the press or by any other mechanical process, and their heirs shall enjoy the same right during the space of time determined by the law. § 27. The law shall also secure the rights of property in trade-marks. § 28. No Brazilian can be deprived of his civil and political rights on account of religious belief or duty, nor be exempted from the performance of any civic duty. § 29. Those who shall claim exemption from any burden imposed by the laws of the Republic on its citizens, on account of religious belief, or who shall accept any foreign decoration or title of nobility, shall lose all their political rights. § 30. No tax of any kind shall be collected except in virtue of a law authorizing the same. § 31. The institution of trial by jury is maintained.

Art. 73. Public offices, civil or military, are accessible to all Brazilian citizens, always observing the conditions of particular capacity fixed by the law; but the accumulation of remunerations is forbidden.

Art. 74. Commissions, offices, and positions not subject to removal are guaranteed in all their plenitude.

Art. 75. Only such public officials as have become infirm in the service of the nation shall be retired on pay.

Art. 76. Officers of the army and navy shall lose their commissions only in case of condemnation to more than two years in prison, pronounced in judgment by the competent tribunals.

Art. 77. There shall be a special court for the trial of military offenses committed by soldiers or marines. § 1. This court shall be composed of a supreme military tribunal, whose members shall hold their seats for life, and of the councils necessary for the formulation of the charge and the judgment of the crimes. § 2. The organization and powers of the supreme military tribunal shall be determined by law.

Art. 78. The enumeration of the rights and guaranties expressed in the constitution does not exclude other guaranties and rights, not enumerated, but resulting from the form of government established and principles settled by said constitution.

Art. 79. The citizen vested with the functions of either of these three federal powers shall not exercise those of another.

Art. 80. Any part of the territory of the union may be declared in state of siege, and the constitutional guaranties suspended for a determined period, whenever the security of the republic so demands in case of foreign aggression or intestine disturbance. (Article 34, No. 21.) § 1. The power to execute the above provision may, if the Congress be not in session and the country be in imminent peril, be used by the federal executive. (Article 48, No. 15.) § 2. In the exercise of this power, during the state of siege, the executive shall be restricted to the following measures of repression against persons: (1) To their detention in a place not allotted to persons accused of common crimes. (2) To banishment to other parts of the national territory. § 3. As soon as the Congress shall have assembled, the president of the republic shall make a report to that body of the exceptional measures which may have been taken. § 4. The authorities who shall have ordered such measures shall be responsible for any abuses that may have been committed.

Art. 81. In criminal cases, trials concluded may be reviewed at any time, in favor of the con-

demned parties, by the federal supreme court, for the purpose of correcting or of confirming the sentence. § 1. The law shall determine the cases and the form of such revision, which may be asked for by the condemned, by any one of the people, or by the attorney-general of the republic, ex officio. § 2. In such revision the penalties imposed by the sentence reviewed can not be increased. § 3. The provisions of the present article are applicable to military trials.

Art. 82. Public officers shall be strictly responsible for the abuses and omissions that occur in the exercise of the duties of their offices, as well as for the indulgences and negligences for which they do not hold their subordinates responsible. [They shall all be bound by formal obligation, on taking possession of their offices, to discharge the lawful duties of the same.]

Art. 83. Until revoked, the laws of the ancient régime shall remain in force, in as far as they are not, explicitly or implicitly, contrary to the system of government established by the constitution, and to the principles laid down in the same.

Art. 84. The federal government guaranties the payment of the public debt, both internal and foreign.

Art. 85. The officers of the line and of the annexed classes of the navy shall have the same commissions and advantage as those of the army of corresponding rank.

Art. 86. Every Brazilian shall be bound to military service in defense of the country and the constitution, as provided by the federal laws.

Art. 87. The federal army shall be made up of contingents which the states and the federal district are bound to furnish, constituted in conformity with the annual law regulating the number of the forces. § 1. The general organization of the army shall be determined by a federal law, in accordance with No. 18 of article 34. § 2. The union shall have charge of the military instruction of the troops and of the higher military instruction. § 3. Compulsory recruiting for military purposes is abolished. § 4. The army and navy shall be made up by volunteering without bounties or, if this means be not sufficient, by lot previously determined. The crews for the navy shall be made up from the naval school, the schools of marine apprentices, and the merchant marine, by means of lot.

Art. 88. In no case, either directly or indirectly, alone or in alliance with another nation, shall the United States of Brazil engage in a war of conquest.

Art. 89. A tribunal of accounts shall be instituted for the auditing of the receipt and expense accounts and examining into their legality before their presentation to the Congress. The members of this tribunal shall be appointed by the president of the republic, with the approval of the Senate, and can lose their seats only by sentence.

Art. 90. The constitution may be amended, at the initiative of the national Congress, or of the legislatures of the states. § 1. An amendment shall be considered as proposed, when, having been presented by one-fourth, at least, of the members of either house of the Congress, it shall have been accepted in three readings (discussions) by two-thirds of the votes in both houses of the Congress, or when it shall have been asked for by two-thirds of the states represented, each one by a majority of the votes of its legislature, said votes to be taken in the course of one year. § 2. The proposed amendment shall be considered approved, if, in the following year, after three discussions, it shall have been adopted by a majority of two-thirds of the

votes in the two houses of the Congress. § 3. The amendment adopted shall be published with the signatures of the presidents and clerks of the two chambers, and be incorporated into the constitution as a part of the same. § 4. No project having a tendency to abolish the federative republican form, or the equal representation of the states in the Senate, shall be admitted for consideration in the Congress.

Art. 91. This constitution, after approval, shall be promulgated by the president of the Congress and signed by the members of the same.

Temporary Provisions.

Article 1. After the promulgation of this constitution, the Congress, in joint assembly, shall choose consecutively, by an absolute majority of votes in the first balloting, and, if no candidate shall receive such, by a plurality in the second balloting, the president and vice president of the United States of Brazil. § 1. This election shall be in two distinct ballotings, for the president and vice president respectively, the ballots for president being taken and counted, in the first place, and afterwards for vice president. § 2. The president and vice president, thus elected, shall occupy the presidency and vice presidency of the republic during the first presidential term. § 3. For said election there shall be no incompatibilities admitted. § 4. As soon as said election shall be concluded, the Congress shall consider as terminated its mission in joint session and, separating into Chamber and Senate, shall enter upon the exercise of its functions as defined by law, on June 15, of the present year, and can not in any case be dissolved. § 5. In the first year of the first legislature, among its preparatory measures, the Senate shall designate the first and second third of its members, whose term of office shall cease at the end of the first and second 3-year terms. § 6. The discrimination shall be made in three lists, corresponding to the three classes, allotting to them the senators of each state and of the federal district according to the number of votes received by them respectively, so as to allot to the third for the last three years the one receiving the highest number of votes in the federal district and in each state, and to the other two-thirds the remaining two names in the order of the number of votes received by them respectively. § 7. In case of tie, the oldest shall be preferred, and if the ages are equal, the choice shall be made by lot.

Art. 2. The state which, by the end of the year 1892, shall not have adopted its constitution, shall, by act of the federal legislative power, be placed under that of one of the other states, which it shall judge most suitable, until the state thus subjected to said constitution shall amend it in the manner provided in the same.

Art. 3. As fast as the states shall be organized, the federal government shall deliver to them the administration of the services which belong to them, and shall settle the responsibility of the federal administration in all that relates to said services and to the payment of the respective officials.

Art. 4. While, during the period of organization of their services, the states shall be engaged in regulating their expenses, the federal government shall, for this purpose, open special credits to them, under conditions determined by the Congress.

Art. 5. In the states which shall become organized the classification of the revenues established in the constitution shall enter into force.

Art. 6. In the first appointments for the federal

magistracy and for that of the states, the preference shall be given to the justices and magistrates of the higher courts of the greatest note. Such as are not admitted into the new organization of the judiciary, and have served thirty years, shall be retired on full pay. Those who have served for less than thirty years shall continue to receive their salaries until they shall be employed, or retired with pay corresponding to their length of service. The payment of salaries of magistrates retired or set aside shall be made by the federal government.

Art. 7. To D. Pedro de Alcantara, ex-emperor of Brazil, a pension is granted, to run from November 15, 1889, sufficient to guaranty him a decent subsistence during his lifetime. The Congress, at its first session, shall fix the amount of said pension.

Art. 8. The federal government shall acquire for the nation the house in which Dr. Benjamin Constant Botelho de Magalhães died, and shall have placed on it a memorial slab in memory of that great patriot, the founder of the Republic.—The widow of the said Dr. Benjamin Constant shall have, during her lifetime, the usufruct of the said house. We order, then, all the authorities to whom the recognition and execution of this constitution belongs, to execute it and have it executed and observed faithfully and fully in all its provisions. Let the same be published and observed throughout the territory of the nation. Hall of the sessions of the National Constitutional Congress, in the city of Rio de Janeiro, in the year 1891, and the third of the republic. See BRAZIL: 1889-1891.

BRAZILIAN COFFEE CASE.—“In this suit, which was begun in 1912 in the District Court for the Southern District of New York as *United States v. Herman Sielcken*, but which was afterwards discontinued, the chief point at issue was the power of the Government of the United States to proceed against the property of a foreign state, warehoused in New York, on the ground of violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. The facts were as follows: More than three-fourths of the world's coffee is raised in Brazil, the greater part of it in the state of São Paulo. In 1906 there was an abnormal crop, almost equal to the production of the two preceding years put together, with the result that the coffee market was demoralized and the planters threatened with bankruptcy. To remedy conditions, the Government of São Paulo formed the so-called ‘valorization scheme,’ whereby the state was to take over such part of the surplus coffee as could not otherwise be marketed to advantage, withhold it from the market for the time being, and regulate its sale later. The plan further provided for the limitation of the acreage under coffee cultivation, for the fixation of a minimum price in Brazilian markets, for the checking of exportation of inferior coffee, and for the raising of loans on the security of the coffee purchased. After some temporary financial operations, São Paulo in 1908 borrowed £15,000,000 from London and Paris bankers ‘to liquidate the operations effected for the valorization of coffee.’ This loan was guaranteed by the federal government of Brazil and was secured by the coffee still unsold and by an export tax on coffee of five francs. The agreement with the bankers called for the sale of this coffee within ten years, under the control of a committee of seven, meeting in London, one of whom was a representative of the Government of São Paulo with power to veto all decisions of the committee. Approximately 7,000,000 bags of coffee were delivered to the committee, about a

fourth of which was assigned for sale in the United States. All sales were to be made in the name of the Government of São Paulo, which was under obligation to sell a minimum amount every year, and more if market conditions warranted. On an examination into the facts, the Department of Justice of the United States considered that the operations of the committee were in restraint of trade and suit was entered against the defendant, Herman Sielcken, as the representative of the committee in the United States. As a preliminary step, the Attorney-General sought, under the Sherman Act, to seize 950,000 bags of coffee, stored in New York and controlled by the committee, and to hold this coffee pending the result of the suit, but the temporary injunction was refused. In its petition, the government argued that the facts pleaded constituted a violation of the Anti-Trust Act. Acts and agreements unlawful under statutes of the United States could not become lawful because they were 'not unlawful in Brazil and were participated in by a foreign state.' Though courts would not, in general, exercise jurisdiction over the person or property of a foreign sovereign, such jurisdiction would be assumed if 'the foreign state engages in a business transaction, as its rights then are not superior to those of an individual citizen.' . . . While the case was pending, the government found the scope of the Sherman Act too narrow to admit of a successful prosecution of the suit. However, on the understanding that meanwhile the coffee remain unsold, negotiations were opened with Brazil with the result that by agreement the 'valorized' coffee was put on the market, on condition that the proceedings instituted by the Government of the United States be discontinued."—E. C. Stowell and H. F. Munro, *International cases*, pp. 159-162.

BRAZOS RESERVATION.—Troubles in Texas with Mexicans (1859). See TEXAS: 1850-1861; Troubles with Indians and Mexicans.

BRAZZA, largest of Dalmatian islands in the Adriatic. Promised to territories of Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, by Treaty of London, 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

BREACH OF PROMISE: First action. See COMMON LAW: 1689.

BREAD AND CHEESE WAR. See NETHERLANDS: 1482-1493.

BREAD RIOTS, England (1795). See ENGLAND: 1797.

South Italy (1898). See ITALY: 1898.

BREASTED, James Henry (1865-), American historian and egyptologist. See HISTORY: 33.

BRECKENRIDGE, John (1760-1806), American statesman. See U. S. A.: 1708.

BRECKINRIDGE, John Cabell (1821-1875), American statesman. Major in the Mexican war; vice-president of the United States, 1857-1861; elected to the Senate in 1861. Joined the Confederate army and became a major-general in the Civil War. Secretary of war in the Confederacy.—See also U. S. A.: 1860 (April-November); 1864 (May-June; Virginia): Campaigning in the Shenandoah valley.

BREDA, town of the Netherlands in province of North Brabant.

1575.—Spanish-Dutch Congress. See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

1590.—Capture by Prince Maurice of Nassau-Orange. See NETHERLANDS: 1588-1593.

1624-1625.—Siege and capture by the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1625-1647.

BREDA, Declaration of. See ENGLAND: 1658-1660.

BREDA, Treaty of (1666). See NETHERLANDS: 1665-1666.

BREDERODE, Hendrik, Count Van (1531-1568), leader of Calvinists in Netherlands. See NETHERLANDS: 1566.

BREECHES BIBLE, or Geneva Bible. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 16th-18th centuries.

BREED BILL, California. See CALIFORNIA: 1917.

BREED'S HILL (Bunker Hill), Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1775 (June).

BREHON LAWS: General character of ancient Irish law.—"The portion of the Irish tribe system which has attracted most attention is the mode in which the judicial authority was withdrawn from the chief and appropriated by the hereditary caste of the Brehons, and also the supposed anomalous principles which they applied to the decision of the cases which came before them. The earlier English writers found no terms too strong to express their abhorrence and contempt of these native judges, and their contempt for the principles upon which they proceeded. On the other hand, Irish writers attributed to these professional arbitrators advanced principles of equity wholly foreign to an early community. . . . The translation of the existing vast mass of Brehon law books, and the translation [publication?] of the most important of them by the order of the government, have disposed of the arguments and assertions on both sides. It is now admitted, that the system and principles of the Brehon jurisprudence present no characteristics of any special character, although in them primitive ideas of law were elaborated in a manner not found elsewhere; . . . the laws which existed among the native Irish were in substance those which are found to have prevailed among other Aryan tribes in a similar stage of social progress; as the social development of the nation was prematurely arrested, so also were the legal ideas of the same stage of existence retained after they had disappeared in all other nations of Europe. This legal survival continued for centuries the property of an hereditary caste, who had acquired the knowledge of writing, and some tincture of scholastic philosophy and civil law. . . . The learning of the Brehons consisted (1) in an acquaintance with the minute ceremonies, intelligible now only to an archaeologist, and not always to him, by which the action could be instituted, and without which no Brehon could assume the role of arbitrator; and (2) in a knowledge of the traditions, customs and precedents of the tribe, in accordance with which the dispute should be decided."—A. G. Richey, *Short history of the Irish people*, ch. 3.

Derivation.—**Senchus Mor.**—The ancient Irish customary law was most probably for centuries before Christ greatly influenced by Greek thought, and a great deal of Plato's imaginary Republic might be read to advantage by the side of a study of Irish institutions. There is, I believe, a persistent tradition of Mediterranean origin, that certain tribes crossed Europe to Ireland from Mycenæ, a tradition which it is not safe wholly to ignore. And there are a good many points of likeness between the Greek and the Irish. Though there is every reason to believe that the origin of the writing of Irish customary law as it is finally found in the *Senchus Mor* is correct, that Patrick did correct the local customs by his Theodosian law, and that his scribes did make an abstract of some of the customs, there is no reason whatever to suppose that the whole was at once written down, or that the now existing MSS. represent the state of the law in Patrick's day.

There are frequent references in the oldest text of the *Senchus Mór* to previous declarations of the law. All such writing down of early laws deals only either with procedure, the means of execution of the law and the remedies, the proceedings in distress, or with status, with the question of the capacity to sue. The Irish law continued to expand with the needs of a changing society, the commentaries on the text showing its direction, and it continued to do so with an equitable practice far in advance of the English common law, until, being incompatible with the advantages to the Crown to be gained by the enforcement of the feudal doctrines, it was crushed out and abolished by the Jacobean lawyers, who imagined, as so many English and Scots then and since have imagined, that ideas of law and morals must be evil and unsocial which would not square with the decayed feudalism which culminated in the doctrine of the divine right of kings."—J. W. Jeudwine, *Manufacture of historical material*, p. 50.

Description of the laws.—"In Ireland a judge was called a Brehon, whence the native Irish law is commonly known as the 'Brehon Law': but its proper designation is *Fenechas*, i. e., the law of the *Féine* or *Féne*, or free land-tillers. The brehons had absolutely in their hands the interpretation of the laws and the application of them to individual cases. . . . The legal rules, as set forth in the Law Books, were commonly very complicated and mixed up with a variety of technical terms; and many forms had to be gone through and many circumstances taken into account, all legally essential: so that no outsider could hope to master their intricacies. The brehon had to be very careful; for he was himself liable for damages, besides forfeiting his fee, if he delivered a false or an unjust judgment. . . . The brehons had collections of laws in volumes or tracts, all in the Irish language, by which they regulated their judgments, and which those of them who kept law-schools expounded to their scholars; each tract treating of one subject or group of subjects. Many of these have been preserved, and of late years the most important have been published, with translations, forming five printed volumes (with a sixth consisting of a valuable Glossary to the preceding five). Of the tracts contained in these volumes, the two largest and most important are the *Senchus Mór* [*Shanahus Mór*] and the *Book of Acaill* [*Ackill*]. In the ancient Introduction to the *Senchus Mór* the following account is given of its original compilation. In the year 438 A. D. a collection of the pagan laws was made at the request of St. Patrick; and *Laegaire* [*Laery*], king of Ireland, appointed a committee of nine learned and eminent persons, including himself and St. Patrick, to revise them. At the end of three years these nine produced a new code, from which everything that clashed with the Christian doctrine had been carefully excluded. This was the *Senchus Mór*. . . .

"The Brehon Code forms a great body of civil, military, and criminal law. It regulates the various ranks of society, from the king down to the slave, and enumerates their several rights and privileges. There are minute rules for the management of property, for the several industries—building, brewing, mills, water-courses, fishing-weirs, bees and honey—for distress or seizure of goods, for tithes, trespass, and evidence. The relations of landlord and tenant, the fees of professional men—doctors, judges, teachers, builders, artificers,—the mutual duties of father and son, of foster-parents and foster-children, of master

and servant, are all carefully regulated. In that portion corresponding to what is now known as criminal law, the various offences are minutely distinguished:—murder, manslaughter, assaults, wounding, thefts, and all sorts of wilful damage; and accidental injuries from flails, sledge-hammers, machines, and weapons of all kinds; and the amount of compensation is laid down in detail for almost every possible variety of injury. . . . The lay people were divided into classes, from the king down to the slave, and the Brehon Law took cognizance of all—setting forth their rights, duties and privileges. The leading, though not the sole, qualification to confer rank was property; the rank being, roughly speaking, in proportion to the amount. Under certain conditions, persons could pass from one class to the next above, always provided their character was unimpeachable. There were five main classes of people:—1. Kings of several grades, from the king of the *tuath* or cantred up to the king of Ireland; 2. Nobles, which class indeed included kings; 3. Non-noble Freemen with property; 4. Non-noble Freemen without property, or with some, but not sufficient to place them among the class next above; 5. The non-free classes. The first three—Kings, Nobles, non-noble Freemen with property—were the privileged classes; a person belonging to these was an *Aire* [*arra*] or chief. . . . All three had some part in the government of the country and in the administration of the law, as kings, tanists, nobles, military chiefs, magistrates, and persons otherwise in authority. . . . The non-free people were those who had not the full rights of the free people of the tribe. They had no claim to any part of the tribe-land, though they were permitted, under strict conditions, to till little plots for mere subsistence. This was by far the most serious of their disabilities. Their standing varied, some being absolute slaves, some little removed from slavery, and others far above it. . . . The people were formed into groups of various sizes, from the family upwards. The Family was the group consisting of the living parents and all their descendants. The Sept was a larger group, descended from common parents long since dead: but this is an imported word, brought into use in comparatively late times. All the members of a sept were nearly related, and in later times bore the same surname. The Clan or House was still larger. *Clann* means 'children,' and the word therefore implied descent from one ancestor. The word *finè* [*finna*] usually meant a group of persons related by blood within certain degrees of consanguinity, all residing in the same neighbourhood; but it was often applied in a much wider sense. The Tribe (*tuath*) was made up of several septs, clans, or houses, and usually claimed, like the subordinate groups, to be descended from a common ancestor. . . .

"It would appear that originally—in prehistoric times—the land was all common property, belonging to the tribe, not to individuals, and chief and people were liable to be called on to give up their portions for a new distribution. But as time went on, this custom was gradually broken in upon; and the lands held by some, after long possession, came to be looked upon as private property. As far back as our records go, there was some private ownership in land. . . . It should be observed that the individuals and families who owned land as private property were comparatively few, and their possessions were not extensive. . . . Every tribesman had to pay to his chief certain subsidies according to his means. . . . Every tenant and every tradesman had to give his chief a

yearly or half-yearly tribute, chiefly goods—supplies—cows, pigs, corn, bacon, butter, honey, malt for making ale, &c.—the amount chiefly depending on the quantity of land he held and on the amount of stock he hired. . . .

"In very early times, beyond the reach of history, the Law of Retaliation prevailed, as in most other countries—an eye for an eye, a tooth for a tooth—in other words, every man or every family that was injured might take direct revenge on the offender. But this being found inconsistent with the peace and well-being of the community—especially in cases of homicide, which were frequent enough in those days—gradually gave place to the Law of Compensation, which applied to every form of injury. In Ireland the process was this:—The injured party sued the offender in proper form, and, if the latter responded, the case was referred to the local brehon, who decided according to law. The penalty always took the form of a fine to be paid by the offender to the person or family injured, and the brehon's fee was usually paid out of this fine. . . . The principle of compensation for murder and for unintentional homicide existed among the Anglo-Saxons, as well as among the ancient Greeks, Franks, and Germans. In the laws of the English king Athelstan, there is laid down a detailed scale of prices to be paid in compensation for killing persons of various ranks of society, from an archbishop or duke down to a churl or farmer; and traces of the custom remained in English law till the early part of the last century. There was no such thing as a sentence of death passed by a brehon in a court of law, no matter what the crime was: it was always compensation; and the brehon's business was to determine the amount. Capital punishment was known well enough, however, and practised, outside the courts of law. . . . Courts for the trial of legal cases, as well as meetings of representative people to settle local affairs, were often held in the open air—sometimes on green little hills, and sometimes in buildings. . . . With regard to evidence, various rules were in force, which may be gathered from detached passages in the laws and general literature. In order to prove home a matter of fact in a court of justice, at least two witnesses were required. . . . The Irish delighted in judgments delivered in the form of a sententious maxim, or an apt illustration—some illustration bearing a striking resemblance to the case in question. The jurist who decided a case by the aid of such a parallel was recognised as gifted with great judicial wisdom, and his judgment often passed into a proverb."—P. W. Joyce, *Smaller social history of ancient Ireland*, pp. 71-87.

ALSO IN: Sir H. Maine, *Early history of institutions*, lecture 2.—L. Ginnell, *Brehon laws*.

BREISACH, town in Baden, Germany, on the Rhine.

1638.—Besieged by French. See GERMANY: 1634-1639.

1648.—Ceded to France at treaty of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1648: Treaty of Westphalia.

BREITENFELD, Battle of (1631). See GERMANY: 1631.

Second battle of (1642). See GERMANY: 1640-1645.

BREMEN, a state in the northwestern part of Germany about ninety-nine square miles, called, since 1815, the *Freie Hansestadt* (free city) Bremen. There are eighteen communes, including the city of Bremen, situated on both sides of Weser and surrounded by Hanover and the grand duchy of Oldenburg. In 1866 Bremen entered the North

German Confederation and in 1888 the German customs union. Bremen is a free state and, according to the constitution adopted in 1919, the supreme power is vested in the House of Burgesses (*Bürgerschaft*), consisting of 200 members, elected by all the citizens of the state. The House of Burgesses, in turn, elects a senate of eighteen members to act as the executive body. Two men of the Senate are elected as presiding officers. The capital and most important center is the city of Bremen. Due to its harbor and railway connections it has grown to be one of the greatest ports of the world. In Germany it ranks next only to Hamburg. Bremen carries on an extensive commerce with European countries, the United States, West Indies, Africa, East Indies, China and Australia. It imports many raw materials, among them being coffee, tobacco, rice, sugar, cotton, hemp; exporting large quantities of woolen goods, glass, hemp, hides and wooden toys. The city is divided into the old and new town, the latter having broad and well-laid streets lined with tall, handsome buildings. There are public schools and trade schools maintained by the city.

13th-15th centuries.—In the Hanseatic league. See HANSA TOWNS.

1648.—Cadet to Sweden.—Extent of territory. See GERMANY: 1648: Peace of Westphalia; and Map: At peace of Westphalia.

1801-1803.—One of six free cities which survived the peace of Lunéville. See GERMANY: 1801-1803; CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1806.—Retains imperial freedom. See GERMANY: 1805-1806.

1810.—Annexed to France. See FRANCE: 1810 (February-December).

1813.—Re-assembly of free town republic. See GERMANY: 1813 (October-December).

1815.—Once more a free city and a member of the Germanic confederation. See VIENNA, CONGRESS OF; CITIES, IMPERIAL AND FREE, OF GERMANY.

1888.—Surrender of free privileges.—Absorption in the zollverein and empire. See GERMANY: 1888.

BREMER, Fredrika (1801-1865), Swedish novelist and early advocate of suffrage for women in Sweden. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN; SWEDEN; SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1813-1877.

BREMI, an ancient fortress in the province of Milan.

1635-1638.—Taken by the French.—Recovered by the Spaniards. See ITALY: 1635-1650.

BREMULE, Battle of (1119). See ENGLAND: 1087-1135.

BRENNER PASS, one of the principal historical mountain passes of the central Tyrolean Alps, connecting Austria and Italy. "In this division [the Eastern Alps] of the great Alpine chain, the *Brenner Pass* (4495 ft.) occupies a position of far greater importance than does any single pass in either the Western or the Central Alps. . . . The history of the Brenner Pass is almost co-extensive with that of the Eastern Alps, or of the relations between Germany and Italy, whether they be looked at from a political, a commercial, or military point of view. By far the lowest of all the Alpine passes across the main chain of the Alps, reached on either side by straight-drawn valleys leading up to a single ridge, it forms a natural highway over the Alps. Its authentic recorded history starts with the passage (B. C. 15) of Drusus, the stepson of Augustus, on his way to conquer the northern Barbarians, and among them the tribe of Breones, or Breuni, which gave

its name forever to the pass, and had its name embalmed in the verses of Horace. Later on the Brenner became a great route by means of which the Romans pursued and attained many military and commercial successes. Most probably it was the pass over which the Barbarians poured in the fifth century towards the fertile plains of Italy, and . . . the route per 'Alpes Noricas' . . . was expressly mentioned by Charles the Great when elaborating in 806 his scheme for the division of his Empire among his sons. Still later it was over the Brenner Pass that the vast majority of the Emperors went on their way to or from Rome, so that on at least one-half of these expeditions (dating from the ninth to the fifteenth centuries) the route selected was that over our pass. Gradually as minor feudal lords gave way to the dynasty of the Counts of the Tyrol, the Brenner became more and more a specifically Tyrolese pass, especially when in 1363 the county of the Tyrol passed into the hands of the powerful family of the Hapsburgers. Being thus held by a single dynasty, capable of pushing its interests, this great highway, though it lost in a way its character as a route open to all nations, yet prospered because of the attention that its new owners devoted to improving the means of communication across it. . . . But it was not till much later, in 1772, that a modern carriage road was constructed across the pass. Naturally, after the Hapsburgers secured (1803, finally 1814) the territories of the Bishops of Trent and Brixen, still more attention was paid to our pass, which now became a most important means of communication between Austria proper and the Milanese and the Veneto, held from 1815 onwards by the sovereigns of Austria. Yet when this political convenience had ceased to be of practical interest (the Milanese and the W. Veneto were lost to Austria in 1859, and the E. Veneto in 1866), the commercial advantages of the pass were such that, between 1864 and 1867, a railway was constructed across it, this being the first line carried over the Alps, while the carriage road of 1772 had also been the first of its kind.—W. A. B. Coolidge, *Alps in nature and history*, pp. 187-188, 189.—The railway has continued to be of importance in the commercial relations of Italy with Austria and Germany. By the treaties after the World War the Brenner Pass was made part of the boundary line between Austria and Italy.—See also ADRIATIC QUESTION: Problems of Italy's new frontiers; ALPS: As barriers.

BRENNUS, the name or perhaps, as some historians think, the title of two chiefs of the Celtic Gauls. Brennus defeated the Romans at Allia and conquered Rome about 390 B. C. After receiving a ransom of gold for the capitol, he returned home. Another Gallic leader of the same name forced his way through Macedonia in 279 B. C. and invaded Greece to Delphi, where, after a repulse, he died by his own hand. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 390-347.

BRENTA, river in Italy, flowing from the Alps to the gulf of Venice. In 1017, its valley formed one route of the invading Austro-Germans. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b, 1; c, 3; e, 4.

BRENTFORD, Battle of (1016).—Fought and won by Edmund Ironsides in his contest with Cnut, or Canute, for the English throne.

BRESCIA, a city and episcopal see of Lombardy, Italy; capital of the province of Brescia. It contains many interesting medieval and Renaissance buildings and was the seat of a school of painting, born of the Venetian school, and

memorable as having produced the great Moretto (Alessandro Bonvicino), 1498-1555.

1158.—Subdued by Frederick Barbarossa. See **GERMANY**: 1138-1197.

1310.—Siege of. See **GERMANY**: 1308-1313.

1402.—Added to Venice. See **VENICE**: 1406-1447.

1512.—Capture and pillage by the French. See **ITALY**: 1510-1513.

1849.—Bombardment, capture and brutal treatment by the Austrian Haynau. See **ITALY**: 1848-1849.

BRESLAU, one of the chief commercial ports of Germany, capital of the Prussian province of Silesia and situated southwest of Berlin on the Oder river. (See **GERMANY**: Map.) Its estimated population in 1919 was 528,260. Originally a Polish city, it was purchased by John, king of Bohemia, in 1335. The city fell under Austrian suzerainty in 1527; was captured by Frederick the Great in 1741; taken by the Austrians in 1757, and suffered severely from a siege by the French in 1807.—See also **HUNGARY**: 1471-1487; **GERMANY**: 1757 (July-December).

Treaty of (1742). See **AUSTRIA**: 1742 (June).

BRESLAU, German light cruiser which immediately after the outbreak of the World War evaded the English fleet in the Mediterranean and succeeded in escaping with the *Goeben* through the Dardanelles (August, 1914). The two vessels were nominally taken over by the Turkish government and renamed. Apparently without Turkish authority they sank some Russian ships in the Black Sea and bombarded Odessa. Russia declared war on Turkey in consequence, Oct. 30, 1914, followed by France and Great Britain on Nov. 5.—See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: IV: Turkey: b and c.

BREST, a strongly fortified seaport of Brittany, France, on the northern side of the bay of Brest. The name corresponds to the Breton word "Breiz," "Brittany." The town of Roman Gaul which stood on the site of Brest seems to have been called Gesocribate. The chronicle of Nantes, written in the eleventh century, mentions the château of Brest in 874.

1239.—Ceded to the duke of Brittany.—After the Roman occupation numerous independent counts became established in Brest, the château being included in the domain of the counts of Léon. The rising power of the dukes of Brittany came into conflict with the house of Léon and Comte Hervé IV finally ceded to Jean I of Brittany in 1239, the town château and port of Brest. Annexed to the domains of the dukes, Brest acquired considerable importance. "He is not duke of Brittany who is not lord of Brest," said one of the counsellors of Montfort.

1341-1397.—English occupation.—In 1341 came the struggle between Charles de Blois and Jean de Montfort. The latter took possession of Brest after having besieged the château in which perished its defender, Gauthier de Clisson. The place fell in 1342 to the power of the king of England, Edward III, an ally of de Montfort's. Duguesclin carried on a siege of Brest, but in vain; foreign occupation did not cease until March 28, 1397.

1543.—Spanish defeat at Brest.—Marc de Carné, lieutenant of the château of Brest, in 1543 repelled an attack of the Spaniards.

1593.—Created a commune.—"During the religious wars the city of Brest long resisted the attacks of the Spanish and the Liguers, and, from the beginning of the advent of Henry IV, she remained faithful to the legitimate king. It is for this reason, by letters patent of December 31, 1593, the king, upon the request of the inhabitants, and

in consideration of their fidelity, gave them the rights of the bourgeoisie 'like the inhabitants of Bordeaux.'"—Transl. from the French of M. Bernard, *La municipalité de Brest de 1750 à 1790 (Annales de Bretagne, Jan., 1916, p. 82)*.

1631.—Beginning of Brest's naval importance.—In 1631 was organized the navy of Ponant and a law was passed making Brest the center of naval operations—with Havre and Brouage, which she was not slow in surpassing, thanks to the patronage of Colbert. In 1661 Duquesne was invested with military and administrative powers to execute the various works of defense.

1694.—English and Dutch attack.—In 1694 the combined fleets of England and Holland landed a considerable force in the neighborhood of Brest. The inhabitants, gathering by the water's edge, halted them and surrounded them; then, a storm having forced the vessels to leave, these deserted forces were attacked and practically annihilated. See FRANCE: 1694.

1757.—Last English attack.—In August, 1757, the English appeared again at the narrow entrance to Brest harbor with nineteen ships and a fighting force of 20,000 men ready to land, but the position they had taken forced them to give up their plan and since then no hostile English fleet has entered the harbor of Brest.

18th century.—"The development of Brest is modern, and due largely to the extension of the shipping, from the beginning of the seventeenth century. In spite of the absence of exact documents an examination of the lists of the poll-taxes justifies the approximate fixing of the number of inhabitants at 20,000 in 1750 and at 27,000 in 1789. The population was equally divided by the Penfeld, on whose left bank is Brest proper and on the right, Recouvrance. The river, which at this time formed the naval and commercial port, is a living artery bordered with commercial houses. One notices between Brest and Recouvrance, sister cities, equally populated, united under the same municipality, but often in disagreement, a profound economic and social inequality. Brest, the richer, has the greater number of tax-payers, merchants, stockholders, lawyers, artisans of the most respected crafts; Recouvrance shelters a dense crowd of workers in the arsenal, sailors and humble laborers. . . . There was no other industry in Brest but ship-construction and repair. Commerce was of the most importance, but was not extensive; its only object was to feed the inhabitants, troops and sailors; provisions were imported, also a great deal of wine, and the ships left port either unloaded or loaded with empty barrels (thus indicating the social importance of the great wine merchants). Privateering, either by the arming of corsairs, or by speculation on their takings or on their cargoes, was an accessory of commerce, and contributed to the amassing of several fortunes in Brest. In short, Brest lived by her shipping."—Tr. from the French of M. Bernard, *La municipalité de Brest de 1750 à 1790 (Annales de Bretagne, Nov., 1912, pp. 47-48)*.

19th century.—In the middle of the nineteenth century the commercial projects of Napoleon III gave fresh impetus to Brest's career. But the greatest impetus came with the opening of the transatlantic steamship trade and the consequent rivalries between French and English ports. In 1860 was laid the telegraph cable from Brest to New York. Brest's maritime importance grew apace: of the French shipping budget for 1885, more than one-seventh was allotted to the port of Brest.

1914-1918.—Debarcation port for the American troops in the World War.—"The long established course of trade had developed several great ports on the northern coast of France and in them were the only adequate harbor facilities, as docks, ships' berths, warehouses, and channels and basins for a large number of vessels. These ports had been turned over to Great Britain for the use of her forces early in the war and were now crowded with the transport and cargo ships that supplied the British army in France. . . . General Pershing was left to use the port of Brest, in the extreme peninsula of Brittany, St. Nazaire, at the mouth of the Loire, La Pallice, the port of the ancient town of La Rochelle, and Bordeaux, near the mouth of the Garonne. From these ports railroads led into the interior of France, but they were not in the best condition. . . . The ports also were inadequate to the service that would be required of them. Their docks were small and already crowded with the French business which the use of the northern ports by the British had forced southward. General Pershing lost little time in remodeling these facilities. American engineers were summoned to his aid, most of them drawn from private life. . . . The French placed at our disposal whatever they had of timber, cement, and structural iron, but their supplies were limited and it was necessary eventually to take from the United States the greater portion of such materials. The French turned over to us docks with 67 ship berths. We built others, 10 at Bassens, near Bordeaux, and two at Brest, and had 28 others under construction or projected when the armistice was signed. . . . Brest became the chief port of debarcation for the troop-ships. Of the two millions of men we sent to France practically half were landed at that port. . . . To make Brest more available we deepened the channel, built cantonments, hospitals, and many miles of side tracks for railroads. . . . The improvements at one of the designated ports—it seems to have been Brest—were described by a newspaper correspondent in a manner which indicated great admiration for the achievement of the army engineers. From the rank of a second-class port it was raised until it could be pronounced the equal of Hamburg. Berths were constructed for 40 large ships and 60 small ships, and vast concrete warehouses were built. The intricate system of side tracks contained 228 miles of tracks, and there was space for 2,500 incoming cars and for an equal number of outgoing cars, besides track storage for 3,200 cars. It was said in March, 1918, that 172 American-built locomotives had been assembled in this port and plans were made for assembling 1,100 more."—J. S. Bassett, *Our war with Germany, pp. 194-198*.—"Brest, headquarters of Base Section No. 5, thanks to the depth and excellence of its harbor became the landing place of huge masses of troops transported during the summer of 1918. There it was that the Leviathan which draws forty-two feet, disembarked every month effectives which equalled in number those of a German infantry division."—Chambrun and Marenches, *American army in the European conflict, p. 346*.

BREST-LITOVSK, a strongly fortified Polish town in the district of Grodno, formerly belonging to Russia, on the right bank of the Bug river. It played an important part in the operations of the World War in 1915. From August, 1915, until February, 1918, it was held by the Germans, and here were signed the two treaties which definitely eliminated Russia from the ranks of the Allies. See RUSSIA: Map of Russia and the new

border states; WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: i, 3.

Treaties, 1918.—Early in November, 1917, the Russian provisional government under Kerensky (see RUSSIA: 1917 [August-September]) was overthrown and replaced by the Bolshevik *régime* of Lenine and Trotzky. The first task of the Bolsheviks was to stop the war; proposals for an armistice were accepted by Germany on November 28, and on December 2 hostilities ceased on the Eastern front: Russia dropped out of the war. "Following a conference at the army headquarters of Prince Leopold of Bavaria, at Brest-Litovsk, attended by representatives of Russia, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey, and Bulgaria, an armistice between these Powers was signed on December 15, 1917, providing for a truce. . . . [See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: a.] The Peace Conference itself was formally opened at Brest-Litovsk on Saturday, December 22, 1917."—C. J. H. Hayes, *Brief history of the great war*, pp. 253-254.

The first treaty of peace, between Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey on one part and the Ukrainian People's Republic on the other, was signed on February 9, 1918. The PREAMBLE states that "the Ukrainian people, having in the course of the present World War declared itself to be independent and expressed a wish to restore peace between itself and the powers at war, desires 'to take the first step toward a lasting world's peace, honorable to all parties, which shall not only put an end to the horrors of war, but also lead to the restoration of friendly relations of the peoples in political, legal, economic, and intellectual realms.'" The text is as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey on the one hand and the Ukrainian People's Republic on the other declare that the state of war between them is at an end. The contracting parties are resolved henceforth to live in peace and friendship with one another.

ART. 2. Between Austria-Hungary on the one hand and the Ukrainian People's Republic on the other hand, as far as these two powers border one another, those frontiers will exist which existed before the outbreak of the present war between the Austro-Hungarian monarchy and Russia. . . .

ART. 3. The evacuation of occupied territories will begin immediately after the ratification of the present treaty. . . .

ART. 4. The diplomatic and consular relations between the contracting parties will be entered upon immediately after the ratification of the peace treaty. The widest possible admittance of the respective parties to Consuls is to be reserved for a special agreement.

ART. 5. The contracting parties mutually reimburse the reimbursement of their war costs—that is to say, the State expenditure for carrying on the war, as well as indemnification for damages—that is to say, those damages suffered by them and their subjects in the war, as through military measures, including all requisitions made in the enemy's countries.

ART. 6. The respective prisoners of war will be permitted to return home, and, as far as they do not desire, with the approval of the State concerned, to remain in its territories or proceed to another country. . . .

ART. 7. The contracting parties undertake mutually and without delay to enter into economic relations and organize an exchange for goods on the basis of the following prescriptions: [Here follow clauses regulating financial, commercial and traffic relations between the signatories].

ART. 8. Restoration of public and private legal relations, the exchange of prisoners of war and interned civilians, the question of amnesty and the question of the treatment of merchantmen in enemy hands will be regulated in separate treaties [which also were signed] with the Ukrainian People's Republic, to form an essential part of the present peace treaty, which, so far as practicable, will take effect simultaneously therewith.

ART. 9. The agreements made in this peace treaty form an indivisible whole.

ART. 10. For the interpretation of this treaty the German and Ukrainian texts are authoritative in regard to relations between Germany and Ukraine, the German, Hungarian, and Ukrainian texts for relations between Austria-Hungary and Ukraine, the Bulgarian and Ukrainian texts for relations between Bulgaria and Ukraine, the Turkish and Ukrainian texts for relations between Turkey and Ukraine.

The concluding part of the treaty provides: The present peace treaty will be ratified. Ratified documents shall be exchanged as soon as possible. So far as there are no provisions to the contrary, the peace treaty shall come into force on ratification.

The principal treaty of Brest-Litovsk was signed on March 3, 1918, between the *Central Powers and the Bolshevik government of Russia*:

ART. 1. The Central Powers and Russia declare the state of war between them to be terminated and are resolved henceforth to live in peace and friendship with one another.

ART. 2. The contracting nations will refrain from all agitation or provocation against other signatory Governments and undertake to spare the populations of the regions occupied by the powers of the Quadruple Entente.

ART. 3. The regions lying west of the line agreed upon by the contracting parties, and formerly belonging to Russia, shall no longer be under Russian sovereignty. [The territory mapped out to be separated from Russia included Finland, the Baltic Provinces, Ukraine, Poland, Lithuania, and Russian Armenia.] . . . Russia undertakes to refrain from all interference in the internal affairs of these territories and to let Germany and Austria determine the future fate of these territories in agreement with their populations.

ART. 4. Germany and Austria agree, when a general peace is concluded and Russian demobilization is fully completed, to evacuate the regions east of the line designated in Article 3, . . . in so far as Article 6 does not stipulate otherwise. Russia will do everything in her power to complete as soon as possible the evacuation of the Anatolian provinces and their orderly return to Turkey. The districts of Erivan, Kars, and Batum will likewise without delay be evacuated by the Russian troops. Russia will not interfere in the reorganization of the constitutional or international conditions of these districts, but leave it to the populations of the districts to carry out the reorganization, in agreement with the neighboring States, particularly Turkey.

ART. 5. Russia will without delay carry out the complete demobilization of her army, including the forces newly formed by the present Government. Russia will further transfer her warships to Russian harbors and leave them there until a general peace or immediately disarm. Warships of States continuing in a state of war with the Quadruple Alliance will be treated as Russian warships in so far as they are within Russian control. . . .

ART. 6. Russia undertakes immediately to con-

clude peace with the Ukraine People's Republic and to recognize the peace treaty between this State and the powers of the Quadruple Alliance. Ukrainian territory will be immediately evacuated by the Russian troops and the Russian Red Guard. . . . Esthonia and Livonia will likewise be evacuated without delay by the Russian troops and the Russian Red Guard. . . . Esthonia and Livonia will be occupied by a German police force until security is guaranteed by their own national institutions and order in the State is restored. Russia will forthwith release all arrested or deported inhabitants of Esthonia and Livonia and guarantee the safe return of deported Esthonians and Livonians. Finland and the Aland Islands will also forthwith be evacuated by the Russian troops and the Red Guard, and Finnish ports by the Russian fleet and Russian naval forces. . . . The fortifications erected on the Aland Islands are to be removed with all possible dispatch. A special agreement is to be made between Germany, Russia, Finland, and Sweden regarding the permanent non-fortification of these islands, as well as regarding their treatment in military, shipping, and technical respects.

ART. 7. Starting from the fact that Persia and Afghanistan are free and independent states, the contracting parties undertake to respect their political and economic independence and territorial integrity.

ART. 8. Prisoners of war of both sides will be sent home.

ART. 9. The contracting parties mutually renounce indemnification of their war costs, that is to say, state expenditure for carrying on the war, as well as indemnification for war damages, that is to say, those damages which have arisen for them and their subjects in the war regions through military measures, inclusive of all requisitions undertaken in the enemy country.

ART. 10. Diplomatic and Consular relations between the contracting parties will be resumed immediately after ratification of the peace treaty. Special agreements are reserved relative to the admittance of the respective Consuls.

ART. 11. [Has reference to economic relations.]

ART. 12. The restoration of public and private relations, the exchange of prisoners of war, interned civilians, the amnesty question, as well as the treatment of merchant ships which are in enemy hands, will be regulated by separate treaties with Russia, which shall form an essential part of the present peace treaty and so far as is feasible shall enter into force at the same time.

ART. 13. [Refers to the different languages in which this treaty was to be authoritative among the signatories.]

ART. 14. The present peace treaty will be ratified. Instruments of ratification must be exchanged as soon as possible in Berlin. The Russian Government undertakes at the desire of one of the Quadruple Alliance powers to exchange ratifications within two weeks. The peace treaty enters into force on its ratification, in so far as its articles, appendices, or supplementary treaties do not prescribe otherwise. (See also RUSSIA: 1918 [March]).

Both of the foregoing treaties were abrogated by the terms of the German Peace Treaty dictated by the Allies and signed by the German plenipotentiaries at Versailles on June 28, 1919. Article 116 (Section XIV) reads, in part:

"In accordance with the provisions . . . Germany accepts definitively the abrogation of the Brest-Litovsk Treaties and of all treaties, conven-

tions, and agreements entered into by her with the Maximalist [Bolshevik] Government in Russia."

BRETAGNE. See BRITANNY.

BRETHREN, Calendar. See CALENDAR BRETHREN.

BRETHREN, Plymouth, "a religious sect which grew out of the general discontent with church conditions (more especially Anglican) in England and Ireland in the early nineteenth century. Early gatherings of the *malcontents* took place in Dublin, Bristol and Plymouth and the prominence of the Plymouth meeting gave the sect the name by which its adherents are popularly known. Numerous congregations were established in England, Switzerland, France, Germany, the United States and Canada through the efforts of John Darby and other leaders in the movement. The Brethren recognize no creed or ecclesiastical organization and look upon the Scriptures as their only guide. They have no fellowship with other denominations and carry on their mission work by establishing communities rather than distinctive missions. In both England and the United States divisions have arisen. Statistics available . . . report for the six divisions in the United States 470 church organizations and 13,717 members."—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, p. 160.

BRETHREN, River.—"Those who first constituted the body popularly known as River Brethren came to this country from Switzerland in 1750 and settled near the Susquehanna River in Eastern Pennsylvania. They have no history to which the inquirer can refer, and they are able to give few particulars of the early life of the denomination. They were, it is supposed, Mennonites. As the result of a revival movement, beginning in 1770, many of these people who had been formal in their worship became zealous believers, and organized separate congregations. The first members were baptized in the Susquehanna River, and the denomination thus came to be known as River Brethren. Jacob Eagle was their first minister."—H. K. Carrol, *Religious forces of the United States*, p. 55.—For the three divisions of the River Brethren: the Brethren in Christ, the Old Order of Yorker Brethren and the United Zion's Children, statistics available report 112 church organizations and 5,388 members.—United States Census, *Religious Bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, p. 178.

BRETHREN, United. See MORAVIAN OR BOHEMIAN BRETHREN.

BRETHREN CHURCH, generally known as the "Progressive Dunkers." See DUNKARDS.

BRETHREN IN CHRIST. See BRETHREN, RIVER.

BRETHREN OF THE COMMON LOT, or **Common Life,** a religious community founded at Deventer in 1360. "The Societies of the Beguines, Beghards, and Lollards [See BEGUINES], which from the first laboured under various defects and imperfections, had in course of time degenerated, and by their own fault, either fallen to pieces of themselves, or been suppressed. The two things, however, still existed, viz., the propensity to religious association . . . and, likewise, the outward condition, which required and rendered practicable the efforts of benevolence and charity, strengthened by cooperation. The last was particularly the case in the Netherlands, and most in the northern provinces. . . . Here then (in the Netherlands) the Institute of the Common Lot takes its rise. . . . The first author of this new series of evolutions was Gerhard Groot (Geert Groete or de Groot, Gerhard Magnus), a man of glowing

piety and great zeal in doing good, a powerful popular orator and an affectionate friend of youth [1340-1384]. . . . His affection for Holy Scripture and the ancient Fathers kindled in Gerhard's bosom the liveliest zeal for collecting the records of Christian antiquity. . . . Hence, he had long before employed young men, under his oversight, as copyists, thereby accomplishing the threefold end of multiplying these good theological works, giving profitable employment to the youths, and obtaining an opportunity of influencing their minds. This he continued more and more to do. The circle of his youthful friends, scholars, and transcribers, became from day to day larger, and grew at length into a regular society. Having thus in part owed its origin to the copying of the Scriptures and devotional books, the Society from the outset, and through its whole continuance, made the Holy Scripture and its propagation, the copying, collecting, preserving, and utilizing of good theological and ascetical books, one of its main objects. . . . The members were called 'Brethren of the Common Lot,' [or of the Common Life] or 'Brethren of Good Will,' 'Fratres Collationarii,' 'Jeronymians,' and 'Gregorians.' . . . Imitating the Church at Jerusalem, and prompted by brotherly affection, they mutually shared with each other their earnings and property, or consecrated also their fortune, if they possessed any, to the service of the community. From this source, and from donations and legacies made to them, arose the 'Brother-houses,' in each of which a certain number of members lived together, subjected, it is true, in dress, diet, and general way of life, to an appointed rule, but yet not conventually sequestered from the world, with which they maintained constant intercourse, and in such a way as, in opposition to Monachism, to preserve the principle of individual liberty."—C. Ullmann, *Reformers before the Reformation*, v. 2, pt. 2, ch. 1.—"Through the wonderful activity of that fraternity of teachers, begun about 1360, called the Brethren of the Common Life, the Netherlands had the first system of common schools in Europe. These schools flourished in every large town and almost in every village."—W. E. Griffis, *Influence of the Netherlands*, p. 3.—"The decline of the Community coincided with the rise of Protestantism" and "their schools had to face the competition of similar institutions which sprang up during the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. . . . The Institutions founded by the Society of Jesus became popular at the expense of the schools of the Brothers of the Common Life."—T. à Kempis, *Founders of the New Devotion*, tr. into English by J. P. Arthur, introduction, page xl.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 14th-15th centuries; Brethren of Common Life; 15th-16th centuries; Netherlands; and NETHERLANDS: 1521-1555.

ALSO IN: S. Kettlewell, *Thomas à Kempis and the Brothers of Common Life*, v. 1, ch. 5-6.—F. Cruise, *Thomas à Kempis*.—K. Grube, *Groot und seine Stiftungen*.—S. H. Gem, *Hidden Saints: the Brethren of the Common Life*.

BRETHREN OF THE FREE SPIRIT. See BEGUINES.

BRETHREN OF THE LAW OF CHRIST. See BOHEMIA: 1434-1457.

BRETHREN OF THE SWORD. See PRUSSIA: 13th century.

BRETIGNY, Treaty of.—The treaty, called at the time "the great peace," concluded May 8, 1360, between Edward III of England and John II of France, in which Edward renounced his pretensions to the French crown, released for a ransom King John, then a prisoner in his hands, and

received the full sovereignty of Guienne, Poitou and Ponthieu in France, besides retaining Calais and Guisnes.—See also FRANCE: 1337-1360.

BRETONS, race in France. See BRITANNY: Modern Brittany; EUROPE: Ethnology: Migrations: Map showing barbaric migrations; FRANCE: The people; PHRENOLOGY: 11; 17.

1504.—First voyages to Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

BRETWALDA, a title given to some of the early English kings. "Opinions differ as to the meaning of the word Bretwalda. Palgrave and Lappenberg take it as equivalent to 'ruler of Britain': Kemble construes it 'broad-ruling,' and sees in it a dignity without duty, hardly more than an 'accidental predominance.' (*Saxons in England*, ii., 18.) The list of those who obtained this 'ducatus' includes Ethelbert of Kent, who broke the power of the petty kings as far as the Humber, Redbald of East Anglia, who obtained it by some means even in the lifetime of Ethelbert, and the three great Northumbrian kings, Edwin, Oswald and Oswy, whose supremacy however did not extend to Kent."—C. Elton, *Origins of English history*, p. 392, note.—See also ENGLAND: 477-527, and ENGLAND: 7th century.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *History of the Norman conquest of England*, v. 1, app. B.

BREUCKELEN, original name for Brooklyn. See BROOKLYN: 1646.

BREWSTER, William (c. 1566-1644), one of the founders of Plymouth colony, New England. See INDEPENDENTS: 1604-1617; MASSACHUSETTS: 1620, and after.

BREYZAD, ancient kingdom of Brittany. See BRITANNY: 818-912.

BRÉZÉ, Dreux-, H. Evrard de. See DREUX-BRÉZÉ.

BRÉZÉ, Pierre de (c. 1410-1465), Angevin soldier and statesman who rendered great service to the royal cause during the reign of Charles VII. Seneschal of Anjou, Poitou and Normandy. He enjoyed chief power in the state from 1444 to 1450.

BRÉZÉ, Marshal. See MAILLÉ, URBAIN DE.

BRIAN BORU (926-1014), king of Ireland. See IRELAND: 1014.

BRIAND, Aristide (1862-), French Socialist statesman, barrister, journalist and radical orator. Entered Chamber of Deputies, 1902, causing, in 1905, passage of law for separation of church and state (see FRANCE: 1906); accepted ministry of public instruction and worship, 1906, and thereupon was read out of the Socialist party; minister of justice, 1908; president of the council (premier) July, 1909-March, 1911 (see FRANCE: 1906-1909), using military force to subdue the railway strike of 1910 (see FRANCE: 1909 [July]-1910 [November]; 1910-1912); again appointed premier in January, 1913, succeeding Poincaré on the latter's accession to the presidency; resigned, March 18; minister of justice, 1914 (see FRANCE: 1914 [August-September]); organized war cabinets October, 1915-March, 1917 (see FRANCE: 1915 [October]; 1916 [December]; 1917 [March]) and succeeded Clemenceau as premier, January, 1921 (see FRANCE: 1921 [January]); resigned, January, 1922, and was succeeded by former President Poincaré. See CANNES CONFERENCE.

Protest against German occupation of Lille and deportation of women and girls. See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: a, 1.

Attitude on Silesian question. See POLAND: 1921: Upper Silesian complication.

BRIBERY.—At elections in United States and Great Britain. See BOROUGHS-MONGERS;

CORRUPT AND ILLEGAL PRACTICES AT ELECTIONS: Great Britain, also United States: Forms; CREDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL; CRIMINAL LAW: 1906; ENGLAND: 1830: Parliamentary representation before reform; Pittsburgh: 1909.

BRICKWORK, Babyonia. See ASSYRIA: Art and archaeological remains.

BRÏCONNET, Bishop of Meaux. As a pupil of Lefèvre he was prominent in the French Reformation; later condemned the teachings of Luther. See PAPACY: 1521-1535.

BRIDGE, Battle of the.—A serious reverse suffered by the Arab followers of Mahomet in their early movements against the Persians, 634. A force of 9,000 or 10,000 having crossed the Euphrates by a bridge of boats were beaten back, their bridge destroyed and half of them slain or drowned.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 26.—See CALIPHATE: 632-651.

BRIDGE OF SIGHS, bridge in Venice connecting ducal palace with state prisons. See VENICE.

BRIDGEPORT, seaport and county seat of Fairfield County, Conn.; important for its manufactures. During the World War it was the center for munition works.—See also CONNECTICUT: 1880-1920; LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920; LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1917-1918: Munition strikes.

BRIDGER, James, early explorer in Utah. See UTAH: 1825-1843.

BRIDGES, George Tom Molesworth (1871-), British general, military member of mission to United States in 1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 12.

BRIDGES, Robert Seymour (1844-), English poet and poet-laureate since 1913. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

BRIDGET, Saint (c. 452-523), also known as Brigid, one of the patron saints of Ireland, was the daughter of an Ulster prince. Her reputation spread beyond Ireland, and later, under the name of St. Bride, she was adopted as a favorite saint both in England and Scotland.—See also MYTHOLOGY: Celtic mythology: Roman period.

ALSO IN: J. A. Knowles, *Life of St. Brigid, patroness of Ireland*.

BRIDGET OF SWEDEN, Saint (c. 1302-1373), was the daughter of Birger Persson, a Swedish judge and wealthy landowner. At thirteen she married Ulf Gudmarsson. Saint Catherine of Sweden was one of their eight children. After the death of her husband in 1344 she devoted herself to religious undertakings. She founded the congregation of the Brigidines or Order of St. Saviour. She died in Rome and was canonized in 1391.

ALSO IN: Comtesse Catherine de Flavigny, *Sainte Brigitte de Suède, sa vie, ses révélations et son œuvre*.

BRIDGEWATER, or Lundy's Lane, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1814 (July-September).

BRIEL, Brielle or Brill, a fortified town in the province of South Holland, Netherlands, at the mouth of the New Maas. The scene of a battle in 1572 in which the Dutch under William de la Marck wrested the town from Spain. It was then given to Queen Elizabeth as security for the debt incurred by England's aid in the wars of the Dutch. See NETHERLANDS: 1572.

BRIENNE, Étienne Charles de Loménie de. See LOMÉNIE OF BRIENNE.

BRIENNE, Gauthier de (Walter). See WALTER OF BRIENNE.

BRIENNE, Jean de. See JOHN OF BRIENNE.

BRIENNE, Yolante. See YOLANTE OF BRIENNE.

BRIENNE, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

BRIENNE-LE-CHATEAU, town in north-eastern France about twenty-five miles northeast of Troyes. Was the scene of Napoleon's early military studies, 1779-1784, and of a battle in which, on January 29, 1814, he defeated the Allies.

BRIEUX, Eugène (1858-), French dramatist. Elected to the Academy in 1909. Most of his plays attack in a powerful manner some social evil.

BRIEY, town in northwest France, just inside the boundary of 1914, about fifteen miles northwest of Metz; captured in 1914 by the Germans, who exploited the extensive iron mines, greatly to their advantage in the World War. It was occupied by Americans after the armistice. See WORLD WAR: 1918: XI. End of the war: c.

BRIGANTES, one of the strongest and fiercest of the tribes of ancient Britain, believed by some historians to have been the original pre-Celtic inhabitants of the island. At the time of the Roman conquest they held the whole interior northward from the Humber and Mersey to the Forth and Clyde. They were subdued by Agricola.—E. Guest, *Origines Celticae*, v. 1, ch. 1.—See also BRITAIN, CELTIC TRIBES; BRITAIN: 43-53 and 78-84; and IRELAND: TRIBES OF EARLY CELTIC INHABITANTS.

BRIGANTINE or Bergantin. See CARAVELS.

BRIGHT, John (1811-1880), British Liberal statesman and orator. With Richard Cobden he was largely responsible for the repeal of the corn laws, 1846, and, with Gladstone, for the reform bill of 1867 (see also ENGLAND: 1846). He was a factory owner, opposed to factory legislation bills. Supported the Northern cause of the American Civil War though it seriously affected his business. Under the Gladstone ministry, he was president of the board of trade, 1868-1870, and chancellor of the duchy of Lancaster, 1880-1882. He represented a Birmingham constituency in Parliament for over thirty years.

BRIGHT, Timothy (c. 1551-1615), English inventor of modern shorthand. See ABBREVIATIONS: Modern development.

BRIHUEGA, Battle of (1710). See SPAIN: 1707-1710.

BRILL. See BRIEL.

BRINDISI, seaport town in Apulia, Italy; appears frequently in the histories of the Crusades. In 1500 it was pledged to the Catholic monarch Ferdinand by treaty of Cambrai. (See VENICE: 1508-1509.) During the World War, the seaport was reserved as a secondary base by the Italian fleet when Venice was threatened by an Austro-Hungarian offensive (November 10, 1917).

BRINDLEY, James (1716-1772), English engineer. See CANALS: Principal European: British Isles.

BRISBANE, Sir Thomas Makdougall (1773-1860), British soldier and astronomer. Governor of New South Wales, 1821-1825. See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840; NEW SOUTH WALES: 1821-1831.

BRISBANE, seaport town on the east coast of Australia. See AUSTRALIA: 1859, and Map.

BRISSON, Eugène Henri (1835-1912), French republican statesman. Deputy mayor of Paris, 1870; member of the assembly, 1871; president of the chamber 1881-1885; president of the council (premier) April, 1885-January, 1886; president of the commission investigating the Panama Canal scandals, 1892; president of the chamber, 1894-1899; became president of the council again in 1898; unsuccessful candidate for the presidency,

1895 and 1899; president of the chamber, 1906-1912. See FRANCE: 1875-1889; 1898 (May-November.)

BRISSET DE WARVILLE, Jean Pierre, (1754-1793), French Revolutionary leader and head of the Girondists. As a young man he was falsely accused of writing a seditious pamphlet and was imprisoned. Later he went to England and from there to the United States, where he wrote against slavery. At the outbreak of the Revolution in 1789 he returned to France, became the editor of *Le Patriote Français*, and a member of the Paris commune; soon became a member of the assembly and leader of the Girondists, who, thereafter, were often called "Brissetins." (See FRANCE: 1791, October, to 1793, September-December.) He demanded the deportation of the king after his flight and later voted for his death; was responsible for the declaration of war against Austria, England and Holland; angered Robespierre and his party by holding out against the immediate execution of the king and by the other more moderate policies of the Girondists; was consequently guillotined October 31, 1793.—See also GIRONDINS.

BRISSETINS. See BRISSET DE WARVILLE.

BRISTOE STATION, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July-November; Virginia).

BRISTOL, England, a city and county-borough in Somerset and Gloucester. It is a great seaport of south-western England, situated upon the Bristol channel between the confluence of the Avon and the Severn. Bristol was recorded for centuries of English history as second only to London and it is still called the metropolis of the west. The population in 1921 was 377,601. The city is governed by a lord mayor, 48 councillors and 16 aldermen. Bristol returns five members to Parliament, with another for the University of Bristol.

Name and origin.—"The oldest form of the name is Brigstow, and this most probably means the 'stow' or fenced place of the bridge. Before the Norman Conquest there could not have been many bridges in England, for while place-names ending in 'ford' are plentiful, the compounds of 'bridge' are few. The particular form in which 'bridge' appears in Brigstow is said to be early, and so perhaps points to an early settlement at the bridge end. Standing, then, upon the Avon, Bristol, like Bridgenorth on the Severn, and like Innsbruck on the Inn, was probably first known as the place where the river was crossed by a bridge; it was the point of communication between the two kingdoms of Mercia and Wessex, if indeed either Bristol or its bridge was in existence when Mercia and Wessex were separate kingdoms, and afterwards between the two shires of Gloucester and Somerset. . . . On every side Bristol, which was then [eleventh century] no doubt a walled town, was girt by her rivers, save on the east, where a neck of land joined the peninsula to the rest of Gloucestershire. . . . No city probably has so completely changed its physical features, for of the two rivers which then almost encircled it one, after having been turned into a new channel, has disappeared for a considerable extent of its course through the city, which now stretches far beyond it, and the other has also been made to run in an artificial channel, while its natural course now serves the artificial purpose of a floating harbour."—W. Hunt, *Bristol*, pp. 4-6.—"Out of a mass of tradition and conjecture, the few known facts of the earlier history of Bristol appear to be: that the lower Avon valley was inhabited from the earliest times; that . . . there was a British town at Clifton having its citadel at the three camps; that the Romans

had a military station and port, Abona, at Sea Mills, and probably a commercial port at Bristol; that after a period of intense darkness, lasting for some centuries, a Saxon town grew up on the peninsula, whose inhabitants, shut off from the rest of England by the impenetrable forests of Horwood and Kingswood, took little part in the general politics of the kingdom and suffered little by its troubles, but devoted themselves successfully to a foreign trade, chiefly with Ireland and Scandinavia; that already the slave-trade, which in later years was to contribute so much to the wealth of Bristol, had commenced, and that before the beginning of the eleventh century the town had sufficient importance to be the seat of a mint; that at the Norman Conquest the town . . . was a populous place surrounded by a rampart and containing several churches."—A. Harvey, *Bristol*, pp. 14-15.

12th Century.—Its slave trade and other commerce.—"Within its comparatively narrow limits Bristol must have been in general character and aspect not unlike what it is to-day—a busy, bustling, closely-packed city, full of the eager, active, surging life of commercial enterprise. Ostmen from Waterford and Dublin, Northmen from the Western Isles and the more distant Orkneys, and even from Norway itself, had long ago learnt to avoid the shock of the 'Higra,' the mighty current which still kept its heathen name derived from the sea-god of their forefathers, and make it serve to float them into the safe and commodious harbour of Bristol, where a thousand ships could ride at anchor. As the great trading centre of the west Bristol ranked as the third city in the kingdom, surpassed in importance only by Winchester and London. The most lucrative branch of its trade, however, reflects no credit on its burghers. All the eloquence of S. Wulfstan and all the sternness of the Conqueror had barely availed to check for a while their practice of kidnaping men for the Irish slave-market; and that the traffic was in full career in the latter years of Henry I. we learn from the experiences of the canons of Laon."—K. Norgate, *England under the Angevin kings*, v. 1, ch. 1.

1313.—Great insurrection.—In 1313 "occurred the most remarkable event in the annals of Bristol, the 'Great Insurrection' during which the town was for several years in a state of open rebellion, an independent and self-governed town where the king's writ ceased to run. The exact cause . . . seems to have originated in the growing tendency, which Bristol shared with most of the boroughs of the kingdom at this time, for the government of local affairs to pass from the hands of the burgesses at large to those of a narrow and self-elected oligarchy."—A. Harvey, *Bristol*, p. 34.—By 1312 the government of the town was in the hands of fourteen men, headed by William Randolph. The commonalty were led by John Taverner, who declared that all burgesses ought to have an equal share in the privileges of the town. The trouble came to a head over a disputed toll on fish which the townspeople refused to pay. A fierce fight took place, twenty were killed, the Fourteen were soon driven out and the town barricaded against the king's officers. Taverner was elected mayor and held his stand against authority for three years, after which the town was besieged and surrendered. "The result may be considered a victory for the commonalty; but the tendency of the time was not to be resisted, and . . . all municipal power soon passed into the hands of a close corporation of influential families."—A. Harvey, *Bristol*, p. 37.

1349.—**Black Death.**—Sanitary conditions.—“The plague broke out in Bristol in the early part of the summer, probably in the June of 1349. . . . The streets of the town were very narrow; for, as in the busier parts the ground was honeycombed with cellars for storing wine, salt, and other merchandise, no vehicle was allowed to be used in them. All goods were carried by porters or pack-horses, a custom which continued at least to the end of the seventeenth century. . . . The less important streets were little better than deep dark lanes. In all alike the refuse of the dwellings on either side must have streamed down the drain that ran through the middle of them. The one redeeming feature in the sanitary condition of the town was that it had an abundant supply of water conveyed through conduits, for which it was largely indebted to its monasteries. The three lepers’ hospitals . . . are perhaps significant of the prevalence of a disease that was the invariable attendant of dirt. When the plague came there was little power of resistance. Few of those who were seized with it lived as long as three days, many died after one or even half a day’s sickness. ‘The whole strength of the town,’ we are told, ‘perished,’ and grass is said to have grown inches high in the principal streets. The immediate effect of this calamity was a large influx of population from the country; agricultural employments were deserted for the more profitable labour of the craftsman, the dependent condition of the villein for the privileges of the burgess. Up to this time there had been no barrier between the position of the master and that of the workman. Now, however, the immigration of men from the country to take up trades gave rise to a distinct wage-earning class with interests and objects apart from their employers.”—W. Hunt, *Bristol*, pp. 78-79.—See also **BLACK DEATH**; and **ENGLAND, 1348-1349**.
1497.—**Cabot’s voyage of discovery.** See **AMERICA: 1497**.

1643.—**Use of fire lances.** See **LIQUID FIRE: Medieval and modern use**.

1645.—**Storming of the city by Fairfax.** See **ENGLAND: 1645 (July-September)**.

1685.—**Commerce and wealth of the city.**—“Next to the capital, but next at an immense distance, stood Bristol, then the first English seaport. . . . Pepys, who visited Bristol eight years after the Restoration, was struck by the splendour of the city. But his standard was not high; for he noted down as a wonder the circumstance that, in Bristol, a man might look round him and see nothing but houses. . . . A few churches of eminent beauty rose out of a labyrinth of narrow lanes built upon vaults of no great solidity. If a coach or cart entered those alleys, there was danger that it would be wedged between the houses, and danger also that it would break in the cellars. Goods were therefore conveyed about the town almost exclusively in trucks drawn by dogs; and the richest inhabitants exhibited their wealth, not by riding in carriages, but by walking the streets with trains of servants in rich liveries and by keeping tables loaded with good cheer. The hospitality of the city was widely renowned, and especially the collations with which the sugar refiners regaled their visitors. . . . This luxury was supported by a thriving trade with the North American Plantations and with the West Indies. The passion for colonial traffic was so strong that there was scarcely a small shopkeeper in Bristol who had not a venture on board of some ship bound for Virginia or the Antilles. Some of these venturers indeed were not of the most honourable kind. There was, in the Transatlantic possessions of the crown,

a great demand for labour; and this demand was partly supplied by a system of crimping and kidnapping at the principal English seaports. Nowhere was this system in such active and extensive operation as at Bristol. . . . The number of houses appears, from the returns of the hearth-money, to have been, in the year 1685, just 5,300. . . . The population of Bristol must therefore have been about 29,000.”—Lord Macaulay, *History of England*, v. 1, ch. 3.

1739.—**Rise of Methodism.**—Whitefield and Wesley.—“Bristol may be said to have been the cradle of Methodism, for there the most important events in the early history of the society took place, and nowhere else was the preaching of its apostles received with such instant enthusiasm as among the largely Celtic population. When Whitefield visited Bristol in 1739, he remembered the words of a friend who . . . had said, ‘If you have a mind to convert Indians, there are colliers enough at Kingswood,’ and one Saturday afternoon preached from ‘his first field-pulpit’ at Rose Green. The Kingswood collieries, from which Bristol drew its chief supply of coal, were worked by a lawless race, which more than once endangered the peace of the city. Dwelling in a district of the outparish of St. Phillip and St. Jacob, and at a distance of three or four miles from the parish church, the colliers lived and died in a state of utter ignorance and brutality, and Whitefield showed no common courage in venturing among them, especially as field-preaching was then wholly unknown. His eloquence soon drew crowds round him, and before long at least ten thousand listened with rapt attention to his sermons. . . . He left his work to be carried on by Wesley. During the early years of Wesley’s preaching the extraordinary excitement of his hearers broke out in various symptoms which appear to have been more prevalent in Bristol than elsewhere. Here the first Methodist meeting-house was built in the Horse-fair, the system of class meetings was first organized, and most of the events connected with the split between Wesley and the Calvinistic Methodists took place, and, lastly, it was by the Bristol Conference that Francis Asbury was sent to America, where he received the title of bishop and founded the American Methodist Episcopal Church.”—W. Hunt, *Bristol*, pp. 181-182.—See also **METHODISTS**.

1800.—**Decline.**—By the end of the 18th century “Bristol no longer held the position of second city in the kingdom, and before long it entered on a period of decline, now happily arrested by the public spirit of the citizens. This decline was due to the general [shifting] . . . of commerce to the north of England, to the rapid rise of Liverpool, to the natural drawbacks of the port, to the ruin of the West India trade, and to a large extent also to the short-sighted policy which drove trade away from the city by the imposition of heavy local rates. . . . The introduction of the use of steam coal for purposes of manufacture had already transferred the preponderance of commercial importance from the south to the north of England, and though Bristol is fairly supplied with fuel, the thin and broken seams of the neighboring coal fields cannot compare with the rich seams of the northern mines.”—W. Hunt, *Bristol*, pp. 208, 210.

1831.—**Reform bill riots.**—The popular excitement produced in England in 1831 by the action of the House of Lords in rejecting the Reform Bill, led to riots in several places, but most seriously at Bristol. “The Bristol mobs have always been noted for their brutality; and the outbreak now

was such as to amaze and confound the whole kingdom. . . . The lower parts of the city were the harbourage of probably a worse seaport populace than any other place in England, while the police was ineffective and demoralised. There was no city in which a greater amount of savagery lay beneath a society proud, exclusive, and mutually repellant, rather than enlightened and accustomed to social co-operation. These are circumstances which go far to account for the Bristol riots being so fearfully bad as they were. Of this city, Sir Charles Wetherell—then at the height of his unpopularity as a vigorous opponent of the Reform Bill—was recorder; and there he had to go, in the last days of October, in his judicial capacity. . . . On Saturday, October 29, Sir Charles Wetherell entered Bristol in pomp; and before he reached the Mansion House at noon, he must have been pretty well convinced, by the hootings and throwing of stones, that he had better have foregone the procession. At night, the Mansion House was attacked, and the Riot Act was read; but the military were not brought down, as they ought to have been, to clear the streets. The mayor had 'religious scruples,' and was 'humane'; and his indecision was not overborne by any aid from his brother-magistrates. When the military were brought in, it was after violence had been committed, and when the passions of the mob were much excited. Sir Charles Wetherell escaped from the city that night. On the Sunday morning, the rioters broke into the Mansion House without opposition; and from the time they got into the cellars, all went wrong. Hungry wretches and boys broke the necks of the bottles, and Queen Square was strewed with the bodies of the dead-drunk. The soldiers were left without orders, and their officers without that sanction of the magistracy in the absence of which they could not act, but only parade; and in this parading, some of the soldiers naturally lost their tempers, and spoke and made gestures on their own account, which did not tend to the soothing of the mob. This mob never consisted of more than five or six hundred. . . . The mob declared openly what they were going to do; and they went to work unchecked—armed with staves and bludgeons from the quays, and with iron palisades from the Mansion House—to break open and burn the bridewell, the jail, the bishop's palace, the custom-house, and Queen Square. They gave half an hour's notice to the inhabitants of each house in the square, which they then set fire to in regular succession, till two sides, each measuring 550 feet, lay in smoking ruins. The bodies of the drunken were seen roasting in the fire. The greater number of the rioters were believed to be under twenty years of age, and some were mere children; some Sunday scholars, hitherto well conducted, and it may be questioned whether one in ten knew anything of the Reform Bill, or the offences of Sir Charles Wetherell. On the Monday morning, after all actual riot seemed to be over, the soldiery at last made two slaughterous charges. More horse arrived, and a considerable body of foot soldiers; and the constabulary became active; and from that time the city was in a more orderly state than the residents were accustomed to see it. . . . The magistrates were brought to trial, and so was Colonel Brereton, who was understood to be in command of the whole of the military. The result of that court-martial caused more emotion throughout the kingdom than all the slaughtering and burning, and the subsequent executions which marked that fearful season. It was a year before the trial of the magistrates was entered upon. The result was the acquittal of the mayor, and the con-

sequent relinquishment of the prosecution of his brother-magistrates."—H. Martineau, *History of the Thirty Years' Peace*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 4.

1838.—Revivifying trade with America.—Voyage of the *Great Western*.—"All through her existence Bristol has naturally sought wealth in western commerce. The principal port for trade with the Ostmen of Ireland, the home of the earliest voyages to North America, she became in the present [19th] century the originator of trans-Atlantic steam traffic, and has succeeded in establishing a large and increasing trade with America. The *Great Western* steamship company, formed in 1835, built the first steamer, the *Great Western*, that was expressly intended for trans-Atlantic voyages. She was a wooden ship of 1,340 tons register, with engines of 440 horsepower, and was well designed and splendidly built. She started on her first voyage on April 8, 1838, and reached New York in fifteen days and ten hours, and though one or two steamers had crossed the Atlantic before her, the quickness of her passage, and the small amount of coal she consumed, afforded the first proof that steam traffic with America could be carried on with the assurance of profit."—W. Hunt, *Bristol*, p. 217.

1913.—Pre-war commerce.—Great docks.—The port of Bristol has for many hundreds of years maintained a leading position in connection with the commerce of the world. The report of the Bristol Chamber of Commerce lists the seventy-five principal exported manufactures of the district, notably boots and shoes, chocolate, cocoa, machinery, iron goods, leather, paper, tobacco, glass and pottery. On seventy-six of the principal articles imported, largely provisions; the grain import for 1913 was 4,331,356 quarters. The greatness of Bristol lies in her huge docks which represent an outlay of over six million pounds. The registered tonnage of the ships reported, was 668,863 in 1851, 1,538,254 just fifty years later, and in 1913 was 2,558,628. "From its City Docks, Sebastian Cabot sailed on the voyage which resulted in the discovery of the New World. These also were the docks in which the first steamship to cross the Atlantic was built and whence she sailed. The 'City' Docks [area eighty-three acres], which traverse the City itself, were acquired from a private company by the Bristol Corporation in 1848, and have since been administered by a Committee of the Bristol City Council. The Avonmouth [area nineteen acres] and Portishead [area twelve acres] Docks, situated respectively on the north and south sides of the mouth of the Avon, were purchased by the Corporation of Bristol in 1884. The Docks had been constructed and up to that time worked by private enterprise. At that time the accommodation was equal to the requirements of the shipping using the Port, but with the gradual increase of the size of steamers engaged in over-seas trade, a movement was set on foot to provide accommodation for the largest class of steamers then afloat or even contemplated. The result was the construction of a large dock [area thirty acres] on the north side of the river, alongside the Avonmouth Dock. . . . The first sod [in beginning the construction] of this dock was cut . . . in March, 1902, and [it was] opened by King Edward VII. in person on July 9th, 1908, and with his permission it was named, 'Royal Edward Dock.' . . . For the purpose of Railway Rates all the Docks within the Port are grouped; they are thus uniformly linked up with all the stations on the Great Western, Midland, London and North Western, London and South Western, Somerset and

Dorset, Great Eastern, Great Central and other Railways. By these routes merchandise of all kinds, including fresh and frozen meat and other perishable goods, are dispatched."—Bristol Incorporated Chamber of Commerce and Shipping, *Annual report, 1913-1914*, pp. 5-7.

ALSO IN: Bristol Chamber of Commerce, *Year book, 1914*.

1914-1919.—World War.—Docks, cold storage facilities, industries.—In the World War "Bristol took no mean part. It has been computed that it enlisted something like sixty thousand men for H. M. [His Majesty's] Forces, of whom not fewer than four thousand made the great sacrifice. . . . It had been recognized that with the opening of the Royal Edward Dock in 1908 the modern facilities provided at Avonmouth would be of great advantage if this country ever became involved in war. The capabilities of Avonmouth Docks for embarking troops and loading war materials were duly tested by the authorities and found satisfactory. As soon as war was imminent Avonmouth became the scene of great military activities, and the docks played an important part with regard to transport operations throughout the war. . . . Extensive use was also made by the Government of the Cold Stores which are situated at the dock side. For a long time these stores were monopolised for army purposes to the exclusion of commercial traffic, and large stocks of meat were held at Avonmouth for supplying troops stationed in the South and South-west of England. After the Government took control of meat for civilian requirements the stores were largely used by the Ministry of Food, and the accommodation and facilities which these stores afforded were greatly appreciated. For a long time Bristol has held a prominent position as an importing center for refrigerated produce, and prior to the war this trade had so increased that additional accommodation was necessary. In 1914 Parliamentary sanction had been obtained for the erection of new large cold stores at Avonmouth, but the outbreak of hostilities stopped for a time the construction of these stores. In 1917, however, the demand . . . became imperative, and the Docks Committee were urgently requested to proceed with the completion of the new Avonmouth stores. . . . The work was at once taken in hand, and on completion these stores not only added to the trade of the port, but will be of great national benefit. . . . Portishead Dock also shared in the war activities. For a long time the dock was a main depot for the supply of petrol spirit for mechanical transport and aviation purposes in France. A large canning establishment was installed, and the tankage accommodation was greatly increased. . . . During the war period the imports in bulk amounted to 116,000,000 gallons, and the exports of the case and bulk spirit to 72,000,000 gallons. . . . Bristol made many contributions, but perhaps none more important than the constant stream of aeroplanes which issued from the ancient city. On every battle front the 'Bristol' machines made their mark."—G. F. Stone and C. Wells, *Bristol and the Great War*, pp. 203, 206-207, 246.—Bristol was also a seat of seaplane manufacture, turned out over 25,000 motor cycles, manufactured glycerine, coal tar products, 30,100 tons of toluol, some thousands of mine sinker cases, many thousands of "Nissen" huts and shelters, about 4,000,000 yards of wire netting, about 20,000 tons of galvanized steel sheets, and over 3,000,000 18-pounder H. E. (high explosive) shell cases, an industry for which sixty firms, including engineering, lace, biscuit, chocolate, tobacco,

paperbag works, etc., were pressed into service. The figures of the dock traffic for the four years of the war are: number of ships, 2,167; personnel, 203,337; horses and mules, 339,601; vehicles, 71,977; tonnage of goods, 1,759,055.

ALSO IN: J. Corry, *History of Bristol*.—J. F. Nicboll and J. Taylor, *Bristol past and present*.—J. Latimer, *Annals of Bristol*.

BRISTOL, one of the lighter cruisers with which the British admiral Sturdee set out to avenge the defeat of Admiral Cradock in a naval battle with the German admiral von Spee off Coronel, on the coast of Chile, November 1, 1914, during the World War.

BRISTOW, Benjamin Helm (1832-1896), American lawyer and statesman. Served in the Civil War. Kentucky state senator, 1863-1865; solicitor-general of United States, 1870-1872; secretary of the treasury, 1874-1876. While holding the latter office he prosecuted with vigor the so-called "whisky ring" (q. v.), which was composed of internal revenue officers and distillers of St. Louis with official accomplices in Washington. Resigned, 1876, due to friction with President Grant. Was unsuccessful candidate for presidential nomination in 1876.

BRITAIN, English equivalent for the classical name, Britannia, which embraced England, Scotland and Wales. See BRITANNIA.

Celtic tribes.—"It appears that the southeastern part of the island, or the district now occupied by the county of Kent, was occupied by the Cantii, a large and influential tribe, which in Cæsar's time, was divided among four chiefs or kings. To the west, the Regni held the modern counties of Sussex and Surrey, from the sea-coast to the Thames. Still farther west, the Belgæ occupied the country from the southern coast to the Bristol Channel, including nearly the whole of Hampshire, Wiltshire and Somersetshire. The whole of the extensive district extending from the Belgæ to the extreme western point of the island, then called Antivestæum or Bolerium (now the Land's End) including Devonshire and Cornwall, was occupied by the Dumnonii, or Damnonii. On the coast between the Dumnonii and the Belgæ the smaller tribe of the Durotriges held the modern county of Dorset. On the other side of the Thames, extending northwards to the Stour, and including the greater part of Middlesex as well as Essex, lay the Trinobantes. To the north of the Stour dwelt the Iceni, extending over the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge and Huntingdon. The Coritavi possessed the present counties of Northampton, Leicester, Rutland, Derby, Nottingham and Lincoln; and the southeastern part of Yorkshire was held by the Parisi. Between the tribes last enumerated, in the counties of Buckingham, Bedford and Hertford, lay the tribe called by Ptolemy the Catyuechiani, and by others Catuvellani. Another name, apparently, for this tribe, or for a division of it, was the Cassii. West of these were the Atrebates, in Berkshire; and still further west were the Dobuni, in the counties of Oxford and Gloucester. . . . The interior of the island northward was occupied by the Brigantes, who held the extensive districts, difficult of approach on account of their mountains and woods, extending from the Humber and the Mersey to the present borders of Scotland. This extensive tribe appears to have included several smaller ones [the Voluntii, the Sestuntii, the Jugantes and the Cangii]. The Brigantes are believed to have been the original inhabitants of the island, who had been driven northward by successive invasions. . . . Wales, also, was inhabited by a primitive population. The

northern counties . . . was the territory of the Ordovices. The southeastern counties . . . were held by the Demetæ. The still more celebrated tribe of the Silures inhabited the modern counties of Hereford, Radnor, Brecknock, Monmouth and Clamorgan. Between these and the Brigantes lay the Cornabii or Carnabii. The wilder parts of the island of Britain, to the north of the Brigantes, were inhabited by a great number of smaller tribes, some of whom seem to have been raised in the scale of civilization little above savages. Of these we have the names of no less than twenty-one. Bordering on the Brigantes were the Otadeni, inhabiting the coast from the Tyne to the Firth of Forth. . . . Next to them were the Gadeni. . . . The Selgovæ inhabited Annandale, Nithsdale and Eskdale, in Dumfriesshire, with the East of Galloway. The Novantes inhabited the remainder of Galloway. The Damniî, a larger tribe, held the country from the chain of hills separating Galloway from Carrick, northward to the river Ern. These tribes lay to the south of the Forth and Clyde. Beyond the narrow boundary formed by these rivers lay [the Horestii, the Venricones or Vernicomes, the Taixali or Taexali, the Vacomagi, the Albani, the Cantæ, the Logi, the Carnabii, the Catini, the Mertæ, the Carnonacæ, the Creones, the Cerones, and the Epidiî]. The ferocious tribe of the Attacotti inhabited part of Argyleshire, and the greater part of Dumbartonshire. The wild forest country of the interior, known as the Caledonia Sylva (or Forest of Celyddon), extended from the ridge of mountains between Inverness and Perth, northward to the forest of Balnagowan, including the middle parts of Inverness and Ross, was held by the Caledonii, which appears to have been at this time [of the conquests of Agricola] the most important and powerful of all the tribes north of the Brigantes."—T. Wright, *The Celt, Roman and The Saxon*, ch. 2.—See also DRUIDS; ENGLAND: Area.

ALSO IN: J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain*.—J. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, bk. 1, ch. 2.

Ancient remains. See STONEHENGE.

B. C. 55-54.—Cæsar's invasions.—Having extended his conquests in Gaul to the British channel and the strait of Dover (see GAUL: B. C. 58-51), Cæsar crossed the latter, in August, B. C. 55, and made his first landing in Britain, with two legions, numbering 8,000 to 10,000 men. Portus Itius, from which he sailed, was probably either Wissant or Boulogne, and his landing place on the British coast is believed to have been near Deal. The Britons disputed his landing with great obstinacy; they were driven back, and offered to submit; but when a few days afterwards, Cæsar's fleet suffered greatly from a storm, they reconsidered their submission and opened hostilities again. Routed in a second battle, they once more sued for peace, and gave hostages; whereupon Cæsar reëmbarked his troops and returned to the continent, having remained in Britain not more than three weeks and penetrated the island a short distance only. The following summer he crossed to Britain again, determined on making a thorough conquest of the country. This time he had five legions at his back, with two thousand horse, and the expedition was embarked on more than eight hundred ships. He sailed from and landed at the same points as before. Having established and garrisoned a fortified camp, he advanced into the country, encountering and defeating the Britons, first, at a river, supposed to be the Stour which flows past Canterbury. A storm which damaged his fleet then interrupted his advance, compelling him to return to the coast. When the disaster had been

repaired he marched again, and again found the enemy on the Stour, assembled under the command of Cassivelaunus, whose kingdom was north of the Thames. He dispersed them, after much fighting, with great slaughter, and crossed the Thames, at a point, it is supposed, near the junction of the Wey. Thence he pushed on until he reached the "oppidum" or stronghold of Cassivelaunus, which is believed by some to have been on the site of the modern town of St. Albans,—but the point is a disputed one. On receiving the submission of Cassivelaunus, and of other chiefs, or kings, fixing the tribute they should pay and taking hostages, Cæsar returned to the coast, reëmbarked his army and withdrew. His stay in Britain on this occasion was about sixty days.—Cæsar, *Gallic War*, bk. 4, ch. 20-36, and bk. 7, ch. 7-33.

ALSO IN: H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 2.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 9 and 11-12.—T. Lewin, *Invasion of Britain by Cæsar*.—F. T. Vine, *Cæsar in Kent*.—E. Guest, *Origines Celticæ*, v. 2.

A. D. 43-53.—Conquests of Claudius.—Nearly a hundred years passed after Cæsar's hasty invasion of Britain before the Romans reappeared on the island, to enforce their claim of tribute. It was under the fourth of the imperial successors of Julius Cæsar, the feeble Claudius, that the work of Roman conquest in Britain was really begun. Aulus Plautius, who commanded in Gaul, was sent over with four legions, A. D. 43, to obtain a footing and to smooth the way for the emperor's personal campaign. With him went one, Vespasian, who began in Britain to win the fame which pushed him into the imperial seat and to a great place in Roman history. Plautius and Vespasian made good their occupation of the country as far as the Thames, and planted their forces strongly on the northern bank of that river, before they summoned the emperor to their aid. Claudius came before the close of the military season, and his vanity was gratified by the nominal leading of an advance on the chief oppidum, or stronghold of the Britons, called Camulodunum, which occupied the site of the modern city of Colchester. The Trinobantes, whose capital it was, were beaten and the place surrendered. Satisfied with this easy victory, the emperor returned to Rome, to enjoy the honors of a triumph; while Vespasian, in command of the second legion, fought his way, foot by foot, into the southwest of the island, and subjugated the obstinate tribes of that region. During the next ten years, under the command of Ostorius Scapula, who succeeded Plautius, and Avitus Didius Gallus, who succeeded Ostorius, the Roman power was firmly settled in southern Britain, from the Stour, at the east, to the Exe and the Severn at the west. The Silures, of south Wales, who had resisted most stubbornly, under Caractacus, the fugitive Trinobantine prince, were subdued and Caractacus made captive. The Icenî (in Suffolk, Norfolk and Cambridgeshire) were reduced from allies to sullen dependents. The Brigantes, most powerful of all the tribes, and who held the greater part of the whole north of modern England, were still independent, but distracted by internal dissensions which Roman influence was active in keeping alive. This, stated briefly, was the extent to which the conquest of Britain was carried during the reign of Claudius.—between A. D. 43 and 54.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 51.—See also COLCHESTER.

ALSO IN: E. Guest, *Origines Celticæ*, v. 2, pt. 2, ch. 13.—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 4.

A. D. 61.—Campaigns of Suetonius Paulinus.—From 50 to 61, while Didius Gallus and his suc-

cessor Veranius commanded in Britain, nothing was done to extend the Roman acquisitions. In the latter year, Suetonius Paulinus came to the command, and a stormy period of war ensued. His first movement was to attack the Druids in the isle of Mona, or Anglesey, into which they had retreated from Gaul and Britain, in successive flights, before the implacable hostility of Rome. "In this gloomy lair, secure apparently, though shorn of might and dignity, they still persisted in the practice of their unholy superstition. . . . Here they retained their assemblies, their schools, and their oracles; here was the asylum of the fugitives; here was the sacred grove, the abode of the awful deity, which in the stillest noon of night or day the priest himself scarce ventured to enter lest he should rush unwittingly into the presence of its lord." From Segontium (modern Caernarvon) Suetonius crossed the Menai strait on rafts and boats with one of his legions, the Batavian cavalry swimming their horses. The landing was fiercely disputed by women and men, priests and worshippers; but Roman valor bore down all resistance. "From this moment the Druids disappear from the page of history; they were exterminated, we may believe, upon their own altars; for Suetonius took no half measures." This accomplished, the Roman commander was quickly called upon to meet a terrific outburst of patriotic rage on the part of the powerful nation of the Icenii, who occupied the region now forming the counties of Suffolk, Norfolk, Cambridge, and Huntingdon. They had been allies of the Romans, first; then tributaries, under their own king, and finally subjects, much oppressed. Their last king, Prasutagus, had vainly hoped to win favor for his wife and children, when he died, by bequeathing his kingdom to the Roman state. But the widowed queen, Boudicea, or Boadicea, and her daughters, were only exposed with more helplessness to the insolence and the outrages of a brutal Roman officer. They appealed to their people and maddened them by the exposure of indescribable wrongs. The rising which ensued was fierce and general beyond precedent. "The Roman officials fled, or, if arrested, were slaughtered; and a vast multitude, armed and unarmed, rolled southward to overwhelm and extirpate the intruders. To the Colne, to the Thames, to the sea, the country lay entirely open." The colony at Camulodunum (Colchester), was destroyed; Verulamium (St. Albans), and Londinium (London), were sacked and burned; not fewer than 70,000 of the Romans in Britain were slaughtered without mercy. Suetonius made haste to quit Anglesey when the dreadful news reached him, and pressed, with all speed, along the great highway of Watling street—gathering up his forces in hand as he went—to reach the awful scene of rage and terror. He had collected but 10,000 men when he confronted, at last, the vast swarm of the insurgents, on a favorable piece of ground that he had secured, in the neighborhood of Camulodunum. But, once more, the valor of undisciplined semi-barbarism wrecked itself on the firm shields of the Roman cohorts, and 80,000 Britons are said to have fallen in the merciless fight. The insurrection was crushed and Roman authority in Britain reaffirmed. But the grim Suetonius dealt so harshly with the broken people that even Rome remonstrated, and he was, presently, recalled, to give place to a more pacific commander.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 51.

ALSO IN: H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 5.
—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 5.

A. D. 78-84.—Campaigns of Agricola.—For

seventeen years after the recall of Suetonius Paulinus (61) there was a suspension of Roman conquest in Britain. The military power in the island suffered great demoralization, resulting naturally from the chaos of affairs at Rome, between Nero and Vespasian. These conditions ceased soon after the accession of the Flavian emperor, and he, who had attained first in Britain the footing from which he climbed to the throne, interested himself in the spreading of his sovereignty over the whole of the British island. C. Julius Agricola was the soldier and statesman—a great man in each character—whom he selected for the work. Agricola was made prefect or governor of Britain, A. D. 78. "Even in his first summer, when he had been but a few months in the island, and when none even of his own officers expected active service, Agricola led his forces into the country of the Ordovices, in whose mountain passes the war of independence still lingered, drove the Britons across the Menai Straits and pursued them into Anglesey, as Suetonius had done before him, by boldly crossing the boiling current in the face of the enemy. Another summer saw him advance northward into the territory of the Brigantes, and complete the organization of the district, lately reduced, between the Humber and Tyne. Struck perhaps with the natural defences of the line from the Tyne to the Solway, where the island seems to have broken, as it were, in the middle and soldered unevenly together, he drew a chain of forts from sea to sea. . . . In the third year of his command, Agricola pushed forward along the eastern coast, and, making good with roads and fortresses every inch of his progress, reached, as I imagine, the Firth of Forth. . . . Here he repeated the operations of the preceding winter, planting his camps and stations from hill to hill, and securing a new belt of territory, ninety miles across, for Roman occupation." The next two years were spent in strengthening his position and organizing his conquest. In A. D. 83 and 84 he advanced beyond the Forth, in two campaigns of hard fighting, the latter of which was made memorable by the famous battle of the Grampians, or Graupius, fought with the Caledonian hero Galgacus. At the close of this campaign he sent his fleet northward to explore the unknown coast and to awe the remoter tribes, and it is claimed that the vessels of Agricola circumnavigated the island of Britain, for the first time, and saw the Orkneys and Shetlands. The further plans of the successful prefect were interrupted by his sudden recall. Vespasian, first, then Titus, had died while he pursued his victorious course in Caledonia, and the mean Domitian was envious and afraid of his renown.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 61.

ALSO IN: Tacitus, *Agricola*.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 5.

"Having thus displayed his power, the governor now set himself to win the hearts of the natives by reforms in the administration, especially in the financial administration, and redress of grievances. . . . It was not enough to remove causes of complaint. He would also win over the natives to positive affection for the Roman rule. He was constantly urging all the wealthier Britons to come into the towns and to take part in building operations. Everywhere temples, market-places, well-built houses were rising, reared by British natives, and pledges for their future loyalty. He gathered about him the sons of the chiefs, had them instructed in liberal arts, praised their aptness to learn at the expense of their Gaulish contemporaries, listened before long to eloquent declamations, delivered, of course, in the Latin tongue, by young

Britons, gracefully clad in the Roman toga. The bath and the luxurious banquet offered their attractions not in vain to the late hunter of the forests, and as Tacitus sarcastically observes "the simple folk called that civilization (*humanitas*) which was really the beginning of slavery."—T. Hodgkin, *History of England; from the earliest times to the Norman conquest*, pp. 47-48

ALSO IN: J. H. Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, v. 1.—A. J. Church, *Early Britain*.—J. R. Green, *Making of England*.—H. C. Coote, *Romans of Britain*.

117-145.—Real subjugation of Britain.—Roman walls.—"It is not until the reign of Hadrian (117-138) that Britain really reappears in history. We find now that Southern Britain . . . has been thoroughly subjugated. Whatever disturbances occur hereafter in this part of the island until the time when the Romans leave it for good come, not from the native tribes, but from the legions themselves. Works of peace were carried on, roads constructed, towns built and enlarged, lands reclaimed from the sea. The main business of the Roman armies was to protect the province from the still unconquered tribes of the north. This was chiefly done by the construction of huge walls across the island at places where its breadth is least. . . . It was here that the first wall was built (with the Solway Firth at the western end, and Newcastle—on Tyne at the eastern)—an enormous work, exceeding in magnitude anything of the kind that the Romans constructed elsewhere, and so showing the value which they set on the province which it was intended to protect. It must not be supposed, however, that this huge fortification was finished at once. The work of completing and strengthening it seems to have been going on for more than eighty years. It was in 120 that the work was begun. In that year the Emperor Hadrian . . . came to Britain. His policy was to contract rather than to extend its boundaries, and he accordingly drew the line of fortification far within the limits to which the Roman conquests had been pushed. It consisted of five parts—a trench, a stone wall, buildings for the troops, a rampart of earth (*Vallum*), roads.

"1. *The trench.*—This keeps close to the northern side of the wall, though it has been discontinued where the wall skirts the edge of a cliff. Its dimensions vary. . . . The average has been given as 'thirty-six feet wide and fifteen feet deep.'

"2. *The wall.*—This was seventy-three miles and a half in length from Wall's End in the east to Bowness on the west. It was carefully constructed of stone, great care having been evidently bestowed on using the most suitable kinds, which have sometimes been brought from a distance. The line which it followed was purposely drawn so as to take in the highest ground. . . . It (the breadth) may be taken on an average, at eight feet, and perhaps we may put the average height, as it was, at eighteen. [See also ROMAN WALLS IN BRITAIN.]

"3. *Buildings for the troops.*—These are of the three kinds: (a) Camps (stations) were constructed at intervals of four miles (on an average) along the line of the wall. They are four-cornered. . . . Each was fortified with a wall and trench of its own. Each has four gates, streets crossing each other at right angles, after the fashion of Roman camps, and, it would seem, suburbs for the camp followers. (b) Mile-castles (*castella*) were built at average intervals of a Roman mile along the wall. . . . These were part of the wall, being of the same masonry, and having it for their northern defence. . . . (c) Between each mile-castle, four turrets or watch-towers were built,

standing therefore about three hundred yards apart. These may be called sentry-boxes. . . .

"4. *The rampart (vallum).*—This fortification consists of a trench and three earthen walls. . . . The *vallum* is not always close to the wall. It follows an easier line of country, whereas, as has been said, the wall takes in by choice the most difficult and steepest spots. . . .

"5. *The roads.*—Of these there were two: (a) A military way ran along the whole length of the wall, between it and the rampart. . . . It was intended, of course, for the rapid and easy transport of troops and stores from one point of the wall to another. . . . (b) A road ran to the south of both wall and rampart, and afforded additional accommodation, available when hostilities were not actually going on.

"This gigantic work . . . constituted one great camp, which might be used against enemies on either side. . . . It must have required at least ten thousand men to garrison it, and doubtless, could have accommodated, on an emergency, many more."—A. J. Church, *Story of Early Britain*, pp. 66-74.—"History distinctly asserts that one line of fortification, be it wall or *vallum*, was executed by Hadrian, and another by Septimius Severus."—J. H. Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, v. 1, p. 70.

2d-3d centuries.—Introduction of Christianity.—"Of Christianity in Roman Britain we have singularly few traces. . . . As to the actual date of the introduction of Christianity into our island we must be contented to confess our ignorance. The story contained in the book of Papal Lives, which was reproduced by Bede, that a certain king Lucius of Britain, about the year 180, sent over to Pope Eleutherius, asking for missionaries to instruct his people in the Christian faith, must be dismissed as the fable of a later age; nor can we speak with much certainty concerning the so-called proto-martyr, St. Alban, who is said to have suffered for the faith in the persecution of Diocletian. There can be no doubt, however, that there were some converts to Christianity in Britain during the second century, and in the third century it must have become the dominant religion here as in the rest of the empire. Towards the end of that century our island, which produced so many rival Cæsars, produced also one of the most famous of heretics, Pelagius, and of course, the existence of his heterodoxy implies also the existence of the orthodoxy out of which it sprang."—T. Hodgkin, *History of England*, pp. 75-76.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: British or Celtic church; CELTIC CHURCH: 176-507.

3rd-6th centuries.—Growth of the Celtic church.—Relations with Rome. See CELTIC CHURCH: 176-507.

208-211.—Campaigns of Severus.—A fresh inroad of the wild Caledonians of the north upon Roman Britain, in the year 208, caused the emperor Severus to visit the distant island in person, with his two worthless sons, Caracalla and Geta. He desired, it is said, to remove those troublesome youths from Rome and to subject them to the wholesome discipline of military life. The only result, so far as they were concerned, was to give Caracalla opportunities for exciting mutiny among the troops and for making several attempts against his father's life. But Severus persisted in his residence in Britain during more than two years, and till his death, which occurred at Eboracum (York) on February 4, 211. During that time he prosecuted the war against the Caledonians with great vigor, penetrating to the northern extremity of the island, and losing, it is said, above 50,000 men,

more by the hardships of the climate and the march than by the attacks of the skulking enemy. The Caledonians made a pretence of submission, at last, but were soon in arms again. Severus was then preparing to pursue them to extermination, when he died.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 6.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 5.

284-305.—Oppressive taxation under Diocletian.—Trade and labor.—Beginnings of fairs and markets.—“The administrative reforms of Diocletian and Constantine, introduced for political reasons, had added greatly to the efficiency of the government; but they also added to the weight of the *incubus* on the land. . . . The mere enumeration of the taxes as established from the time of Diocletian will speak for itself. Landowners paid a state-rent or land-tax on their estates (tributum); the soil of the conquered provinces being held in theory to have been forfeited to Rome. The amount in early times was a tenth of the annual produce (decumæ); but in later times we are told that it might run from one-fifth to one-seventh, paid either in kind or in money, on the estimated value of the land. . . . Under the Romans the landowner was also liable to find corn for the troops (Annona); he was bound to entertain officials on their journeys; and he had to keep up the roads and bridges. As the landowner paid on the produce of his land, so traders were taxed on their stock-in-trade. Estates above a certain value are liable to a Succession Duty of 5% (*vicesima hereditatum*). Handicraftsmen and laborers paid poll-tax (*capitatio*); artisans were forbidden to change their callings, lest they might evade their poll-tax (*capitatio*); artisans were forbidden to all imports and exports passing in or out of certain fiscal districts, of which Britain must have been one: 12½% (*octava*) was the rate in the latter days. One per cent was paid on all produce sold in the market; 4% being charged on the price of slaves as an article of luxury. It was to facilitate the collection of these imposts that fairs and markets were instituted, on the principle of the medieval Staples [centers of production or distribution]. We need not begin to point out how much the weight of these burdens would be aggravated by the fact that the taxes were collected and the country administered by aliens, irresponsible satraps, armed with irresistible power, and, presumably, anxious to make money and retire. The frequent references to lands at one time under cultivation, but then lying waste, speak forcibly of decay.”—J. H. Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, v. 1, pp. 102-103.

288-297.—Rebellion of Carausius.—“During the reign of Gallienus [260-268] . . . the pirate fleets of the Franks infested the British seas, and it became needful to have a fleet to protect the coast. The command of this fleet had been conferred on Carausius, a Menapian by birth; but he was suspected of conniving at piracy, in order that he might enrich himself by becoming a sharer in their booty, when they returned laden with plunder. To save himself, therefore, from punishment, he usurped the imperial power, 288, and reigned over Britain for seven years. A vast number of his coins struck in Britain have been preserved, so many that the history of Carausius has been written from his medals. He was slain at length by his minister Allectus, who usurped his power. The Franks [as allies of Allectus] had well-nigh established their power over the south portion of Britain when it was broken by Constantius, the father of Constantine the Great, who defeated Allectus in

a decisive battle, in which that usurper was slain . . . Allectus held the government of Britain for three years. Many of his coins are found.”—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 10.

ALSO IN: T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 4.

323-337.—Constantine's organization.—When the scheme of administration treated above was amended by Constantine, “Britain formed part of a vast pro-consulate, extending from Mount Atlas to the Caledonian deserts, and was governed by the Gallic prefect, through a ‘vicar’ or deputy at York. The island was divided into five new provinces. . . . Britain was under the orders of the Count of Britain, assisted by the subordinate officers. The Duke of Britain commanded in the north. The Count of the Saxon Shore, governed the ‘Maritime Tract’ and provided for the defence of the southeastern coast. The Saxon Shore on the coast of Britain must not be mistaken for the Saxon Shore on the opposite coast of France, the headquarters of which were the harbour of Boulogne. The names of the several provinces into which Britain was divided are given in the ‘Notitia,’ viz:—1. Britannia Prima, which included all the south and west of England, from the estuary of the Thames to that of the Severn. 2. Britannia Secunda, which included the Principality of Wales, bounded by the Severn on the east and the Irish Channel on the west. 3. Flavia Cæsariensis, —all the middle portion of Britain, from the Thames to the Humber and the estuary of the Dee. 4. Maxima Cæsariensis,—the Brigantian territory, lying between the estuaries of the Humber and Dee, and the Barrier of the Lower Isthmus. 5. Valentia,—the most northern portion, lying between the barrier of Hadrian and that of Antoninus.”—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 10.

367-370.—Deliverance by Theodosius.—The distracted condition of affairs in the Roman empire that soon followed the death of Constantine, which was relieved by Julian for a brief term, and which became worse at his death, proved especially ruinous to Roman Britain. The savage tribes of Caledonia—the Picts, now beginning to be associated with the Scots from Ireland—became bolder from year to year in their incursions, until they marched across the whole extent of Britain. “Their path was marked by cruelties so atrocious, that it was believed at the time and recorded by St. Jerome that they lived on human flesh. London, even, was threatened by them, and the whole island, which, like all the other provinces of the Empire, had lost every spark of military virtue, was incapable of opposing any resistance to them. Theodosius, a Spanish officer, and father of the great man of the same name who was afterwards associated in the Empire, was charged by Valentinian with the defence of Britain. He forced the Scots to fall back (A. D. 367-370), but without having been able to bring them to an engagement.”—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *Fall of the Roman Empire*, ch. 5.—“The splendour of the cities and the security of the fortifications were diligently restored by the paternal care of Theodosius, who with a strong hand confined the trembling Caledonians to the northern angle of the island, and perpetuated, by the name and settlement of the new province of Valentia, the glories of the reign of Valentinian.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 25.

383-388.—Revolt of Maximus.—In 383, four years after Theodosius the Great had been associated in the Roman sovereignty by the young emperor Gratian, and placed on the throne of the East, the generous Gratian lost his own throne, and

his life, through a revolt that was organized in Britain. "One Maximus, a Spaniard by birth, occupying a high official position in that province, forced on step by step into insurrection, by a soldiery and a people of whom he appears to have been the idol, raised the standard of revolt in the island, and passed over into Gaul, attended by a large multitude,—130,000 men and 70,000 women, says Zosimus, the Byzantine historian. This colony, settling in the Armorican peninsula, gave it the name of Brittany, which it has since retained. The rebel forces were soon victorious over the two Emperors who had agreed to share the Roman throne [Gratian and his boy-brother Valentinian who divided the sovereignty of the West between them, while Theodosius ruled the East]. Gratian they slew at Lyons; Valentinian they speedily expelled from Italy. . . . Theodosius adopted the cause of his brother Emperor" and overthrew Maximus.—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome*, lecture 5.—See **ROME: Empire: 379-395.**

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 27.

5th-6th century.—Traditional history. See **ARTHURIAN LEGEND; MYTHOLOGY: Celtic: Roman period.**

407.—Usurpation of Constantine.—"The Roman soldiers in Britain, seeing that the Empire was falling to pieces under the feeble sway of Honorius, and fearing lest they, too, should soon be ousted from their dominion in the island (part of which was already known as the Saxon Shore) clothed three usurpers successively with the imperial purple [407], falling, as far as social position was concerned, lower and lower in their choice each time. The last and least ephemeral of these rulers was a private soldier named Constantine, and chosen for no other reason but his name, which was accounted lucky, as having been already borne by a general who had been carried by a British army to supreme dominion."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 1, ch. 5.—The usurper Constantine soon led his legions across the channel into Gaul, then ravaged by the Vandals, Sueves, Alans and Burgundians who passed the Rhine in 406. He was welcomed with joy by the unhappy people who found themselves abandoned to the barbarians. Some successes which the new Constantine had, in prudent encounters with detached parties of the German invaders, were greatly magnified, and gave prestige to his cause. He was still more successful, for a time, in buying the precarious friendship of some tribes of the enemy, and made, on the whole, a considerable show of dominion in Gaul during two or three years. The seat of his government was established at Arles, to which city the offices and court of the Roman Prefect of Gaul had retreated from Trèves in 402. With the help of a considerable army of barbarian auxiliaries (a curious mixture of Scots, Moors and Marcomanni) he extended his sovereignty over Spain. He even extorted from the pusillanimous court at Ravenna a recognition of his usurped royalty, and promised assistance to Honorius against the Goths. But the tide of fortune presently turned. The lieutenant of Constantine in Spain, Count Gerontius, became for some reason disaffected and crowned a new usurper, named Maximus. In support of the latter he attacked Constantine and shut him up in Arles. At the same time, the emperor Honorius, at Ravenna, having made peace with the Goths, sent his general Constantius against the Gallo-British usurper. Constantius, approaching Arles, found it already besieged by Gerontius. The latter was abandoned by his troops, and fled, to be slain soon afterwards.

Arles capitulated to the representative of the great name which Honorius still bore, as titular *imperator* of Rome. Constantine was sent to Ravenna, and put to death on the way (411).—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 31.

ALSO IN: P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, bk. 3, ch. 10.

410.—Abandoned by the Romans.—"Up to the moment . . . when the Imperial troops quitted Britain, we see them able easily to repel the attacks of its barbarous assailants. When a renewal of their inroads left Britain weak and exhausted at the accession of the Emperor Honorius, the Roman general Stilicho renewed the triumphs which Theodosius had won. The Piet was driven back afresh, the Saxon boats chased by his galleys as far as the Orkneys, and the Saxon Shore probably strengthened with fresh fortresses. But the campaign of Stilicho was the last triumph of the Empire in its western waters. The struggle Rome had waged so long drew in fact to its end at the opening of the fifth century her resistance suddenly broke down; and the savage mass of barbarism with which she had battled broke in upon the Empire. . . . The strength of the Empire, broken everywhere by military revolts, was nowhere more broken than in Britain, where the two legions which remained quartered at Richborough and York set up more than once their chiefs as Emperors and followed them across the channel in a march upon Rome. The last of these pretenders, Constantine, crossed over to Gaul in 407 with the bulk of the soldiers quartered in Britain, and the province seems to have been left to its own defence; for it was no longer the legionaries, but 'the people of Britain' who, 'taking up arms,' repulsed a new onset of the barbarians. . . . They appealed to Honorius to accept their obedience, and replace the troops. But the legions of the Empire were needed to guard Rome itself: and in 410 a letter of the Emperor bade Britain provide for its own government and its own defence. Few statements are more false than those which picture the British provincials as cowards, or their struggle against the barbarian as a weak and unworthy one. Nowhere, in fact, through the whole circuit of the Roman world, was so long and so desperate a resistance offered to the assailants of the Empire. . . . For some thirty years after the withdrawal of the legions the free province maintained an equal struggle against her foes. Of these she probably counted the Saxons as still the least formidable. . . . It was with this view that Britain turned to what seemed the weakest of her assailants, and strove to find . . . troops whom she could use as mercenaries against the Pict."—J. R. Green, *Making of England*, introduction.

ALSO IN: J. M. Lappenberg, *History of England under the Anglo-Saxon kings*, v. 1, pp. 57-66.

411.—Survivals of Roman occupation.—Character of social organization.—Influence of the conquerors.—Roads.—"For trunk lines of communication the system of roads was complete, extending to the uttermost corners of Cornwall and Wales; the bridges appear to have served the Anglo-Saxons all their time. Latin, as a spoken language, must have lingered on for an indefinite period; but all culture and civilization speedily disappeared, as is proved by the low ebb to which the arts of making pottery and glass, and the art of making or rather imitating coins at once sank after the departure of the Romans. On the other hand the native Fauna and Flora must have

received some valuable additions. Among these we may notice the plane, chestnut, walnut, English elm, lime, and poplar, which are believed to date from Roman times as do the fallow deer and the rabbit; the cherry and the vine; the raddish and the pea. Abiding traces of the Roman occupation may also be found in the customs connected with the tœure and cultivation of the soil, a domain in which use and want exhibit a surprising vitality. Thus along with their bridges and their fortifications the Romans appear to have bequeathed to their successors the principle of making the maintenance of these works a primary burden on land. Lastly, the agricultural serf of later times, attached to the soil and irremovable from it, not a slave, nor yet a freeman, a man who had rights and who could acquire property, looks very like a survival of the Roman *colonus*."—J. H. Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, pp. 104-105.

"It seems probable that the prevailing type of social organization during the Roman period was the villa or great estate owned by a British proprietor and dotted over with the cottages of British serfs or slaves, whose labor was directed for his lord's benefit by a *villicus* or farm bailiff, sometimes himself a slave. . . . The same (doubt) may be said of the larger question, how far the influence exerted by our Roman conquerors during the four centuries of their stay lasted on after the departure of the legions. That Britain was not assimilated as Gaul was, is admitted by all, the mere fact that Welsh is not, like French, an offshoot from Latin, being in itself a sufficient proof of the difference between the two conquests; but why the Romanization of Britain was so much less thorough; how far it did after all extend and what influences modified or destroyed it; these are all questions still unsolved, to which, however, we may, perhaps, some day get an answer from a more thorough and scientific study of Celtic literature, and of Romano-British antiquities."—T. Hodgkin, *History of England: from the earliest times to the Norman conquest*, pp. 77-78.—"On one point we can speak with certainty. The Roman occupation of the island was complete. The remains of their houses, their camps, their worship, their domestic life, literally abound. Nor was this occupation simply military. It is sufficient, for proof of this, to point to the remains of such houses as are to be seen at Bignor, and Chedworth. . . . It is clear that wealthy Romans took up their abode in this island; and wealthy men do not live in a country that is not thoroughly settled. But how far their influence touched the native population remains, and probably must remain, unknown."—A. J. Church, *Story of early Britain*, pp. 90-91.

ALSO IN: G. L. Gomme, *Romano-British remains*.

"Of all the marks made by our imperial conquerors in this island, the most distinct and ineffaceable was that made by them as road-makers. Often indeed their works survive only as boundaries between parishes or counties. . . . The prime object of the officer charged with the work was essentially military, and for watching the movements of barbarian insurgents, or preventing the ravages of marauders, the crests of the hills successively surmounted by the marching legions were invaluable posts of observation. The chief high-ways of the Romans, . . . converging as most of them do, towards the 'town anciently named Londinium,' coincide in a remarkable manner with the main lines of our modern railroad communication. The Watling Street, running from the neighborhood of London to Etoctum (a little north of

Birmingham) and thence to Deva (Chester), corresponds with the London and North-Western Railway; while another road which generally bears the same name and which traverses Yorkshire and Northumberland is less accurately represented by the North-Eastern. . . . The imperfect character of the Roman conquest of the district which we now call Wales is evidenced by the feeble and fragmentary traces of Roman roads now to be found in the principality."—T. Hodgkin, *History of England: from the earliest times to the Norman conquest*, pp. 73-74.—See also ROMAN ROADS OF BRITAIN.

449-633.—Anglo-Saxon conquest. See BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-6th centuries; and ENGLAND: 449-473, to 547-633.

6th century.—Unsubdued Britons.—"The Britons were soon restricted to the western parts of the island, where they maintained themselves in several small states, of which those lying to the east yielded more and more to Germanic influence; the others protected by their mountains, preserved for a considerable time a gradually decreasing independence. . . . In the south-west we meet with the powerful territory of Damnonia, the kingdom of Arthur, which bore also the name of West Wales. Damnonia, at a later period, was limited to Dyvnaint, or Devonshire, by the separation of Cernau, or Cornwall. The districts called by the Saxons those of the Sumorsætas, of the Thorn-sætas (Dorsetshire), and the Wilt-sætas were lost to the kings of Dyvnaint at an early period; though for centuries afterwards a large British population maintained itself in those parts among the Saxon settlers, as well as among the Defnsætas, long after the Saxon conquest of Dyvnaint, who for a considerable time preserved to the natives of that shire the appellation of the 'Welsh kind.' Cambria (Cymru), the country which at the present day we call Wales, was divided into several states." The chief of these early states was Venedotia (Gwynedd), the king of which was supreme over the other states. Among these latter were Dimetia (Dyved), or West Wales; Powys, which was east of Gwynedd and Snowdon mountain; Gwent (Monmouthshire) or southeast Wales, the country of the Silures. "The usages and laws of the Cambrians were in all these states essentially the same. An invaluable and venerable monument of them, although of an age in which the Welsh had long been subject to the Anglo-Saxons, and had adopted many of their institutions and customs, are the laws of the king Howel Dda, who reigned in the early part of the 10th century. . . . The partition of Cambria into several small states is not, as has often been supposed, the consequence of a division made by king Rodri Mawr, or Roderic the Great, among his sons. . . . Of Dyfed, during the first centuries after the coming of the Saxons, we know very little; but with regard to Gwynedd, which was in constant warfare with Northumbria and Mercia, our information is less scanty: of Gwent, also, as the bulwark of Dimetia, frequent mention occurs. On the whole we are less in want of a mass of information respecting the Welsh, than of accuracy and precision in that which we possess. . . . An obscurity still more dense than that over Wales involves the district lying to the north of that country, comprised under the name of Cumbria [see CUMBRIA]."—J. M. Lappenberg, *History of England under the Anglo-Saxon kings*, v. 1, pp. 119-122.

635.—Defeat of the Welsh by the English of Bernicia. See HEAVENFIELD, BATTLE OF THE.

For history following the Celtic and Roman periods of Britain, see ENGLAND.

ALSO IN: Ammianus Marcellinus, *History*. A valuable source of information for this period, though untrustworthy in places. Written about 370 A.D.—Cæsar, *De bello Gallico*.—C. J. Capitolinus, *Scriptores historiae Linguae* (*Lives of the Emperors*), written during the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine, to whom it is dedicated. A defense of Roman policy in Britain.—Dio (Dion) Cassius, *History of Rome*, written early in the third century. Most complete account, and leading authority for this period.—Pausanias, and Plutarch, *Lives*.—Tacitus, *Annals, histories, Germania and life of Agricola*.—J. Zonaras, *Chronicon*, the work of a Byzantine scholar of the twelfth century. Produces valuable portions of Dio Cassius, not preserved elsewhere.—H. C. Coote, *Romans of Britain*.—A. J. Church, *Early Britain*.—G. L. Gomme, *Romano-British remains*. Best monograph on a neglected subject.—J. R. Green, *Making of England*. Good summary of this period.—T. Hodgkin, *History of England: from the earliest times to the Norman conquest*.—J. H. Ramsay, *Foundations of England*, v. 1.—J. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, valuable especially for Roman contributions.

BRITANNI. See **BRITANNIA**: Origin of the name.

BRITANNIA, Origin of the name.—“Many are the speculations which have been started as to the etymology of the word Britannia, and among the later ones have been some of the most extraordinary. Yet surely it is not one of those philological difficulties which we need despair of solving. Few persons will question that the name Britannia is connected with the name Britanni, in the same way as Germania, Gallia, Graecia, &c., with Germani, Galli, Graeci, &c., and it is not unreasonable to assume that Britanni was originally nothing more than the Latinized form of the Welsh word Brython, a name which we find given in the Triads to one of the three tribes who first colonized Britain. . . . From the Welsh ‘brith’ and Irish ‘brit,’ parti-coloured, may have come Brython, which on this hypothesis would signify the painted men. . . . As far then as philology is concerned, there seems to be no objection to our assuming Brython, and therefore also Britanni, to signify the painted men. How this Celtic name first came to denote the inhabitants of these islands is a question, the proper answer to which lies deeper than is generally supposed. . . . The ‘Britannic Isles’ is the oldest name we find given to these islands in the classical writers. Under this title Polybius (3. 57) refers to them in connection with the tin-trade, and the well-known work on the Kosmos (c. 3) mentions ‘The Britannic Isles, Albion and Ierne.’ . . . But in truth neither the authorship nor the age of this last-named work has been satisfactorily settled, and therefore we cannot assert that the phrase ‘The Britannic Isles’ came into use before the second century B. C. The name Britannia first occurs in the works of Cæsar and was not improbably invented by him.”—E. Guest, *Origines Celticae*, v. 2, ch. 1.—The etymology contended for by Dr. Guest is scouted by Mr. Rhys, on principles of Celtic phonology. He, on the contrary, traces relations between the name Brython and “The Welsh vocables ‘brethyn,’ cloth and its coneners,” and concludes that it signified “a clothed or cloth-clad people.”—J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain*, ch. 6.

BRITANNIA PRIMA AND SECUNDA. See **BRITAIN**: 323-337.

BRITISH AFRICA. See **AFRICA**: Modern European Occupation, 1914: Distribution of European Sovereignty; **BRITISH EAST AFRICA**; **NYASALAND**

PROTECTORATE; **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**; **SOUTH-WEST AFRICA**; **BRITISH WEST AFRICA**.

BRITISH CENTRAL AFRICA. See **NYASALAND PROTECTORATE**.

BRITISH COLONIES. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Governments: Colonies and protectorates.

BRITISH COLUMBIA, the western province of the Dominion of Canada, lying directly north of the state of Washington and bordering on the Pacific ocean. Vancouver island and Queen Charlotte islands belong to the province. The area of British Columbia is placed at 390,000 square miles, with an estimated population of 523,369. During the last twenty years the country has developed rapidly through the discovery of precious metals in the Kootenay, Boundary and Atlin districts. See **CANADA**: Agriculture; **U. S. A.**: Economic Map.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **ATHAPASCAN FAMILY**.

1577-1846.—**Early settlements**.—**Boundary established**.—“Drake’s freebooting voyage in 1577-1579 for the laudable object of looting the Spanish settlements may be said to be the beginning of the history of our hold on British Columbia. . . . In 1778 Captain Cook . . . established himself in Nootka Sound. . . . Although Captain Vancouver explored the coast, the explorations inland are due to Sir Alexander Mackenzie, who, starting from the settled districts of eastern Canada, made the first overland journey through that part of the Rocky mountains which lies in British territory. . . . In 1825 the Hudson’s Bay Company established their headquarters at Fort Vancouver on the Columbia River, which as a commercial center has been since entirely eclipsed by Portland (Oregon). . . . [A treaty was adopted in 1846 between the United States and Great Britain following a dispute concerning the boundary of British Columbia and the state of Washington.] The result of this compromise was that the forty-ninth parallel was adopted as the International boundary in the South.”—J. B. Thornhill, *British Columbia in the making*, pp. 1, 6, 8.—See also **OREGON**: 1818-1846.

1858-1871.—**Establishment of provincial government**.—**Union with the Dominion of Canada**.—“British Columbia, the largest of the Canadian provinces, cannot be said to have had any existence as a colony until 1858. Previous to that year provision had been made by a series of Acts for extending the Civil and Criminal Laws of the Courts of Lower and Upper Canada over territories not within any province, but otherwise the territory was used as a hunting ground of the Hudson’s Bay Company. The disputes and difficulties that arose from the influx of miners owing to the gold discoveries in 1856, resulted in the revocation of the licence of the Hudson’s Bay Company, and the passing of the Imperial Act 21 & 22 Vic., c. 99, to provide for the government of British Columbia. . . . Sir James Douglas was appointed Governor and by his commission he was authorised to make laws, institutions and ordinances for the peace, order and good government of British Columbia, by proclamation issued under the public seal of the colony. . . . The Governor continued to legislate by proclamation until 1864, when his proclamations gave way to Ordinances passed by the Governor with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council. . . . Up to this time the Governor of British Columbia was also Governor of the neighbouring island of Vancouver. Vancouver’s Island is historically an older colony than British Columbia. Though discovered in 1592 it

remained practically unknown to Europeans for two centuries, and it was not until 1849, when the island was granted to the Hudson's Bay Company, that a Governor was appointed. . . . In 1865 the legislature of the island adopted a series of resolutions in favour of union with British Columbia, and by the Imperial Act 29 & 30 Vic. (i), c. 67, the two colonies were united. . . . By an Order in Council dated the 16th day of May, 1871, British Columbia was declared to be a province of the Dominion from the 20th of July, 1871."—J. E. C. Munro, *Constitution of Canada*, ch. 2.—See also CANADA: 1805-1866; 1867; 1869-1873.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 27: *British Columbia*.

1872.—Settlement of the San Juan water boundary dispute. See SAN JUAN OR NORTH-WESTERN WATER BOUNDARY QUESTION.

1886-1888.—Extension of the Canadian Pacific Railway to Vancouver.—Founding of the city.—"The Canadian Pacific Railway Company entered into a bond for \$250,000 to complete the extension to Vancouver by December 31, 1886. . . . In spite of obstructions the first railway train in charge of Engineer Robert Mee reached Vancouver in May, 1887. . . . With the knowledge that the railway would be extended to Coal Harbour, the villages of Granville and Hastings, which had depended for their existence upon the lumber industry, especially the mills at Moodyville and Granville, and had for years drawn out a sort of 'Sleepy Hollow' existence broken only by the arrival of the lumber-carrying vessels, sprang suddenly into a new life. From the outset great faith was shown in the future of Vancouver—the City of Imperial Destiny. It was incorporated on April 6, 1886. . . . By June, 1886, the population numbered about two thousand. The site was heavily timbered; the work of hewing out a city, enormous. Amidst the jumble of charred logs and blackened stumps the city gradually took shape, elbowing its way steadily and surely into the primeval forest. On Sunday, June 13, 1886, a heavy wind sprang up, which, increasing in velocity, fanned the fires that had been lighted to clear portions of the site. . . . In a few minutes the whole city was ablaze. . . . In less than two hours nothing but ashes covered the terminal city. . . . Nothing daunted, the people, before the ashes were cold, set themselves to the task of erecting a new, a finer, and grander city. . . . Within two years the population numbered eight thousand; eighteen miles of graded streets and twenty-four miles of excellent sidewalk had been laid; sewerage had been installed; wharves, docks, warehouses, foundries, factories, and public institutions had been established; and an excellent waterworks system completed. In 1888 a charter was obtained for a street car service; this was the root from which the British Columbia Electric Railway grew. And in the advancement of the city of Vancouver and the surrounding district no factor has been more potent than the unexcelled service of this company—a service which has kept pace most remarkably with the wonderful development of the district.—F. W. Howay, *British Columbia*, v. 2, pp. 434-436.

1893.—Dispute with the United States on the subject of pelagic sealing. See BERING SEA QUESTION.

1898.—Vote on question of prohibition. See CANADA: 1898 (September).

1901-1902.—Increased representation in Parliament. See CANADA: 1901-1902.

1903-1916.—Principal improvements under Sir Richard McBride.—"To enumerate some of the principal improvements which have been effected

under Mr. [Sir Richard] McBride's able governance [1903-1916]: First and foremost must be set the placing of the province on a sound financial basis, the accumulated surplus being sufficient to liquidate the whole funded debt. The other changes wrought by him include the bringing the Canadian Northern transcontinental line into British Columbia; the building of the Kettle Valley railway; the satisfactory arrangements with the Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Company regarding its terminus at Prince Rupert; the legislation conserving the water-power and the timber; the legislation compelling lumbermen to manufacture within the province all timber cut on Crown lands; the endeavor to preserve the public lands as far as possible for the actual settler; the inauguration of the Provincial University; the very large increase in public works, especially roads, trails, and bridges, throughout the province; the opening up of the undeveloped—untouched—northern portion of the province; the impetus given to agriculture and fruit growing; the establishment of a new, modern, and thoroughly-equipped hospital for the mentally afflicted, and of a model farm in connection therewith that will be an object lesson to the whole of Canada; the improvement of the civil service and the appointment of a civil service commission; legislation to give greater safety to workers in mines and the inauguration of stations for rescue work in coal mines; and an energetic publicity work which has been one of the greatest factors in inducing settlement and the introduction of capital."—F. W. Howay, *British Columbia*, v. 2, p. 550.

1914-1918.—Attitude on prohibition. See CANADA: 1914-1918: War time prohibition.

1920.—Construction of railroads. See RAILROADS: 1920: British Columbia.

1921.—Electoral system. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

ALSO IN: F. Fairford, *British Columbia*.

BRITISH-DUTCH WAR. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 to 1902

BRITISH EAST AFRICA.—British East Africa is composed of a large area on the mainland including the Kenya Colony (q. v.) (the former East African protectorate), the Uganda protectorate, the islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, and what was, until the treaty of Versailles in 1919, German East Africa, now known as the Tanganyika territory. This last named territory is, properly speaking, not an integral part of British East Africa but is administered by Great Britain under a mandate. For the Uganda protectorate, etc., the Zanzibar protectorate, Kenya Colony and the Tanganyika territory refer to their respective names.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; 1914: Distribution of European sovereignty; and Map; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

1895.—Territory transferred to the British government. See AFRICA: Later 19th century: 1884-1889; and BRITISH EMPIRE: Expansion: 19th century: Africa: East Africa: 1895.

1895-1897.—Its creation and extent.—Existence of slavery.—War in the province of Seyyidieh.—Report of the commissioner.—"The British East Africa Protectorate is bounded on the east by the Indian Ocean, on the west by the Uganda Protectorate, and on the south-west by the Anglo-German frontier, which, starting from the mouth of the River Umba, runs in a generally north-west direction till it strikes the eastern shore of Lake Victoria Nyanza at the point at which it is intersected by the 1st parallel of south latitude. To the north and north-east it is bounded by the Italian sphere of influence from which it is

divided by the River Juba up to parallel 6° of north latitude, and thence by a line running along that parallel until it reaches the Blue Nile. The frontier between the East Africa and Uganda Protectorates is only partially defined: starting from the German frontier, it follows the Guaso Masai River as far as Sosian, thence strikes north-east to the Kedong River, which it follows to its source, and thence runs in a northerly direction along the Likipia escarpment or eastern lip of the great 'meridional rift.' It is, however, still undecided whether or not it should be deflected, for greater convenience in dealing with the Uganda Masai, so as to leave to Uganda the region between the southern portion of the Likipia escarpment and the so-called Aberdare range. In view of the uncertainty existing as to the inland boundaries, it is impossible to give the exact area of the territory, though it may be estimated roughly at 280,000 square miles. It will be sufficient here to state that its coast-line, including in the term the Islands of Lamu, Manda, and Patta, which are separated from the mainland by narrow channels, is 405 miles long, whilst its greatest breadth, measured from the centre of the district of Gosha on the Juba to the Likipia escarpment, is 460 miles.

"The Protectorate in its present form was constituted on the 1st July, 1895. Previous to that date a Protectorate had been declared on the 4th November, 1890, over those portions of the territory which formed part of the Zanzibar Sultanate, and on the 19th November of the same year over Witu and the whole of the coast between the Tana and Juba Rivers. The administration of this second Protectorate was confided in 1893, with the exception of those portions of the coast between the Tana and Juba which belonged to the Zanzibar Sultanate and were rented by the Imperial British East Africa Company from him, to the Sultan of Zanzibar, but without being fused in or united to the Sultanate. In September, 1894, a Protectorate was established under an independent Commissioner over Uganda, and was subsequently defined as extending over the whole of the intervening territory from which the Imperial British East Africa Company had withdrawn its effective control, that is, as far as the western limits of its district of Kikuyu, which still constitutes the frontier between the East Africa and Uganda Protectorates. The remainder of the British sphere between the Zanzibar and Uganda boundaries and the Tana River and German frontier was placed under Her Majesty's protection on the 1st July, 1895, and the whole of the above-described territories to the east of the Uganda Protectorate were at the same time fused into one administrative whole under the title of the 'East Africa Protectorate.'

"British East Africa includes three district sovereignties, i. e.: 1. The mainland territories of the Sultan of Zanzibar. 2. The Sultanate of Witu. 3. The remainder of the Protectorate consisting of the old 'chartered territory' of the Imperial British East Africa Company and of the region between the Tana and the Juba not included either in Zanzibar or Witu. This division, which I propose for the sake of convenience to style British East Africa proper, is not, of course, technically under Her Majesty's sovereignty, and is divided among a number of tribes and races under our Protectorate, but it differs from Zanzibar and Witu in that the status of the Chiefs exercising authority there is not recognized by international law or at least by any international engagement.

"The mainland dominions of the Sultan of Zanzibar included in the Protectorate (for he pos-

sesses certain coast ports to the north of it now leased to Italy) consist—(1.) Of a strip of coast 10 miles deep from high-water mark, extending from the mouth of the River Umha on the south to Kipini on the Ozi on the north; and (2.) Of a series of islands off the coast between the Ozi and the Juba and of the mainland town of Kisimayu with a radius of 10 miles around it. . . . The State of Witu extends along the coast from Kipini to Kwyhoo, its northern boundary being a straight line drawn in 1887 by Commissioners representing the German and Zanzibar Governments due west from Kwyhoo to a point a few miles east of the Ozi River. It was founded, or rather gradually grew up, in the years from 1860 to 1885, round a colony of outlaws. . . . When the German Government first interested itself, about a decade ago, in East African affairs, it recognized the little colony of outlaws and refugees from the coast towns which had grown up in Witu, as an independent State. . . . Accordingly, on transferring this Protectorate by the Treaty of 1890 to Great Britain, it stipulated by Article II of that Agreement, that the sovereignty of the Sultan of Witu over the territory formally defined as his in 1887 should be recognized by the new Protecting Power. . . .

"Beyond the Zanzibar and Witu limits, the territories comprised in the Protectorate are ruled directly under Her Majesty by the British officers in charge of them. All the various tribes, Mahomedan and heathen, retain, however, their respective native Rulers and institutions. . . . For a period of ten months from the transfer from the Imperial British East Africa Company to Her Majesty's Government, the country now forming the Province of Seyyidieh, was the theatre of disturbances, which for a time retarded the development of the territory, and diverted the attention of the Administration from useful schemes of improvement that might otherwise have been immediately set on foot. These disturbances began under the Administration of the Imperial British East Africa Company, their immediate cause being a dispute over the succession to the Chieftainship of Takaungu between Rashid-bin-Salim, the son, and Mubarak-bin-Rashid, the nephew of the former Chief. . . . The Company supported Rashid, who, though younger in years than Mubarak, was friendly to the English. . . . Though the rebellion of the Mazrui Chiefs retarded to some extent the development of the province, and entailed in its suppression considerable expense, its occurrence, under the special circumstances which attended it, has not been an unmixed evil. We have broken once for all the power of several influential Arab potentates, who were never thoroughly subjugated either by the Sultans or the Company, and whose ambitions and semi-independent position would sooner or later have involved us in trouble with them had we attempted to make the authority of our Administration effective, and to interfere with the slavery, and even Slave Trade, which flourished under their protection."—Sir A. Hardinge, *Report (Great Britain, Parliamentary Publications: Papers by Command, Africa, No. 7, 1897, pp. 1-3, and 65.)*

1900-1901.—Rising of Ogaden Somalis.—In the later part of November, 1900, news reached Zanzibar of a rising of the Somali tribe called Ogadens in the Jubaland province of the British East Africa protectorate, and that the British sub-commissioner, Mr. Jenner, had probably been killed. The Somalis are a very warlike race, supposed to be Gallas by descent, with an admixture of Arab blood. In the following February it was

announced that Aff-Madu, the headquarters of the Ogaden Somalis, had been occupied without opposition by the British punitive expedition sent to exact reparation for the murder of Mr. Jenner, and that the Ogaden sultan was a prisoner. See also **MOMBASA**; **SOMALILAND**.

1914-1918.—Part played in World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: VI. Africa: c; 1917: VII. East African campaign: a.

1920.—Reorganization of territories.—Partition of former German colony.—In July the "protectorate" became a Crown Colony and received the name of Kenya Colony. The former German possessions in East Africa were partitioned between Great Britain and Belgium in accordance with the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles. The greater portion was placed under the British mandate, while the northeastern section, embracing the province of Urundi and nearly the whole of the province of Ruanda, was handed over to Belgian administration under the League of Nations. The frontier between the two mandatory spheres runs from the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika at Megera for about 150 miles north-eastwards, and thence almost due north to the point where the Muvumba River pierced the former border between German East Africa and Uganda. The Belgian sphere runs contiguous to the Belgian Congo. The British mandatory sphere was kept separate from the Kenya Colony and given the name of Tanganyika Territory, as being distinct from a British possession.

1920.—British control of German territory by treaty of Versailles. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Treaties promoting expansion: 1920.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA COMPANY, a concern founded in 1888 and granted a royal charter to exploit certain concessions obtained from the sultan of Zanzibar by William Mackinnon, an English merchant and shipping magnate. The company, which was started with a capital of £240,000, soon fell into trouble with the German East Africa Company, which also had acquired concessions from the sultan of Zanzibar. Diplomatic negotiations between Bismarck and Lord Salisbury had led to the expectation that German operations would be confined to the south of Victoria Nyanza. Rivalry between the two companies brought about the intervention of their respective governments and, finally, in 1895, the British East Africa Company surrendered its territorial rights and properties to the British government for the sum of £250,000.—See also **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century; **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Expansion: 19th century: Africa: East Africa: 1893.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA PROTECTORATE. (See **AFRICA**: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.) This title ceased to exist in 1920, when it was changed to Kenya colony.

BRITISH EAST INDIA COMPANY. See **EAST INDIA COMPANY**, **BRITISH**; and **INDIA**: 1600-1702.

BRITISH EMPIRE

EXTENT

"Britain had beyond dispute the greatest colonial empire in the world. With the aggregate of her domain there was nothing to compare except the possessions of the United States, the vaster but less valuable territory of Russia, and the immense expanses of China. The empire had been built up easily because England's geographical position gave her advantages over the greatest of her [rivals] and her control of the sea enabled her to add to it in peace and as a result of every great war in which she fought. The area of the British Isles was only 120,000 square miles, that of England less than half as much, and the population of the United Kingdom only about forty-five million souls. But England, which at the beginning of the sixteenth century was one of the less important countries in Europe, was now the greatest, and the empire of which she was the center embraced a fourth of the land surface of the earth. From this vast area came a large part of the world's tin, half of its gold, a third of its coal, a third of its wool, a fifth of its wheat, and other products without number. Its weakness was that it was widely scattered, with the seas of the world separating its principal ports, and great land powers growing ever more powerful near them. It was held together by the thing which had built it up, the most powerful navy in the world. The British Empire was, in some respects, a strange and conglomerate affair. Not only were its parts widely separated and distant, but it embraced peoples of every race and religion in all stages of culture and political progress. Its elements were far more diverse than those which composed Russia or Austria Hungary. Outside of the British Isles there were in this empire some twelve

million of English people, and about three million more of the white race. These people were mostly in Canada, Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. Of the remaining 365,000,000 all but 50,000,000 were in the vast aggregation of races in the Indian domain while in Africa there were 40 million negroes, and in the other lands some millions of Malays, Chinese and others. Most of the Mohammedans of the world were under British rule, as were Brahmans, Buddhists and many others. In holding together these peoples the British showed themselves the ablest colonial administrators the world had ever seen."—E. R. Turner, *Europe since 1870*, pp. 379-380.

The vast agglomeration of self-governing states, dominions, protectorates and colonies which make up what is commonly called the British Empire, and for which the title of "British Commonwealth" has been suggested, forms the largest political entity the world has ever seen. Statistics of its territorial extent and population are difficult to collect and most authorities differ on the subject. As a result of the war immense additions have been made to the territories under British rule. A general census was taken in 1921, of which the figures will not be available for some time. A rough provisional estimate places about 13,000,000 square miles and over 450,000,000 human beings under the aegis of Great Britain. (This includes the mandates.) About 65,000,000 of the population are self-governing citizens, the remainder being subjects. Figures based on the Statesman's Year-Book, 1921, estimate the area, exclusive of mandates, at 12,780,380 square miles and the population at 442,263,996, about "one-fourth of the world's inhabitants" and "more than one-fifth of the total land surface."

The former German colonies assigned to Great

THE BRITISH EMPIRE, 1921

	Area (sq. mi.)	Population		Area (sq. mi.)	Population
<i>United Kingdom:</i>	121,633	47,093,996	Mauritius and Dependencies	809	385,000
<i>Europe:</i>			Seychelles	156	25,000
Gibraltar	2	17,000	Somaliland	68,000	300,000
Malta	118	225,000	East Africa Protectorate	246,800	2,807,000
Total Europe	120	242,000	Uganda Protectorate	109,119	3,318,000
<i>India:</i>			Zanzibar and Pemba	1,020	200,000
British	1,093,074	244,267,000	Nyasaland	39,573	1,218,000
Feudatory States	709,555	70,889,000	Union of South Africa	475,100	6,000,000
Total India	1,802,629	315,156,000	Rhodesia	440,000	1,699,000
<i>Asia (except India):</i>			Swaziland	6,678	100,000
Cyprus	3,584	311,000	Basutoland	11,716	406,000
Aden, Perim, Socotra	10,387	60,000	Bechuanaland	275,000	125,000
Ceylon	25,481	4,686,000	Egypt	350,000	12,751,000
Straits Settlements	1,600	846,000	Anglo-Egyptian Sudan	1,014,000	3,400,000
Federated Malay States	27,506	1,280,000	Total Africa	3,487,552	52,600,000
Other Malay States	23,486	930,000	<i>America:</i>		
Borneo, Brunei, and Sarawak	77,106	840,000	Canada	3,729,665	8,360,000
Hong Kong and Territory	391	561,000	Newfoundland and Labrador	162,734	259,000
Wei-hai-wei	285	150,000	British Honduras	8,592	42,000
Total Asia (except India)	169,826	9,664,000	British Guiana	89,500	311,000
<i>Australasia:</i>			Bermuda	19	22,000
Australian Commonwealth	2,974,581	5,141,000	<i>West Indies:</i>		
Papua	90,540	200,000	Bahamas	4,404	60,000
New Zealand	104,751	1,200,000	Turks and Caicos Islands	224	5,600
Fiji	7,083	163,000	Jamaica	4,207	891,000
Tonga, Solomon, and Gilbert Islands	11,450	205,000	Cayman Islands	89	5,400
Total Australasia	3,188,405	6,909,000	Barbados	166	192,000
<i>Africa:</i>			Windward Islands	516	180,000
Ascension	34	250	Leeward Islands	715	128,000
St. Helena	47	3,650	Trinidad and Tobago	1,974	381,000
<i>West Africa:</i>			Total West Indies	12,295	1,843,000
Nigeria	332,000	16,750,000	Falkland Islands	7,500 ²	3,250 ²
Gold Coast and Protectorate	80,000	1,500,000	Total America	4,010,215	10,840,000
Sierra Leone and Protectorate	31,000	1,404,000	<i>Summary:</i>		
Gambia and Protectorate	4,500	208,000	United Kingdom	121,633	47,093,996
Total West Africa	447,500	19,862,000	Europe	120	242,000
			India	1,802,629	315,156,000
			Asia (except India)	160,826	9,664,000
			Australasia	3,188,405	6,909,000
			Africa	3,487,552	52,600,000
			America	4,010,215	10,840,000
			Total	12,780,380	442,263,996

¹ Including area of Protectorate.

² Including South Georgia, 1,000 square miles and population 1,000.

Britain are: Tanganyika Territory (late German East Africa, of which a portion was placed under Belgian control); estimated area: 384,180 square miles; population (1913), 7,659,898. Protectorate of South-West Africa (late German South-West Africa), administered under a mandate by the Union of South Africa: area, 322,200 square miles; population, about 170,000. Togoland (West Africa): area, 33,700 square miles; population, about 1,032,000. Cameroon Protectorate (West Africa): British area, 33,000 square miles; population, 2,540,000 (See also AFRICA: Map). New Guinea, in the Western Pacific, includes (1) Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, 70,000 square miles; population, about 160,000; (2) Bismarck Archipelago, now called New Britain: area, 10,000 square miles; (3) New Mecklenburg (now New Ireland): area, 4,600

square miles; and (4) several smaller groups of islands, area, about 1,150 square miles, with a total population (for the Archipelago) estimated at 188,000. In addition to these territories, it may be said "that the whole of Mesopotamia has been brought under British control, and prosperity is coming to the country after long years of neglect."—*Hazell Annual*, 1920, p. 457.—The area involved is approximately 143,250 square miles, and a population of about 2,000,000, mostly Arabs.—*Ibid.*

When these figures are added to those given in the foregoing table of statistics, the result shows that British dominion extends over 13,797,340 square miles of territory and no fewer than 453,159,898 human beings. "We seem, as it were, to have conquered and peopled half the world in a

fit of absence of mind," wrote Prof. Sir John Seeley nearly forty years ago: "While we were doing it, that is in the eighteenth century, we did not allow it to affect our imaginations or in any degree to change our ways of thinking; nor have we even now ceased to think of ourselves as simply a race inhabiting an island off the northern coast of the Continent of Europe. We constantly betray by our modes of speech that we do not reckon our colonies as really belonging to us; thus if we are asked what the English population is, it does not occur to us to reckon—in the population of Canada and Australia. This fixed way of thinking has influenced our historians. . . . They do not perceive that in that century [the eighteenth] the history of England is not in England but in America and Asia."—J. R. Seeley, *Expansion of England*, 1891, pp. 8-9.

"When Elizabeth came to the throne [1558] the conquests in France had long been lost. In Ireland she ruled, at her accession, over an English colony, surrounded by a wild ring of half-subdued clans. Scotland was an independent kingdom; the trans-Oceanic Empire had not begun to be. In the course of the next three and a half centuries, a space no longer than the lives of old cottages like that where Shakespeare was born, or of oaks still growing in Windsor Forest, Scotland and Ireland have been made integral parts of the English realm; India has been conquered and brought under a great officialdom; self-governing Colonies united to the Crown have arisen in America, Australasia, and Africa; the seas are dotted with islands and military posts belonging to the British Empire, and, last of all, the imperial conception has arisen like a spirit seeking embodiment. This period corresponds to the three centuries in Roman history before the birth of Christ."—B. Holland, *Imperium et libertas*, p. 267.

"In the last years of Queen Elizabeth, England had absolutely no possessions outside Europe, for all schemes of settlement, from that of Hore in Henry VIII's reign to those of Gilbert and Raleigh, had failed alike. Great Britain did not yet exist.

. . . With the accession of the Stuart family commenced at the same time two processes, one of which was brought to completion under the last Stuart, Queen Anne, while the other has continued without interruption ever since. Of these the first is the internal union of the three kingdoms, which, though technically it was not completed till much later, may be said to be substantially the work of the seventeenth century and the Stuart dynasty. The second was the creation of a still larger Britain comprehending vast possessions beyond the sea. This process began with the first Charter given to Virginia in 1606. It made a great advance in the seventeenth century; but not till the eighteenth did Greater Britain in its gigantic dimensions and with its vast politics first stand clearly before the world."—J. R. Seeley, *Expansion of England*, pp. 9-10.

EXPANSION AND FOREIGN RELATIONS

Beginnings of expansion.—"The two factors, race and geography, are fundamental in explaining the expansion of England. . . . In spite of the latent capabilities of maritime adventure which lay deep in Anglo-Saxon nature, geography dictated that these powers must lie dormant until the more modern world should open up a new field of opportunity. As late as the fifteenth century the English were narrowly circumscribed on the frontier of Europe while the cities of the Hanseatic

League and the northern shores of the Mediterranean were more advantageously placed nearer the centers of the world's commerce. The trading activities growing out of the Crusades had deeply stirred many localities on the Continent but it only barely touched the remote British Isles. It was not till the middle of the seventeenth century that the amphibious Blake, once a general, later an admiral, led an English fleet into the Mediterranean. When in the sixteenth century the changed commercial interests of Europe shifted the business center of gravity from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic coast, it was Cadiz and Lisbon, not the English seaports, that took the places of Venice, Genoa and Barcelona. It is not to be assumed, of course, that all maritime life must wait upon and be regarded as identical with colonization and empire. Even in the sixteenth century, life in the British Isles was more maritime, more closely connected with the sea than was that of Spain. The waters which wash the British shores abounded in fish, and the English as well as the Dutch were rearing a hardy population of fishermen and sailors engaged in the local coasting trade, while English ships plied actively on the narrow waters between England and France and the Low Countries. All this was natural enough, but what seems strange to us was the postponement of England's participation in the epic of discovery and exploration. But the early preëminence of the Italians, Portuguese, and Spaniards must not drive us to the other extreme of being too apologetic of the English. In spite of Professor Seeley's modest claims for his countrymen the English were not long behind-hand in the race for dominion over-seas. And if they were belated, they were in good company. The French and the Dutch were likewise late in feeling the new impulse, while the great merchant seamen in the Hansa sphere of influence were hopelessly sluggish in realizing the new opportunities. Moreover, we can now see how the English were becoming fairly launched upon their Atlantic period of history even in the Tudor period although they could make no pretension of taking the lead in the unrivalled explorations of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. It was a ship from Bristol which anticipated Columbus in actually reaching the American continent and before the sixteenth century was over the Elizabethan sailors were playing a conspicuous part in opening up the new world. Nor was the defeat of the Armada a mere flash in the pan, an accidental victory, due to the genius of an individual commander. It was primarily a victory of seamanship, of men bred to the life of the sea, of professionals over amateurs. That England did not immediately thereafter become a great naval power in a technical military sense was due to a new tendency in national policy rather than to any incapacity. Conditions of insular life had been at work long enough to endow the English with all the potentialities of maritime supremacy and time only was needed for them to exhibit them on a magnificent scale. . . . It is a well-known fact that one-fifth of the land surface of the globe and something like one-fourth of the earth's population are in the British Empire. Its various shores are washed by the Seven Seas and it enjoys or endures every variety of climate and every degree of fertility and aridity from the polar regions to the tropics. The component parts of the empire are nearly equally divided between the northern and the southern hemispheres and among the various continents so that there is a complete diversification of industry. The settlements of the English-speaking people not only completely encircle the globe but they have taken possession

of the choicest land from the point of view of productivity as well as suitability for the homes of white men. It is a mere truism to say that the British Empire is based upon the sea-power of England and that its highways of communication are the sea. That this Empire has an economic foundation and is knit together by a multiplicity of commercial interests rather than held down by brute force goes without saying. Our question is, then, what geographical factors have entered into the production of this imperial fabric? This question cannot be answered by reference solely to the maritime instincts of the English people, together with their insular position and accessibility to the sea. In a general sense all Europe with its peninsular lands, and its large and intelligent population is peculiarly fitted to expand its commerce, civilization, and political rule over the rest of the earth. This is just what has been happening during the last four centuries and the English have only been in the lead and forefront of this movement. Someone has said that ancient Hellas was 'the most European of European lands.' If this is literally true the British Isles stand next to ancient Greece in the possession of especially European attributes with the further important advantage of possessing extraordinary natural resources. It may be said then that England is Europe only more so, and differs from its continental neighbors only in possessing the European character in a higher degree. If the geographical advantages possessed by the English people in combination with their own good fortune and the ill luck of some of their principal rivals have somehow given them a unique position in the world to-day, this can only be understood in the light of the actual facts of the evolution of the empire. The first step in the territorial evolution of the British Empire was the unification of all the British Isles under one political sovereignty. This in itself was a long, slow process and could not be undertaken until the period of foreign invasions was over. We cannot think of the present imperial domain as based upon England alone. English invasion into extra-European lands could only be safely begun after the solution of the Welsh, Scotch, and Irish question. At the same time it is more than likely that the preservation of distinctive qualities among these junior members of the British family has contributed to the richness as well as variety of the resultant civilization."—D. E. Smith, *Geographic factor in English history (English leadership, pp. 195-205)*.

ALSO IN: J. R. Seeley, *Expansion of England*.

16th century.—NORTH AMERICA.—1562-1567.—Hawkins' slave-trading voyages in America. First English enterprise in the New World. See AMERICA: 1562-1567.

1572-1580.—Piratical adventures of Drake. See AMERICA: 1572-1580.

1583.—Expedition of Sir Humphrey Gilbert. Formal possession taken of Newfoundland. See AMERICA: 1583.

1584-1500.—Raleigh's colonizing attempts in America. See AMERICA: 1584-1586; 1587-1500.

17th century.—AFRICA.—*West Africa*.—1618.—First Africa company formed.

1631.—First settlement on the Gambia. See GAMBIA.

1651.—St. Helena acquired by East India company. Transferred to the crown, 1834.

1667.—Acquisition from Dutch of Cape Coast Castle.

1672.—"But the original Africa Company was not successful; and another took its place in 1672, with a capital of £111,000, and possessed of the sole

rights of trade over the whole of Guinea. The forts were increased and strengthened; and while gold, diamonds, and ivory were exported to England, slaves were sent to the American plantations. In 1698, however, the trade was thrown open to all, on condition of a payment of the Company of an *ad valorem* duty of ten per cent., for the maintenance of the forts in proper condition. But when in 1712 the duty expired and was not renewed by Parliament, the Company soon found itself in difficulties, and in 1720 petitioned that the forts might be maintained 'as marks of the possessions of Great Britain.' The petition was allowed, and for many years an annual vote of £10,000 was granted for the upkeep of the Guinea forts. In 1752 the Company was reconstructed, and continued without change till it was finally abolished in 1821."—A. W. Tilby, *Britain in the tropics, v. 4, p. 85*.

INDIA.—1600.—East India Company chartered.—"It was created for trade, and it remained devoted to trade for a hundred and forty-eight years. . . . It was in 1748 that the disturbances occurred in the Deccan which forced the Company to undertake on a considerable scale the functions of government and war. Then began its second and memorable period, which is nearly as long as the first; it embraces a hundred and ten years and ends with the abolition of the Company by Act of Parliament in 1858."—J. Seeley, *Expansion of England, p. 266*.—See EAST INDIA COMPANY, BRITISH; INDIA: 1600-1702; 1660-1702; 1770-1773; 1823-1833; 1857.

1640.—Acquisition and settlement of Madras. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

1661.—Acquisition of Bombay. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

1688.—Settlement of Burma. See BURMA: Early history.

1608.—Calcutta founded. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

NORTH AMERICA.—1606-1620.—Extent of King James's grants to the London and Plymouth companies in America. See AMERICA: Map of King James's grants.

1607.—"The London Company, or Virginia Company proper, sent out ships with emigrants, who left England on January 1, 1607. Sailing into Chesapeake Bay, in May they found a suitable site for a settlement on a peninsula on the banks of a river, the James River, and gave it the name of Jamestown. This was the first beginning of the State of Virginia and the United States of America."—C. P. Lucas, *British empire, p. 48*.—See VIRGINIA: 1606-1607, and after.

1607-1610.—John Smith and the Jamestown colony. See VIRGINIA: 1607-1610.

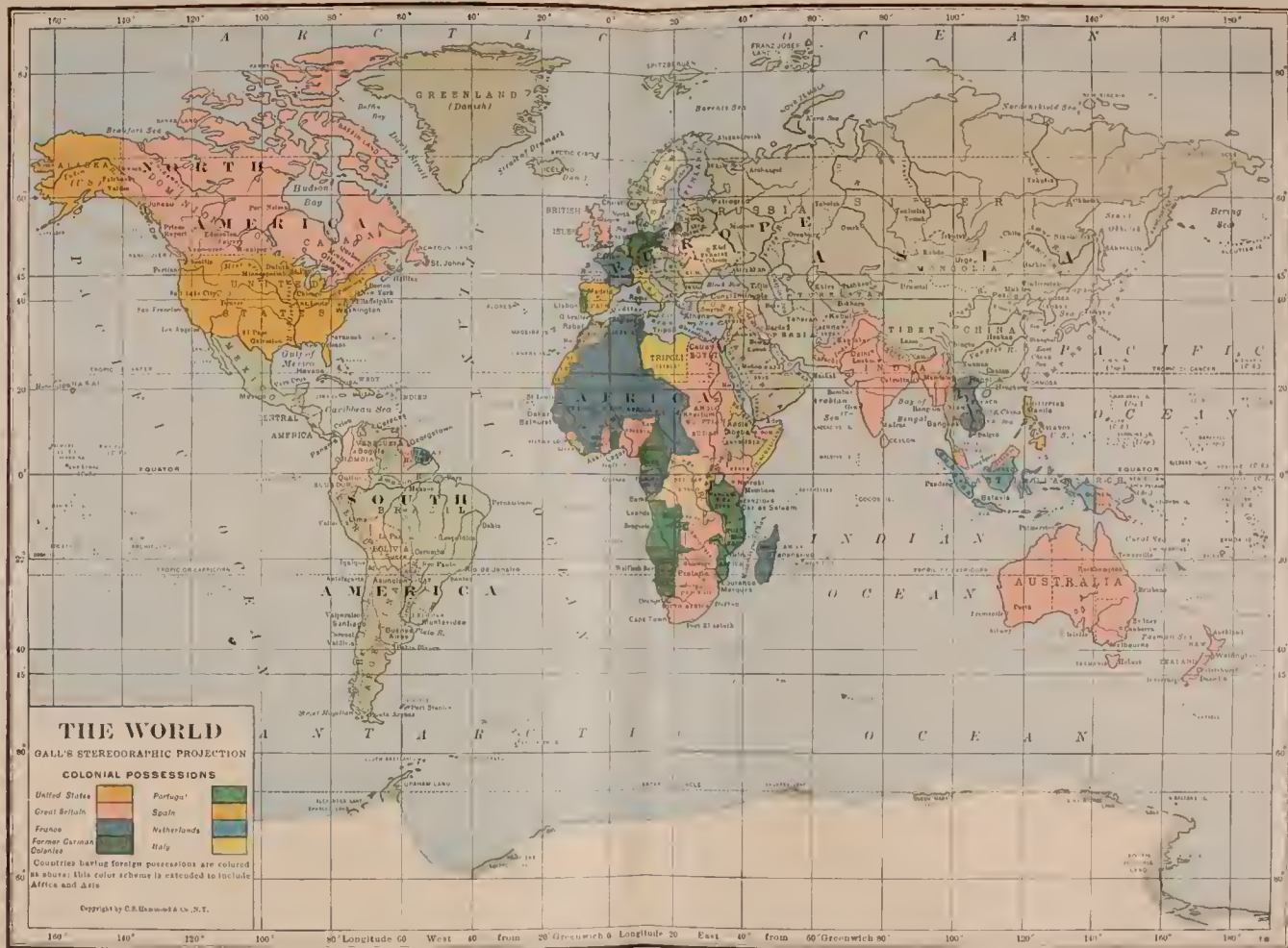
1600-1611.—Route of Hudson's voyages of discovery. See AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery.

1620.—Monopoly granted to the Council for New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1620-1623.

1620.—"After various vicissitudes, in September, 1620, one hundred emigrants left Plymouth in a little ship of 180 tons burden. These were the Pilgrim Fathers, and the ship was the *Mayflower*. They reached Cape Cod, and in the middle of December, on the shores of Cape Cod Bay, they founded the settlement of Plymouth or New Plymouth."—C. P. Lucas, *British empire, p. 50*.—See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620.

1620-1776.—Constitutional relations of the colonies to the English crown and parliament. See U. S. A.: 1620-1776.

1621-1623.—Acadia acquired. This includes Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668; NEW ENGLAND: 1621-1631.



Maps prepared specially for the **NEW LARNED**
under direction of the editors and publishers.

1623-1638.—Grants in Newfoundland to Lord Baltimore and Sir David Kirke. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1610-1655.

1628-1632.—Conquest and brief occupation of Canada and Nova Scotia. See CANADA: 1628-1635.

1629.—Royal charter to the governor and company of Massachusetts Bay. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1623-1620.

1629.—Carolina grant to Sir Robert Heath. See AMERICA: 1629.

1630.—Emigration of the governor and company of Massachusetts Bay with their royal charter. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620-1630.

1632.—Cession of Acadia to France. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

1632.—Founding of Maryland by Lord Baltimore. See MARYLAND: 1632; 1633-1637.

1634-1637.—Hostile measures against the Massachusetts company. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1634-1637.

1637.—Pequot war in New England. See NEW ENGLAND: 1637.

1640-1651.—Rule of Cromwell in New England. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1640-1651.

1651-1672.—Navigation acts and the American colonies. Spirit and object of English restrictive commercial system. See U. S. A.: 1651-1672; NAVIGATION LAWS.

1654-1656.—Re-conquest of Acadia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

1663.—Grant of Carolinas to Monk, Clarendon, Shaftesbury, and others. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

1663.—King's charter to Rhode Island. See RHODE ISLAND: 1660-1663.

1664.—Conquest of New Netherland. See NEW YORK: 1664.

1664-1665.—First refractory symptoms in Massachusetts. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1660-1665.

1665.—Grant of New Jersey to Carteret and Berkeley. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667.

1668.—Cession of Acadia to France. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

1670.—"Governor and Company of Adventurers of England trading into Hudson's Bay" brought into being in the reign of Charles II.

1673.—War with the Netherlands. Loss of New York. Recovered from the Dutch the following year by the treaty of Westminster. See NEW YORK: 1673.

1675-1688.—Concessions to France in Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1660-1688.

1679.—New Hampshire chartered, founded previously by John Mason but the towns were absorbed by Massachusetts. See NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1641-1679.

1681.—Colony of Pennsylvania founded by the Quaker, William Penn. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1681.

1686.—Consolidation of New England under a royal governor-general. See NEW ENGLAND: 1686.

1689-1691.—Effect of English revolution on American colonies. See NEW YORK: 1689-1691.

1689-1697.—King William's war. See CANADA: 1689-1690; 1692-1697; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1694-1697; U. S. A.: 1690.

1692.—New charter to Massachusetts as a royal province. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1689-1692.

1696-1697.—Board of trade for the supervision of colonies. See U. S. A.: 1696-1697.

PANAMA.—1698.—Projects for building the Panama canal. See PANAMA CANAL: Projects for building canal previous to 1800.

WEST INDIES.—1623-1666.—Settlements made in St. Kitts (1623), Barbados (1624), Nevis (1628), Antigua and Montserrat (1632), Anguilla (1650), Virgin islands by driving out the Dutch buc-

caners (1666). See WEST INDIES: BARBADOS: 1605-1685; MONTSERRAT; VIRGIN ISLANDS: Discovery and settlement.

1647.—"From Bermuda came a band of settlers into the Bahamas about the year 1647 under 'The Company of Adventurers for the Plantation of the Islands of Eleutheria, formerly called Buhama in America, and the adjacent islands,' and in 1670 these Bahama islands were granted by Charles II. to Lords Proprietors in England."—C. P. Lucas, *British Empire*, p. 57.—See also BAHAMA ISLANDS: 1492-1783.

1655.—"Jamaica was taken from Spain in 1655 by a somewhat blundering expedition sent out by Cromwell and designed to conquer Hispaniola. But it was a notable addition to the Empire, notable not only in respect of the actual value of the island, but also for the fact that the acquisition was made by the direct action of the state when for the moment a determined man was in control, and that the island was a Spanish island in the centre of what had been Spanish seas."—*Ibid.*, p. 57.—See also JAMAICA: 1655; 1655-1706.

18th century.—AFRICA.—*West Africa*.—1787.—The acquisition of the West African peninsula of Sierra Leone, which was ceded to England by its native owners, and shortly afterwards handed over to a company formed for the purpose of suppressing the slave trade, had no connexion with imperial policy, and was simply an outward and visible sign of the growing antagonism in England to the iniquities of the slave system. See SIERRA LEONE: 1787.

1791.—Sierra Leone Company incorporated. ASIA (not including India).—1762.—English settlement in northern Borneo.

1786.—First firm footing, with the purchase of Penang by East India Company. Name changed to Prince of Wales Island. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1795-1816.—Temporary rule in Java. See JAVA: 1795-1816.

1795-1818.—Malacca taken from Dutch and restored. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

AUSTRALIA.—1773.—"Australian history really begins with the voyage of Captain Cook. In 1768 George III lent to the Royal Society the *Endeavour* to enable a party of its members to observe the transit of Venus at Tahiti. After the observations had been taken Captain Cook sailed, in accordance with his orders, to New Zealand and thence to New Holland. He landed at Botany Bay, explored the coast to the north, and took possession of the country in the name of his sovereign."—E. Hughes, *Britain and Greater Britain in the nineteenth century*, p. 225.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800; NEW ZEALAND: 1642-1814.

1788.—"The first batch of convicts was sent out in 1787 and reached Botany Bay on January 18th, 1788."—*Ibid.*—See AUSTRALIA: 1787-1840.

CENTRAL AMERICA.—*British Honduras*.—1798.—English acquire territory by defeating Spanish ships which attempt to dislodge them. See HONDURAS, BRITISH: 1798-1850.

INDIA.—1702.—Union of rival East India Companies. See INDIA: 1600-1702.

1743-1752.—Struggle against France for supremacy in India. Founding of British Empire by Clive. See INDIA: 1743-1752.

1756-1757.—Wars in India. Black Hole of Calcutta. See INDIA: 1755-1757.

1757.—Clive recovered Calcutta and won battle of Plassey, securing Bengal. See INDIA: 1757.

1757-1772.—Beginning of rule in India. See INDIA: 1757-1772.

1758-1761.—Breaking of French power. See INDIA: 1758-1761.

1760.—Signal defeat of French at Wandewash. See INDIA: 1758-1761.

1767-1769.—First war with Hyder Ali, of Mysore. See INDIA: 1767-1769.

1773.—Reconstitution of government of British India. See INDIA: 1770-1773.

1780-1783.—Second war against Hyder Ali, or Second Mysore war. See INDIA: 1780-1783.

1784.—Board of control: placed over East India Company.

1789-1792.—War with Tippoo Saib, Third Mysore war. See INDIA: 1785-1793.

1795-1796.—Ceylon ceded by Holland, and made a separate colony in 1801.

1798-1805.—British power extended under Lord Wellesley. See INDIA: 1798-1805.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.—1708.—Acquisition of Minorca. See MINORCA: 1708.

1757-1760.—Execution of Admiral Byng. See MINORCA: 1756.

1798.—Capture of Malta. See HOSPITALLERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1565-1878.

NORTH AMERICA.—1700-1763.—Trade with Indians in America. See LOUISIANA: 1690-1763.

1702-1711.—Queen Anne's War. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710; CANADA: 1711-1713.

1713.—End of the war. Peace of Utrecht. Acquisitions from France and Spain. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714; CANADA: 1711-1713; 1713; NEWFOUNDLAND: 1713.

1719-1750.—Struggle with France for control of Indian trade in America. See LOUISIANA: 1719-1750.

1720-1734.—Conflicts between governors and colonists. See NEW YORK: 1720-1734.

1720-1744.—English relations with Spain in America. See AMERICA: 1720-1744.

1725.—Final conquest of Nova Scotia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1732.—Grant of Georgia to General Oglethorpe. See GEORGIA: 1732-1739.

1738-1743.—Attack on Spanish in Florida. See GEORGIA: 1738-1743.

1744-1748.—King George's War. Results of the war. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; 1745-1748.

1748-1754.—Movements to dispute possession of Ohio valley with French. See OHIO: 1748-1754.

1749-1755.—Unsettled boundary disputes with France in America. Preludes of the final contest. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755; CANADA: 1750-1753; OHIO: 1754; U. S. A.: 1754; also ENGLAND: 1754-1755.

1749-1859.—Vast commercial and political powers granted to Hudson's Bay and Northwest companies. See OREGON: 1749-1859.

1754-1755.—Collision with French in America. See OHIO: 1754; 1755; CANADA: 1755 (June); (September).

1756-1763.—French and Indian War. Conquest of Canada. See CANADA: 1756-1757; 1758 to 1759; CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760; SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war.

1763-1774.—Events leading up to the American revolution. See U. S. A.: 1763-1764 to 1774-1775; also BOSTON: 1768; 1770; 1773; 1774.

1775-1783.—American revolution. Campaigns. Declaration of Independence. French alliance. Treaty of peace. See U. S. A.: 1775 (April) to 1783 (September); also CANADA: 1775-1776; MAINE: 1779-1814; NEW HAMPSHIRE: 1775-1776; NEW YORK: 1775; NORTH CAROLINA: 1775-1776; VERMONT: 1781; VIRGINIA: 1775-1776; WISCONSIN: 1776-1783.

1700.—Nootka convention. Spain concedes British rights to Northern Pacific coast. See OREGON: 1790-1805; NOOTKA SOUND CONTROVERSY.

1793-1795.—Threatening relations with United States over western posts in America. Jay treaty. See U. S. A.: 1793-1795; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern: 1794.

WEST INDIES.—1762-1763.—Capture and occupation of Havana. See CUBA: 1762-1763.

1763.—England gains the Grenadines, St. Vincent, Dominica and Tobago.

1765.—British claims to Turks and Caicos Islands recognized. See TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.

19th century.—AFRICA.—*Central Africa*.—1890.—British Central Africa protectorate since 1907, known as Nyasaland, proclaimed a British protectorate. See NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.

1800.—Control of Central Africa from Germany in exchange for Heligoland. See GERMANY: 1890-1891.

East Africa.—1814.—Acquisition of Seychelles.

1876.—Island of Socotra came under British protection.

1884.—The Somali coast from Lahadu, west of Zaili, to Bandar Ziyada became a British protectorate, known as Somaliland. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: Eastern area.

1888.—Imperial British East Africa Company acquired right to administer the coast from the Umba river northward to Kipini for fifty years paying an annual tribute to the sultan. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: Upper Nile.

1890.—Sultan recognized protectorate of Great Britain over the island of Zanzibar and Pemba; Anglo-German agreement signed. See ZANZIBAR: 1890-1897; also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: Upper Nile; also 1884-1899.

1893.—British East Africa Company retires from Uganda which is taken over by the imperial government, 1895. See UGANDA: 1897-1898; AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century: Upper Nile.

1894.—Agreement with the Congo Free State. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Chronology of European exploration: 1894.

1895-1897.—British East Africa protectorate established. See BRITISH EAST AFRICA: 1895-1897.

Egypt.—1810-1811.—Failure of English attempt to restore the Mamelukes. See EGYPT: 1803-1811.

1870-1882.—Dual control over Egyptian finances established by England and France. See EGYPT: 1870-1882.

1881.—Nationalist uprising. England takes steps to suppress Arabi rebellion, but France refuses to participate. See EGYPT: 1879-1882; 1882-1883.

1882.—France withdraws; England in rôle of "advisor." See EGYPT: 1875-1882.

1883-1907.—Administration of Lord Cromer in Egypt. See EGYPT: 1883-1907.

1884-1895.—Campaign in the Sudan. Fall of Khartoum and the death of Gordon. See EGYPT: 1870-1883; 1884-1885.

1896.—Expedition to Dongola. Anglo-Egyptian movement for the recovery of the Sudan. See EGYPT: 1885-1896.

1897-1898.—Final conquest of the Sudan. See EGYPT: 1897-1898; 1899 (January).

1898.—Fashoda incident. See EGYPT: 1898 (September-November).

1899.—Condominium with Egypt regulating political status of the Sudan. See SUDAN: 1890.

South Africa.—Empire building in South Africa.

See CAPITALISM: 19th century: Capital in empire building.

1806.—Final seizure of Cape Colony from the Dutch. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1806. 1816-1817.—Tristan da Cunha formally annexed. 1836.—Great trek—about 10,000 Boers withdrew from Cape Colony. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

1837.—Natal settled by these emigrants from the coast. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881. 1843.—Natal annexed, another trek to Orange river. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

1848.—Declaration of Orange river sovereignty. Migration of the Boers across the Vaal. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

1854.—Sand river convention marks beginning of the two Boer republics, South African republic and Orange Free State. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881.

1856.—Natal made a separate colony.

1868.—British absorption of Kafraria. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1811-1868.

1871.—Griqualand West (including Kimberly diamond fields) English by right of cession. See GRIQUAS.

1877-1881.—Annexation of the Transvaal. Boer uprising. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1806-1881. 1880.—Griqualand West incorporated with Cape Colony.

1881.—Gladstone ministry decides to act on unpopular annexation of Transvaal and does so by the Pretoria convention in spite of the battle of Majuba Hill in which the English suffered a local defeat. Transvaal given self-government though subject to British suzerainty. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1884-1894.

1881-1888.—Organization of the "Africander Bund." See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1881-1888.

1884.—Independent colony of Basutoland. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1811-1868.

1884.—London convention restored South African republic. Gold found in the Rand. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1884-1894.

1885.—Territories south of Molopo river and of the Ramathlahama Spruit were declared to be British territory under the name of British Bechuanaland. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899.

1887.—British protectorate established over Zululand. See ZULULAND: 1887.

1887-1889.—Acquisition of Rhodesia, embracing Matabeleland. See RHODESIA: 1887-1889; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1893.

1889.—British South Africa Company incorporated. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1899; also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1885-1893.

1895.—British Bechuanaland annexed to Cape Colony. Jameson raid and its results. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1895-1896; 1896 (July).

1897.—Parliamentary investigation of Jameson raid. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1897 (February-July).

1899-1902.—Boer war. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1899 (September-October) to 1901-1902.

West Africa.—1844.—Agreement recognizing English authority signed by the Fantee chiefs of the Gold Coast.

1861.—Port and island and territories of Lagos sold to Great Britain. See NIGERIA.

1870.—Agreement with France makes the northern boundary a line extending from Say on Niger to Barrua on Lake Chad.

1874.—Lagos incorporated with the Gold Coast.

1884.—Niger Coast protectorate formed from Oil

Rivers protectorate in consequence of a series of treaties. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

1885.—German agreement to British control of Forcados and St. Lucia. See CAMEROONS: Occupation by Germany.

1885-1893.—Agreement with Germany over African expansion. Protectorate over Niger coast. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

1886.—Royal Niger Company chartered. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

1887.—Foreign office announces all territory in the Niger basin subject to the government of the company; also that the "British Protectorate of the Niger District comprises the territories between Lagos and the right bank of the Rio del Rey." See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

1896.—British protectorate over Sierra Leone. See SIERRA LEONE: 1896.

1898.—Agreement with France over African expansion. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

1899-1900.—Formation of Nigeria protectorate. See NIGERIA: 1882-1899.

ASIA (not including India).—1800.—Acquisition of what is now province Wellesley, Malay Peninsula, opposite Sumatra.

1805.—Penang raised to presidency. Nucleus of Straits Settlements. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1819.—Sir T. S. Raffles obtains permission from native owner to plant a settlement on Singapore. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1824.—Settlement with the Dutch. Dutch retire from peninsula. English from islands. Malacca exchanged for Bencoolen. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1827.—Ross family takes possession of Cocos or Keeling islands.

1839-1842, 1878-1880.—Wars with Afghanistan as a result of which the British imposed a kind of protectorate. See AFGHANISTAN: 1838-1842; 1842-1869; 1869-1881; also INDIA: 1836-1845.

1840.—Independent state of Sarawak established. See BORNEO: 1521-1846; SARAWAK.

1846.—Acquisition of Labuan. See BORNEO: 1521-1846.

1857.—Cocos or Keeling islands formally declared British.

1866.—Straits Settlements formed into a crown colony and administered directly from colonial office. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: Conquest and settlement.

1875.—Control of the Suez canal. See CANALS: Asiatic: Suez canal.

1877.—North Borneo district ceded by sultan of Brunei and Sulu to English and transferred to British North Borneo Company. See BORNEO: 1865-1890.

1888.—Sarawak under British protection with internal self-government. See SARAWAK.

1896.—Federation of Perak Selangor and Negri Sembilan in Malay states. See STRAITS SETTLEMENTS: 1909-1914.

1896-1899.—Agreement with France over Siam. See SIAM: 1896-1899.

1899.—Treaty with Sheik of Koweit against German aggression. See WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: c.

AUSTRALIA.—1802.—Settlement of Tasmania. See TASMANIA.

1826.—Settlement in Western Australia. See WESTERN AUSTRALIA.

1834.—Wakefield system of land settlement. See SOUTH AUSTRALIA: 1834-1836.

1851-1852.—Discovery of gold in Australia. Immigration ensued and six colonies gradually grew up: New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South

Australia, Western Australia and the neighboring island of Tasmania. See AUSTRALIA: 1839-1855.

CHINA.—1842.—British forced Chinese to open up five treaty ports of foreign trade. See CHINA: 1839-1844.

1842.—Hong Kong ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Nanking. See HONG KONG.

1898.—Port of Wei-hai-wai leased by British. See WEI-HAI-WAI.

GREECE.—1815.—Protectorate over Ionian Islands. See IONIAN ISLANDS: 1815-1862.

1849-1850.—Enforcement of English claims in Greece. Don Pacifico affair. See GREECE: 1846-1850.

1855.—Gladstone's commission to the Ionian Islands. See IONIAN ISLANDS: 1815-1862.

1864.—Ionian Islands handed to Greece. See IONIAN ISLANDS.

INDIA.—1805-1816.—New acquisitions in India. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

1810.—Capture of the Mauritius. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

1811.—Capture of Java from the Dutch. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

1813-1816.—War with Gburkas of Nepal. See INDIA: 1805-1816.

1816-1818.—Overthrow of the Mahratta confederacy. See INDIA: 1816-1819.

1817.—Acquisition of Rajputana, India. See RAJPUTANA.

1823-1833.—Acquisition of Assam and Arakan. See INDIA: 1823-1833.

1824-1826.—First Burmese War. See INDIA: 1823-1833.

1843.—Annexation of Sind. See SIND.

1845-1849.—Sikh wars in India. Annexation of the Punjab. See INDIA: 1845-1849; KASHMIR.

1848-1856.—Policy in India. Acquisition of native states. See INDIA: 1848-1856.

1852.—War with Burma. Annexation of Pegu. See INDIA: 1852; also BURMA: 1824-1886.

1857.—Indian mutiny. See INDIA: 1857; 1857 (May-August); (June-September); 1857-1868.

1858.—Government transferred from the East India Company to the crown. See INDIA: 1858-1863.

1876.—Control over Baluchistan. See BALUCHISTAN: 1876-1887.

1876.—India declared an empire; 1877, Victoria became empress of India.

1883.—Quetta ceded on quit rent basis. See QUETTA.

1886.—Burma formally proclaimed a province of British India. See BURMA: Under British Empire; also INDIA: 1864-1893.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.—1814.—Acquisition of the Island of Malta. See MALTA: 1814.

NEW ZEALAND.—1814.—Anglican mission was founded in the Bay of Islands; other denominations followed; and, as the country became better known, Englishmen at home and in Australia began to consider the possibility of its colonization. See NEW ZEALAND: 1815-1840.

1840.—Annexation of New Zealand. See NEW ZEALAND: 1825-1840.

1840.—Captain Hobson concluded treaty with the natives. See NEW ZEALAND: 1837-1851.

1854.—Given responsible government.

1865.—Entirely separated from New South Wales and made a separate colony.

NORTH AMERICA.—1803.—Dispute with the United States over Northwest territory. See LOUISIANA: 1798-1803.

1818.—Treaty with United States providing for joint occupation of Oregon. See OREGON: 1818-1846.

1835.—Treaty with Russia regarding claims in North America. See OREGON: 1741-1836.

1842.—Webster-Ashburton treaty. See U. S. A.: 1842; Treaty with England; also AFRICAN SQUADRON; MAINE: 1841-1842; AROOSTOOK WAR.

1846.—By the settlement of the Oregon dispute, boundary line dividing English possessions from the United States extended. See BRITISH COLUMBIA; OREGON: 1818-1846.

1855.—Arbitration with United States over fisheries question. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern period: 1855.

1867.—British North America Act. See CANADA: 1867; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867.

1869.—The dominion acquired by purchase vast territories of the Hudson's Bay Company forming the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. See CANADA: 1869-1873.

1871-1872.—Settlement of Alabama claims with United States. See ALABAMA CLAIMS: 1871-1872; ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern period: 1871-1872.

1872.—Settlement of Northwestern water-boundary question. See SAN JUAN.

1879-1881.—Claims to islands in the Arctic transferred to Canada. See CANADA: 1879-1881.

1886-1893.—Bering Sea controversy. See BERING SEA QUESTION; U. S. A.: 1886-1892.

1890.—"Modus Vivendi" agreement with France regarding Newfoundland shore question. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1899-1901.

1892.—Settlement of Alaskan boundary. See U. S. A.: 1892; Settlement of Alaskan boundary; ALASKAN BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1867-1903.

1898-1899.—Joint High commission for settlement of pending questions with Canada. See CANADA: 1898-1899.

PACIFIC OCEAN.—1874-1914.—Colonial expansion. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

1874.—Control of Fiji Islands. See FIJI ISLANDS.

1899.—Treaty with Germany and United States regarding Samoa. See SAMOA: 1879-1889; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

1899-1900.—Withdrawal from Samoa. See SAMOA: 1889-1900.

SOUTH AMERICA.—1803.—English acquire a section of Guiana, called British Guiana. Assured by the Vienna settlement.

1806.—Capture of Buenos Aires. See BUENOS AIRES: 1806; ARGENTINA: 1806-1820.

1807.—Capture of Montvideo. Later abandonment. See URUGUAY: 1806-1815.

1832-1833.—British sovereignty upheld in the Falkland islands.

1895-1896.—Venezuela boundary dispute. See U. S. A.: 1895 (December); 1895-1896 (December-January); 1897 (January-May); VENEZUELA: 1896-1899.

20th century.—British colonial policy. Anglo-French and Anglo-German relations. See ENGLAND: 1912.

AFRICA.—Extent of territory. See AFRICA: Map. 1918-1920.—Changes as a result of the World War. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1918-1920; SEVRES, TREATY OF: 1920.

East Africa.—1901.—Control of Somaliland. See BRITISH EAST AFRICA: 1900-1901.

1902.—Disastrous battles in Somali. See SOMALILAND: Troubles with the Mullah.

1905.—Peace with the Mullah. See SOMALILAND: Peace with the Mullah.

1919.—Administration of Tanga. See TANGA.

1919-1920.—Acquisition of part of German East Africa. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1920; TANGANYIKA TERRITORY: British mandate.

Egypt.—1906-1914.—Egyptian affairs. See EGYPT: 1906; 1907-1911; 1911-1914.

1914.—British protectorate declared. New khedive designated a sultan. See EGYPT: 1914; World War.

1915.—Annexation of the state of Darfur to the Sudan. See SUDAN: 1914-1920.

1918-1919.—Affairs in Egypt. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.

1920.—Milner's investigation of Egyptian affairs. See EGYPT: 1920.

1921-1922.—Preludes to recognition of Egyptian independence. Recognition of Egypt as a sovereign state. See EGYPT: 1918-1919; 1921 to 1922 (March).

South Africa.—1900.—Annexation of Orange Free State and the Transvaal. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (May); (October).

1900.—British protectorate proclaimed over Barotsiland in South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (September).

1901.—Statistics of British military forces in South Africa from beginning of war. Policy of British government in dealing with Boers. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901 (February).

1901.—Cost of South African war. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901 (April).

1901-1902.—Last year of Boer War. Treaty of peace. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1904.—Census statistics of British South Africa. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1904.

1905-1907.—Fulfillment of promises to South African of Vereeniging treaty. Representative government restored to Boer states. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1905-1907.

1906-1907.—Revolt of the Zulus in Natal. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1906-1907.

1909.—South African Union constitution ratified. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1908-1909; also SOUTH AFRICA, CONSTITUTION OF.

1910.—Admission of Orange Free State to the Union of South Africa. See ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

Southwest Africa.—1919.—British mandatory over German colony. See SOUTHWEST AFRICA: 1919.

West Africa.—1900.—Transfer of territories of Royal Niger Company to the crown. See NIGERIA: 1900.

1903-1910.—Conquest of Sakoto and Kano. Rivalry with France. Anglo-French agreement. See NIGERIA: 1901-1913.

1907-1909.—Interest in Liberia. See LIBERIA, 1907-1909.

1919.—Togoland divided between France and Great Britain. See TOGOLAND.

ASIA.—1909.—Treaty with Siam. See SIAM: 1909.

ASIA MINOR.—1920.—Mandate for Zionist state. See PALESTINE: 1920; JERUSALEM: 1920; SYRIA: 1908-1921.

AUSTRALIA.—1901.—"Commonwealth of Australia Constitution Act" ratified and passed by the British parliament. See AUSTRALIA: 1900; also AUSTRALIA; CONSTITUTION OF.

INDIA.—1902-1910.—Military reforms in India. Partition of Bengal. See INDIA: 1902-1907; 1905-1910.

1908-1909.—Indian Council bills. See INDIA: 1908-1909.

1911-1914.—Attempts to suppress nationalist agitation in India. See INDIA: 1911-1914.

1918-1921.—Home rule agitation. See INDIA: 1918-1920; 1921.

MEDITERRANEAN SEA.—1903-1920.—Interest

around Mediterranean sea. See MEDITERRANEAN SEA.

1914.—Annexation of Cyprus. See CYPRUS: 1914.

1921.—Grant of self-government to Malta. See MALTA: 1921.

NEW ZEALAND.—1900.—Cook Islands annexed to New Zealand. See NEW ZEALAND: 1900 (October).

1907.—Designation changed to Dominion of New Zealand.

1916-1921.—Place of New Zealand in the empire. Proposals for closer imperial federation and an imperial parliament. See NEW ZEALAND: 1916-1921.

NORTH AMERICA.—1906.—Final decision regarding Alaskan boundary. See ALASKAN BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1906-1914.

1906.—Withdrawal of British garrison from Canada. See CANADA: 1906 (May).

1908.—Convention with United States over fisheries question. See FISHERIES: 1908; CANADA: 1908 (April).

1909.—Waterways treaty with United States concerning waters along Canadian boundary. See CANADA: 1909 (January).

1910.—Decisions of Hague tribunal as regards Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1910.

1912.—Agreement as to seal fisheries in Bering Sea. See PRIBILOV ISLANDS.

PACIFIC OCEAN.—1900.—Protectorate over Friendly islands. See TONGA.

ALSO IN: *Oxford Survey of the British Empire.*—A. W. Tilby, *English people overseas*, 6 v.—*British empire series*, 5 v.—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*.

TREATIES PROMOTING EXPANSION

1713.—Treaty of Utrecht.—"The Treaty of Utrecht gave to England, in addition to Gibraltar, undisputed possession of Newfoundland, with the reservation to the French—a most dangerous and troublesome reservation—of certain fishing rights; the Acadian peninsula, now Nova Scotia (though not Cape Breton Island, which is at the present day included in Nova Scotia); and exclusive sovereignty over the shores of Hudson Bay. It gave her the sole possession of the West Indian island of St. Kitts, which the French had shared; and it gave her the Assiento, the contract for supplying Spanish America with slave labour."—C. P. Lucas, *British Empire*, p. 83.—See also CANADA: 1713.

ALSO IN: H. C. Barnard (ed.), *Expansion of the Anglo-Saxon nations.*—O. Weber, *Der Friede von Utrecht*.

1763.—Peace of Paris.—Great Britain retained Canada and Cape Breton Island. To France she ceded St. Pierre and Miquelon as an unfortified station for her fishermen. St. Vincent, Dominica and Tobago of the neutral islands fell to Great Britain, St. Lucia to France, to whom Great Britain ceded Guadeloupe and Martinique for Granada and the Grenadines; in Africa, the island of Goree for the Senegal protectorate and in Europe Bell Isle for Minorca. Spain and Great Britain exchanged Havana and Florida. The line of the Mississippi from source to mouth, exclusive only of the New Orleans territory, was fixed as the western limit of British dominion in America. France also ceded Natal and Tapanuli in Sumatra to Great Britain.

1783.—Treaty of Versailles.—The independence of the English colonies in America was assured. The colonies extended west to the Mississippi river and north to the English possessions in Canada. Certain provisions were also made regarding fishing rights. Senegal restored to France.

1815.—Results of the Napoleonic wars.—“Outside India the net results of the Napoleonic wars were that England gained from France St. Lucia in the West Indies, Mauritius and the Seychelles in the Indian Ocean, while Malta, given to us eventually by the free voice of the Maltese, had previously been taken from France. From Spain we took Trinidad; from Denmark, Heligoland, to be transferred to Germany in 1890; from Holland, Ceylon, British Guiana, and, most important of all, the Cape of Good Hope. First taken by the English in 1705, the Cape was given back to the Netherlands by the Treaty of Amiens. Taken again in 1806, it was formally ceded to Great Britain in the general settlement of 1814.”—C. P. Lucas, *British empire*, p. 101.

1818-1846.—Disputes with United States over Oregon boundary.—Final agreement. See OREGON: 1818-1846; 1846-1855.

1835.—Treaty with Russia regarding claims in North America. See OREGON: 1741-1836.

1878.—Treaty with Turkey.—In 1878, in return for support against Russia, Turkey handed over to Great Britain the island of Cyprus to be occupied and administered.

1920.—Colonial provisions of the Versailles peace treaty.—The principal allied and associated powers decided that German East Africa should be assigned under mandate to the United Kingdom, except the northwestern corner which was assigned to Belgium; that German southwest Africa should be assigned under mandate to the Union of South Africa; that the governments of the United Kingdom and France should make a joint recommendation as to the future of Cameroons and Togoland; that the mandate for German New Guinea, and the German islands in the Pacific (other than the German Samoan islands and Nauru), south of the equator should be assigned to the commonwealth of Australia; that the mandate for the German Samoan islands should be given to New Zealand; that the mandate for Nauru should be given to the British empire.

GOVERNMENTS: COLONIES AND PROTECTORATES

The British colonies and protectorates may be classified as follows:

I. Colonies possessing responsible government, now known as the self-governing dominions, in which the crown has only reserved the power of disallowing legislation and the secretary of state for the colonies has no control over any public officer except the governor. In all matters affecting the internal affairs of such a colony the governor acts on the advice of ministers who are responsible to the legislature. The self-governing states are:

- (i) Dominion of Canada.
- (ii) Dominion of Canada.
- (iii) Dominion of New Zealand.
- (iv) Union of South Africa.

(v) The Australian Commonwealth and its six component states:—New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania. (The Northern Territory and Papua are administered by the Commonwealth.)

II. Colonies not possessing responsible government, in which the administration is carried on by public officers under the control of the secretary of state for the colonies; and protectorates similarly controlled.

(i) Colonies possessing an elected house of assembly and a nominated legislative council:—

Bahamas | Barbados | Bermuda

(ii) Colonies possessing a partly elected legislative council, the constitution of which does not provide for an official majority:—

British Guiana
Cyprus

(iii) Colonies possessing a partly elected legislative council, the constitution of which provides for an official majority:—

Ceylon | Jamaica | Malta
Fiji | Leeward Islands | Mauritius

(iv) Colonies and protectorates possessing a legislative council nominated by the crown:—

British Honduras | Nigeria
Falkland Islands | Nyasaland Protectorate
Gambia Protectorate | St. Lucia
Gold Coast | St. Vincent
Grenada | Seychelles
Hong Kong | Sierra Leone
Kenya Colony and | Straits Settlements
Protectorate | Trinidad

In all the above councils, except British Honduras, the constitution provides for an official majority.

(v) Colonies and Protectorates without a legislative council:—

Ashanti | St. Helena
Basutoland | Somaliland
Bechuanaland Protectorate | Swaziland
Gibraltar | Uganda
Northern Nigeria | Wei-hai-wei
Northern Territories | Islands included under
of the Gold Coast | the Western Pacific
High Commission

In all these colonies and protectorates, except Bahamas, Barbados, Bermuda, British Honduras, and the Leeward Islands, the crown has the power of legislating by order in council.

The territories in South Africa which are under the control of the British South Africa Company are not included in the above classification.—*Colonial office list*, 1920.—See also COUNCIL, GOVERNOR'S.

CHARACTER

Self-governing rights in British colonies.—Types of colonies.—“It ought never to be forgotten that down to the nineteenth century (that is, during all the earlier part of the process of European expansion) Britain was the only one of the greater European States which possessed self-governing institutions. She has been, in truth (this is not a boast, but a mere statement of indisputable historical fact), the inventor of political liberty on the scale of the great nation-state, as Greece was the inventor of political liberty on the scale of the little city-state. And wherever free institutions exist to-day, they have been derived from Britain, either by inheritance, as in America and the self-governing British colonies, or by imitation, as in all other cases. When the outpouring of Europe into the rest of the world began, the British peoples alone had the habit and instinct of self-government in their very blood and bones. And the result was that, wherever they went, they carried self-government with them. Every colony of British settlers, from the very first, was endowed with self-governing institutions. No colony ever planted by another nation ever obtained corresponding rights. That is one of the outstanding features of British expansion. In the eighteenth century, and even in the middle of the nineteenth century, Britain herself and the

young nations that had sprung from her loins were *almost the only free States existing in the world*. It was because they were free that they thrived so greatly. They expanded on their own account, they threw out fresh settlements into the empty lands, wherein they were planted, often against the wish of the Mother Country. And this spontaneous growth of vigorous free communities has been one of the principal causes of the immense extension of the British Empire. Now one of the results of the universal existence of self-governing rights in British colonies was that the colonists were far more prompt to resent and resist any improper exercise of authority by the Mother Country than were the settlers in the colonies of other countries, which had no self-governing rights at all. It was this independent spirit, nurtured by self-government, which led to the revolt of the American colonies in 1775, and to the foundation of the United States as an independent nation. In that great controversy an immensely important question was raised, which was new to human history. It was the question whether unity could be combined with the highest degree of freedom; whether it was possible to create a sort of fellowship or brotherhood of free communities, in which each should be master of its own destinies, and yet all combine for common interest. But the question (being so new) was not understood on either side of the Atlantic. Naturally, Britain thought most of the need of maintaining unity; she thought it unfair that the whole burden of the common defence should fall upon her, and she committed many foolish blunders in trying to enforce her view. Equally naturally the colonists thought primarily of their own self-governing rights, which they very justly demanded should be increased rather than restricted. The result was the unhappy war which broke up the only family of free peoples that had yet existed in the world, and caused a most unfortunate alienation between them, whereby the cause of liberty in the world was greatly weakened. . . . The vast realms of the British Empire fall naturally into three groups: the great self-governing dominions, Canada, Australia, South Africa, New Zealand, and Newfoundland; the lands of ancient civilisation, India and Egypt; and the wide protectorates (mainly in Africa, but also in Asia and the Pacific) which are inhabited by backward and primitive peoples. There are other regions also, such as the West Indian Islands, or the military posts and calling stations like Gibraltar, Malta, and Aden, which do not fall into any of these three categories. But they are of relatively minor importance, and it will be convenient to concentrate our attention upon each of the three main groups in turn."—R. Muir, *Character of the British empire*, pp. 4-6, 10.

Characteristics of the self-governing colonies.—"Regarding the self-governing dominions, . . . they are to all intents and purposes entirely free States, which remain in association with the Mother Country only by their own free will. If they were to claim complete independence, there would certainly be no attempt made by Britain to force them to remain in partnership. . . . They make their own laws; they appoint all their own officials (except the Governors, who perform almost purely formal functions, corresponding to those performed by the King in the 'crowned republic' of Britain); they levy their own taxes, and both may and do impose any duties they think fit upon imports from Britain equally with those coming from other States. They pay not a farthing of tribute to the Mother Country. They are not

even required to contribute to the cost of the Navy, which protects them all, though some of them make voluntary contributions. The only restriction upon their political independence is that they do not pursue an independent foreign policy or maintain ambassadors or consuls of their own in foreign countries. The responsibility (and the total cost) of this function falls upon Britain. If Britain should be drawn into war, the great dominions are also technically at war, and if Britain were to pursue a warlike or aggressive policy, this would soon alienate some or all of these young democracies. But it is only by their own free will that they take any part in a war in which Britain is involved, and the Mother Country has neither the right nor the power to demand military aid from them. Yet we have seen what whole-hearted and generous aid they have all given. . . . Gradually they are beginning, through their Prime Ministers or other representatives, to take a more and more effective part in the direction of the common policy of the Empire. The meetings of what was called the 'Imperial War Cabinet' in the spring of 1917 marked a definite stage in this development, and incidentally afforded a very striking proof of the elasticity and adaptability of the British system of government. It is certain that this method of co-operation will be carried still further in the future. Clearly, so far as concerns the great dominions, the British Empire is far from being a military domination imposed by force. It is a voluntary partnership, or brotherhood of free peoples, a Commonwealth of Nations. It is a wonderful achievement in the combination of unity and freedom, an experiment in the unforced co-operation of free States such as has never before been seen in human history. . . . Only one series of events has prevented a large part of the world from realising that this was the spirit in which the British Empire was governed. The South African War made Britain appear, in the eyes of most of the world, a vast, greedy, tyrannical power, which, not content with an already immense dominion, must fall upon and devour two tiny, free republics, merely because they contained gold! But the world did not appreciate the real meaning of the South African War. In the British South African colonies (the Cape and Natal) the fullest equality of political rights was enjoyed by Dutch and British residents alike, and their institutions were the same as those of other British dominions. But in the semi-independent Dutch republics of the Transvaal and the Orange Free State (especially the former) no such equality of rights existed. The ideal they aimed at was that of Dutch predominance, and some of their leaders hoped in time to drive the British out of Africa, and to establish there an exclusively Dutch supremacy. This did not matter so long as the inhabitants of these lands were only a few Dutch farmers. But when the discovery of gold and diamonds brought an immense inrush of British and other settlers, who henceforth produced nearly all the wealth of the country, this denial of equality of rights became serious, and the programme of Dutch conquest, prepared for mainly at the cost of the new settlers, began to seem dangerous. This was the real cause of the South African War. It might, perhaps, have been avoided, and, if so, those who precipitated it unnecessarily were much to blame, whether they were Boers or Britons. There were faults on both sides. But essentially the war was, on Britain's side, a war for equality of rights. What were its results? So far as Britain was concerned, the bones of thousands of her

sons lay on the African veldt, and her public debt was vastly increased. She made no direct material gains of any sort: the gold-mines remained in exactly the same hands as before. But so far as South Africa was concerned, the result was that in a very few years the conquered republics were given full self-governing powers, on the basis of equal rights for both races, and a few years later they and the older British colonies combined in the Union of South Africa, a great, free, federal state, in whose affairs Dutch and British have equal rights, and in which a new nation, formed by the blending of the two races, can grow up. . . . And now observe the sequel. When the great war began (scarcely more than a dozen years from the time when Dutch and Britons were fighting bitterly) the Germans tried to bring about a revolt among the more ignorant Dutch. It was put down by the forces of the Union, mainly Dutch, led by Louis Botha, who had once been the commander-in-chief of the Transvaal army, and was now the prime minister of a self-governing dominion within the British Empire. And then, still led by Botha, a combined force of Dutch and Britons proceeded to the conquest of German South-West Africa, suffering casualties which, by a happy chance, were exactly equally divided between the two races. And then a South African contingent was sent to East Africa, and the supreme command over them, and over British regulars and Indian regiments and native levies, was assumed by the Dutch General Smuts, once a formidable leader against the British. And, lastly, General Smuts came to England to join in the deliberations of the Imperial War Cabinet, and to make speeches of profound foresight and political wisdom to the British people, in which he sang the praises of the British Commonwealth of free nations as something that deserved every sacrifice from the peoples enrolled under its sheltering ægis."—*Ibid.*, pp. 10-14.—See also SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.

Rule in India and Egypt.—"The second great group of British dominions consists of those ancient and populous lands, notably India and Egypt, which, though they have been able to develop remarkable civilisations, have never in all their history succeeded in establishing the rule of a just and equal law, or known any form of government save arbitrary despotism. It is impossible to trace here, even in the baldest outline, the steps by which Britain acquired the sovereignty over India and Egypt. They form two of the most curious and romantic episodes in history, for the strange thing is that in both cases British intervention was begun with no thought of conquest, and in both cases the responsibility of political control was assumed by Britain with very great reluctance. . . . We must content ourselves with a very brief analysis of the character and results of the British dominion. . . . Until the British power was established, India had in all her long history never known political unity. She had seen nothing but an almost uninterrupted succession of wars, an endless series of conquests and evanescent dominions. Always, Might had been Right; Law had represented only the will of the master, and the law courts only the instruments of his arbitrary authority, so that the lover of righteousness could only pursue it by cutting himself off from all the ties of society and living the life of the ascetic. India was the most deeply divided land in the world—divided not only by differences of race and tongue (there are 38 distinct languages in India to-day, and some of them differ more widely than Russian and Span-

ish), but divided still more deeply by bitter conflicts of creed, and, most sharply of all, by the unchanging, impermeable barriers of caste, which had arisen in the first instance from the determination of conquering peoples to keep themselves free from any intermixture with their subjects. Nowhere in the world are there to be seen, cheek by jowl, such profound contrasts between distinct grades of civilisation as are represented by the difference between (say) the almost savage Bhils or the out-caste sweepers, and the high-bred Brahmin, Rajput or Mahomedan chiefs. One result of these time-worn distinctions is that through all the ages the ruling castes and races have been accustomed to expect, and the mass of humble men to offer, the most abject submission; so that British administrators have often had to complain that the chief difficulty was, not to make laws for the protection of the humble, but rather to persuade those for whose benefit they were made to take advantage of them. To this divided land the British rule has brought three inestimable boons: a firmly organised political unity; the impartial administration of a just and equal system of law, based on a codification of Indian usages; and the maintenance of a long, unbroken peace. To this may be added the introduction not only of the material boons of western civilisation—railways, roads, irrigation, postal facilities, and so forth—but of western learning. This has had to be conveyed through the vehicle of English, because it was impossible to create, in all the 38 vernaculars, a whole literature of modern knowledge. And the consequence is, that all the members of the large and growing class of University-trained students, whose existence for the first time creates an instructed public opinion in India, are able freely to communicate with one another, and to share a common body of ideas, to an extent that has never before been possible in all the earlier history of India. Out of all these causes, due to the British rule, there has begun to arise in this deeply divided land a sentiment of national unity, and an aspiration after self-government. This sentiment and this aspiration are in themselves excellent things; their danger is that they may lead to a demand for a too rapid advance. For national unity *cannot* be created by merely asserting that it exists. It will not be fully established until the deeply-rooted differences which are only beginning to be obliterated have largely ceased to determine men's thought and actions, as they still do in India. And self-government on the amplest scale of modern democracy, cannot be achieved until the traditionally ascendant classes, and the traditionally subject classes, have alike learned to recognise the equality of their rights before the law. But the foundations have been made of advance towards both of these aims; they are the result of British rule. There are discontents in India; there is much sharp criticism of the methods of the supreme Government, especially—almost exclusively—among the new class of western-educated men. But the criticism has not gone so far, except with a very few fanatics, as to assert that British rule is itself unjust or evil; on the contrary, all the best opinion in India desires to see that great land steadily progressing towards greater national unity and greater political liberty under the guidance and protection of British rule; all the best opinion in India recognises that the progress already made has been due to British rule, and that its continuance depends upon the continuance of British rules; all the best opinion in India desires that India, even when she becomes, as she will steadily become, more fully self-governing, should remain a partner

in the British Commonwealth of Nations. It was a real satisfaction of one of the aspirations of India when three representatives of the Indian Government, an Indian prince, an Indian lawyer, and an Anglo-Indian administrator, came to London in the spring of 1917 to take part in the councils of the Empire during the crisis of its destiny. Criticism and discontent exist. But their existence is a sign of life; and the freedom with which they are expressed is a proof that the Government of India does not follow a merely repressive policy, and that the peoples of India have at last been helped to escape, in a large degree, from that complete docility and submissiveness which are the unhappy signs that a people is enslaved body and soul. India does not pay one penny of tribute to Britain. She pays the cost of the small, efficient army which guards her frontiers, but if any part of it is borrowed for service elsewhere, the cost falls upon the British Treasury. This rule was, indeed, broken in regard to the first Indian contingents in the present war, but only at the request of the Indian members of the Viceroy's Legislative Council. India contributes not a penny towards the upkeep of the British fleet, which guards her shores; nor does she defray any part of the cost of the consuls and ambassadors in all parts of the world who protect the interests of her travelling citizens. She is a self-dependent state, all of whose resources are expended on the development of her own prosperity, and expended with the most scrupulous honesty and economy. Her ports are open, of course, to British traders, but they are open on precisely the same terms to the traders of all other countries; there is no special privilege for the British merchant. Recently she has entered upon a policy of fiscal protection, with a view to the development of cotton manufactures. This policy was directed primarily against Lancashire. But because Indian opinion demanded it, it has not been resisted, in spite of the fact that the bulk of British opinion holds such a policy to be economically unsound. Nor have British citizens any special privileges in other respects. It was laid down as long ago as 1833, as an 'indisputable principle,' that 'the interests of the native subjects are to be consulted in preference to those of Europeans, wherever the two come in competition.' . . . India, in short, is governed, under the terms of a code of law based upon Indian custom, by a small number of picked British officials, only about 3,000 in all, among whom highly-trained Indians are increasingly taking their place, and who work in detail through an army of minor officials, nearly all Indians, and selected without respect to race, caste, or creed. She is a self-contained country, whose resources are devoted to her own needs. She is prospering to a degree unexampled in history. She has achieved a political unity never before known to her. She has been given the supreme gift of a just and impartial law, administered without fear or favour. She has enjoyed a long period of peace, unbroken by any attack from external foes. Here, as fully as in the self-governing Colonies, membership of the British Empire does not mean subjection to the selfish dominion of a master, or the subordination to that master's interests of the vital interests of the community. It means the establishment among a vast population of the essential gifts of western civilisation—rational law, and the liberty which exists under its shelter.

"What has been said of India might equally be said of Egypt, *mutatis mutandis*, but space does not permit of any detail on this theme. Enough to say that the achievements of the short period

since 1882, when the British occupation began, in the rescuing of the country from bankruptcy, in the abolition of the hideous tyranny under which the mass of the peasantry had long groaned, in the development of the natural resources of the country, in the introduction of western methods of government and education, in the removal of the peril of returning barbarism which threatened from the Soudan, and in the establishment of a just and equal system of law, is something which it would be hard to match in the records of history. Both in India and Egypt lands of ancient civilisation have been rescued from a state of chaos and set upon the path which leads to unity and freedom."—*Ibid.*, pp. 14-20.—After forty years of British administration, involving a complete reorganization of the financial, economic and political affairs of Egypt, the British Government terminated the protectorate over the country and declared Egypt to be "an independent sovereign state." The new régime of independence was opened on March 6, 1922, when the Sultan Fuad presided over the first council of his cabinet or responsible ministers. On March 16 the sultan issued a rescript, announcing that he would assume the title of King of Egypt. Though granting unqualified independence, the British government issued a warning that it would not permit the intervention of any foreign power in Egyptian affairs or aggression on Egyptian territory.—See also EGYPT: 1922; INDIA: People.

British rule in the backward regions of the world.—"Lastly, we come to the vast regions inhabited wholly or mainly by backward or primitive peoples. Most of these are territories of comparatively recent acquisition. And it is here, and practically here alone, that the British Empire comes into comparison with the recently created empires of other European states, France, Germany, Italy, and Belgium; none of which possess any self-governing colonies, or any extensive lands of ancient civilisation like India, unless the French colonies of Algeria and Annam are to be regarded as falling within the latter category. The establishment of European control over most of the backward regions of the world has been, for the most part, a very recent and a very rapid development. The rush for extra-European territory which has taken place since 1878 is frequently regarded as a merely sordid exhibition of greed and of the lust for power; and indeed, some features of it deserve condemnation. . . . But on the whole, and with exceptions, the establishment of European control has been as beneficial to its primitive subjects as it has been advantageous to the development of modern industry. In spite of the vast extent of her Empire in other regions, Britain has taken a far larger share of this work than any other single power; perhaps, all things considered, she has taken as great a share as all the rest put together. . . . The first reason [for this] is that Britain had begun long before any of the other powers. Both in Africa and in the islands of the Pacific, the work of exploration was mainly done by British travellers; British traders had almost alone been known to the native populations; and British missionaries, who were extraordinarily active during the nineteenth century, had planted themselves everywhere, and played an immensely important part in civilising their simple flocks. Wherever the missionary went, he undertook the defence of the primitive peoples to whom he preached, against the sometimes unscrupulous exploitation of the trader. It was the constant cry of the missionaries that the British Government ought to assume control, in order to keep the traders in order. They, and the power-

ful religious bodies at home which supported them, did much to establish the principle that it was the duty of government to protect the rights of native races, while at the same time putting an end to such barbarous usages as cannibalism, slavery, and human sacrifice, where they survived. Often, too, native chieftains begged to be taken under British protection; while the better type of traders were anxious to see civilised administration set up, because it is only under civilised administration that trade can permanently thrive. Thus the British Government was under continual pressure from all sides, while the governments of other European countries as yet took no interest in colonial questions. The British Government was extremely loth to assume additional responsibilities, and did its best to avoid them. But some annexations it could not avoid. Thus before the great European rush for colonies began, Britain, and Britain alone, had acquired a very wide experience in the government of backward peoples, and had worked out fairly clearly defined principles for the government of such peoples. What is more, in all the regions of this type which she controlled—indeed, throughout her whole Empire, everywhere save in the self-governing Colonies—it had become the practice of Britain to throw open all her ports and markets to the trade of all nations on exactly the same terms as to her own merchants. She is, in fact, the only great colonising Power which has adopted this principle. If a British merchant goes to the Philippines, or to Madagascar, or to Togoland, he finds that he has to compete with his American, French, or German rival on unequal terms, because a tariff discriminates between the citizen of the ruling people and the foreign trader. But if an American, French, or German merchant goes to India, or to any British Crown Colony or protectorate, he is admitted on exactly the same terms as the Briton. That distinction had already been established before 1878, though it has been accentuated since that date. The British method of administering backward regions as worked out before 1878 was therefore based upon two principles, first the protection of native rights, and secondly the open door to all trading nations; and Britain may fairly be said to have learnt to regard herself as being, in these regions, a trustee—a trustee on behalf of her subjects, and on behalf of the civilised world. . . . To-day these principles are being advocated by many earnest men as representing the only mode by which the supremacy of western civilisation throughout the world can be reconciled with the avoidance of bitter rivalry and war between the civilised states; and they are preached as if they were a new doctrine of salvation. Yet they have been consistently practised by Britain during the greater part of the nineteenth century, and they are still practised by her to-day. When the great rush began, the main object of the European states which took part in it was to obtain a monopoly-control of the regions which they annexed. But in all the available regions of the world, British trade had hitherto been preponderant. British traders saw before them the prospect of being absolutely excluded from lines of traffic which had hitherto been mainly in their hands, and they were naturally urgent that the only means of protection available should be taken, and that the areas in which they had been most active should be brought under British administration. If the new colonising Powers had been prepared to follow the policy of the open door, to which Britain had so long adhered, there would have been no reason to fear

their annexations; rather there would have been every reason to rejoice that other nations were taking their share in the work of giving civilised government to these regions. But since their object was monopoly and exclusion, it was inevitable that Britain should undertake great new responsibilities. Her doing so was, indeed, the only practicable way of preserving the trading rights, not merely of her own subjects but also of all the other trading Powers which had not themselves joined in the rush, or had only a small part in it. Yet even now the British Government was extremely unwilling to take action, or to expand still further the already vast domains for whose good governance it was responsible. It had to be forced into action, mainly through the activity of trading companies."—*Ibid.*, pp. 20-24.—See also ASHANTI: BRITISH OCCUPATION; NYASALAND PROTECTORATE; RHODESIA.

COLONIAL FEDERATION

Authority of imperial Parliament.—"While the British Empire arose the powers held and exercised by the Crown in the Tudor days have, by a process of internal change, passed to Ministers who are, through the intermediate agency of the House of Commons, practically chosen and kept in office, or dismissed from it, by the will of the majority of the people of the United Kingdom. . . . The Imperial Parliament has never abandoned its theoretic claim, or reserved right, to legislate in every respect for every portion of the dominions of the Crown, notwithstanding the existence of inferior legislatures. In theory the right exists unabated, and, in practice, the British Parliament has on several occasions passed laws affecting the whole Empire. Of this kind was the Act of 1824 prohibiting slave-trading, and the Act of 1833 emancipating slaves. In the present reign [of Queen Victoria] the Copyright Act (5 & 6 Vict. c. 45) enacts that its provisions shall extend to every part of the British Dominions, and defines that term as including 'all the colonies, settlements, and possessions of the Crown.' A general principle of importance was laid down by the Act 28 & 29 Vict. c. 63, which declares that 'any colonial law repugnant to the provisions of any Act of Parliament extending to the colony to which such law may relate shall, so far as repugnant, be void.' While, on the one hand, no colonial legislation can over-ride any imperial legislation intended to apply to the Colonies; on the other, as Professor Dicey says, 'No lawyer questions that Parliament could legally abolish any colonial constitution, or that Parliament can at any moment legislate for the Colonies, and repeal or over-ride any colonial law whatever.' Nor does the theoretic claim to plenary sovereign power stop short of the right of taxation. The constitutional lawyer has abandoned that impossible attempt to draw a distinction between fiscal and other modes of legislation which was made during the American conflict by many political reasoners in England and America. 'If Parliament,' says Professor Dicey, 'were to-morrow to impose a tax, say on Victoria, or on the Canadian Dominion, the statute imposing it would be a legally valid enactment.' It might, indeed, cause a political revolution, but judges would have no excuse for not recognising its validity in courts of law. . . . It is characteristic of the English, with their blended common-sense and reverence for precedent, that practice should widely diverge from theory. In theory, the monarch can, of his own free will, dismiss and appoint any Minister as he likes, dissolve his Parliament, and rule without one, himself

conduct all the affairs of the Empire; in practice, he 'reigns, but does not govern,' except indirectly by influence and advice. So also, when autonomy has been given to colonies, the Imperial Parliament, with rare exceptions, ceases to pass laws which affect their domestic affairs. The Imperial Parliament in this sphere reigns but governs not. But if the direct guidance and control now exercised by the British Parliament is less than it was to Burke's lofty imagination, yet the metropolitan authority has been turned to one new and dignified purpose. No colonial constitution, when he spoke, was based upon an Act of the British Parliament; they were all founded upon charters emanating directly or indirectly from the royal prerogative. This is so no longer. The Imperial Parliament is the fountain whence flows all legislative authority within the Empire. The great Indian system is derived from Westminster. The supreme legislative and executive power of the Viceroy in Council, subject to the ultimate sanction of the Secretary of State, is so vested by a series of Acts of Parliament. The central and provincial Legislative Councils in India, and the High Courts of Justice in the three Presidencies, rest upon the same foundation. Every colonial constitution, every Legislative Council and Parliament, is founded upon a British Act of Parliament. The Assembly by the Thames is justly called the 'Mother of Parliaments.' It is true, however, that, where the great Colonies are concerned, the Imperial Parliament does but seal, as it were, and give force to, the will of the colonial peoples. The Canadian Constitution of 1867 was passed through Parliament without a division, just as it had been framed by the leading statesmen of the several Canadian provinces, in consultation with each other, and with the Secretary of State. The Australian Commonwealth Bill of 1900 came to Westminster with still greater weight behind it, for its principles had been submitted by a direct reference to the vote of the electorate in the several Colonies concerned. The Australian Premiers desired that it should be passed without alteration, and professed at first that, by reason of the reference to the electorate, they were unable to give their assent to any substantial change whatever. The Premier of one of the federating Colonies even said in a public speech, 'There will be no safety or security for Australian union until it is known that the Bill that Australia has drafted for the Imperial Parliament to pass word for word is passed by that august tribunal word for word.' . . . Burke, bred and living under the old commercial system, had in his mind, as one chief attribute of the Imperial Parliament, the exclusive power to regulate the commercial relations of the different parts of the Empire to the metropolis and to each other. This power has, most of all, fallen into disuse. The United Kingdom has adopted free trade for herself, and has allowed each colony to regulate its commercial policy as it pleases. A colony may either adopt free trade or may shut out as much as it desires the goods of the rest of the Empire. There is no commercial unity of the British Empire, though India, because India is truly subordinate, is practically obliged to keep open ports. Just as there is at present no commercial unity of the British Empire, so there is no formal unity in foreign, naval, or military policy. There is no political machinery for formally ascertaining and expressing in action, in these matters, the united will of the great States which compose the Empire. If the Crown is at war with any foreign Power, it follows that Canada, Australia, South Africa, and all other dominions

are, by their allegiance, engaged in the hostilities. But the policy which leads to the war is solely determined by the Committee of Ministers proceeding from and responsible to the British Parliament; and they also, though they may choose to consult the Colonists, have full power to make peace when and upon what terms they deem advisable."—B. Holland, *Imperium et libertas*, pp. 268-273.

Privy Council as Supreme Court of British Empire.—"There still exists at the present day a very wide right of appeal to the Crown-in-Council from the courts of the oversea Dominions possessing responsible government, and it is perhaps not always realized that the right to appeal is not one which can be taken away at pleasure by the Legislatures of the Dominions. Apart altogether from the question of the exercise of the right of the Crown to withhold assent from a Bill fettering the right of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council to grant leave to appeal from the decision of a Dominion court, in almost every case such an attempt at legislation would be *ultra vires*, and would therefore not in law hamper the exercise of the discretion of the Judicial Committee in performing their function of considering such appeals. Moreover it must always be borne in mind that the Judicial Committee is a judicial body, and it is bound to deal with any such application in a judicial spirit and to decide it in a judicial manner. The right of the Crown to grant special leave to appeal rests on the royal prerogative in the first instance, but the prerogative can be barred by local legislation in most cases, and it may be held that it could effectively be barred in the case of this prerogative also. There is, however, a certain difficulty in the matter which cannot be wholly ignored. The prerogative is exercised in the United Kingdom, and not in the Dominion, and it may be argued that the effect of a local Act being limited in territorial effect would not bar the possibility of the grant by the Crown of special leave, and that, if on the hearing of the appeal the judgment were reversed, the effects of such a reversal would follow automatically in law, if not in practice. In any case, however, the power to prevent the operation of the prerogative is taken away from nearly all Dominion Legislatures by the provisions of an Act, 7 and 8 Vict. c. 69, which was passed, not for this purpose but merely because it had been found doubtful whether the Crown had power to hear cases brought on appeal, not from the last appellate jurisdiction in a colony, but from an inferior court. It may at first sight seem strange that there should have been any desire to hear appeals direct from the inferior courts, but the explanation is that in several colonies the final court of appeal in the colony itself was the Governor-in-Council, not a judicial body in any very satisfactory sense, and not one which was likely by its deliberations to add much of value to what was said in the highest inferior court. Indeed this anomalous system remained alive in theory in Western Australia until 1911, when the last remnant of it was abolished. The Act, however, while permitting appeals to be brought direct from any inferior court, incidentally abolished all restrictions on the right to bring appeals from the final court in any colony by including that court in its wording. It is not of course to be supposed that the Judicial Committee are indifferent to the views of the Dominion Governments in the matter of what appeals are proper. Of their own motion they have insisted on declining in normal circumstances to hear appeals in criminal cases and have

refused to become a court of criminal review, though they have always held themselves at liberty in any very extraordinary case to grant leave to appeal. The trial of Riel [in Canada] was clearly such a case: not only was the matter one of the utmost political interest in the Dominion, where the people of Quebec were eager to save a man whom most of Canada regarded as no better than a murderer. . . . As in Canada, in the Commonwealth [of Australia] there is the same possibility of elaborate appeals arising from the fact that an appeal lies from every Supreme Court in a State to the Privy Council or alternatively to the Commonwealth High Court, and that from the latter an appeal lies by special leave to the Judicial Committee. The case of the Commonwealth is, however, differentiated greatly from that of Canada by the arrangement made to preserve for the Commonwealth the decision of the interpretation of its own Constitution, a decision based on the American models. The Constitution as finally accepted by the Imperial Government allowed the High Court of the Commonwealth to be the final judge in any case brought before it where the constitutional rights of the States *inter se* or of the Commonwealth and the States were concerned. The High Court proceeded to interpret the constitution of the Commonwealth with such effect that the most wholesale attempts at amendment have been made by the Labour Party to rescue the Commonwealth as they hold from the legalism which has deadened its life and is destroying it. On the other hand the High Court on the occasion when it has allowed the Privy Council to deal with its judgments has not fared altogether very satisfactorily at its hands, and the irony of fate is that while the High Court of the Commonwealth has on the whole distinguished itself by the upholding of the rights of the States and not of the Commonwealth—whereas the tendency of the Supreme Court of Canada has rather leaned to the other side, the Privy Council, with whose decision it quarrelled in the early history of the court on the ground that it was too favourable to the States, has gone in its latest judgment much further than the Commonwealth High Court, by holding that the *Royal Commissions Act, 1912*, of the Commonwealth, on which action against the Colonial Sugar Refining Company was based, was not merely not applicable in that special case, but was in itself *ultra vires* as containing matter which was quite beyond the authority of the Commonwealth. In the ordinary jurisdiction of the High Court of the Commonwealth on appeal from the Supreme Courts of the States, the judgments of the Commonwealth have not received always very respectful handling from the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. In the case of the Union of South Africa far greater inroads in theory have been made on the royal prerogative than in any other Dominion. The *South Africa Act, 1909*, replaced the old procedure under which appeals came to the Privy Council from a considerable number of colonial courts, three in the Cape, two in the Transvaal, two in Natal, and one in the Orange River Colony, by the establishment of a new régime under which one Supreme Court for the Union was constituted, to which in its appellate division all the appeals which formerly went to the Privy Council as well as others might come. From the divisions of the Supreme Court no appeal was henceforth to lie to the Privy Council, but from the appellate division only might an appeal be brought by special leave to the Judicial Committee. It was also intimated that the occasions on which appeals could be allowed were

expected to be very rare indeed, as it was desired that the appellate division should in effect be the final appeal court for South Africa. It must, however, be remembered that the state of affairs in the Union is somewhat unusual—the law in force there is Roman-Dutch law, and the lawyers of the Union are familiar with the peculiar variety of that law which applies to the Union. Of the two ideals of the Commonwealth view in 1901, the first, that there should be one court only of appeal for the whole Empire, has been left in practically the same position as in 1901. The latter, the question of the addition of Colonial judges, has been dealt with piecemeal, and on the whole rather unsatisfactorily. The first step was taken in 1895, when by the *Judicial Committee Amendment Act, 1895*, it was rendered possible to add to the Privy Council not more than five persons being Privy Councillors who were also, or had been, Judges of the Supreme Court of the Dominion of Canada, or of any of the superior courts of the provinces, or Judges of the Supreme Courts of the Australasian Colonies, and the two South African Colonies, or other Colonies named by the King in Council. The number of five was only gradually made up: the Chief Justices of Canada, of the Cape, and of South Australia were appointed in 1897, and later, in 1904 and 1901, were added Sir H. E. Taschereau, the new Chief Justice of Canada, and Sir S. Griffith, the Chief Justice of Queensland. The places of the two older Canadian judges were taken by the appointment of Sir C. Fitzpatrick, Chief Justice of Canada from 1906, and of Sir E. Barton, of the High Court of Australia. But there was no provision in the Act for the payment of the judges, and as a result, though they might sit occasionally, that could only be on rare visits, when judges came to the United Kingdom on other business at their own expense or at the expense of the Government which they represented.—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the dominions*, pp. 367-369, 372-374, 380-381.

Imperial federation proposals.—18TH CENTURY. There were a number of imperial proposals made in the eighteenth century. "Representation, an American Parliament, commercial union, a permanent arbitration board, and a Pan-British League, were all advanced; but nowhere, not even in the last plan was the principle of federation applied to the solution of the Imperial problem. Though, at the first glance, this may seem strange, yet it is easily explained. This idea, which dominates the Imperialism of the nineteenth century, was entirely absent from the eighteenth century movement, because of two great intervening changes: 1. Though as old as the Achaean League, the principle of federation was languishing in Europe. There were no outstanding examples of its application until it was revived in the American Constitution. Meanwhile the idea of liberty, which had been fermenting in French philosophical writings, was consecrated and desecrated by the Revolution. Men began to realize that liberty could be best secured under a system of federation, and this idea grew with the prosperity of the United States, where the greatest federal experiment in the history of the world was in operation. 2. The great development of the Empire rendered inevitable the concession of responsible self-government to the Colonies. This, together with the growth of the individual Colonies to such a size that they might claim to be regarded as equal members of the Empire rather than distant appendages, seemed to prepare the way for federation."—A. L. Burt, *Imperial architects, etc.*, pp. 101-102.

19TH CENTURY.—Many nineteenth century philosophers and patriots had given thought to a closer union of the empire and had clearly foreseen the advantages to be derived from better understanding and organization. The first step in practical politics was not taken, however, until 1884 when under the leadership of the Rt. Hon. W. E. Forster, former Secretary for Ireland, the *Imperial Federation League* was formed. Under Mr. Forster's influence and that of his successor Lord Rosebery the project grew. The conference of 1887 was summoned as a result of a suggestion made to the imperial government by the league. Lord Salisbury, the prime minister, received a deputation from the league in 1891 but declared it "an insult to summon a conference, and to have no proposition to make to them." A general election and a change of ministry interrupted the progress and in December, 1893, seven months after Mr. Gladstone, the new prime minister, had received a deputation the Imperial Federation League was dissolved on the grounds that it "had reached the limit of effective action." In 1895 the British Empire league took up the work along similar lines. The Imperial Federation League held its inaugural meeting at the Westminster Palace Hotel, London, in July, 1884, W. E. Forster presiding. "At that meeting—which was attended by a large number of members of Parliament of both parties, and representatives of the colonies—it was moved by the Rt. Hon. W. H. Smith: 'That, in order to secure the permanent unity of the Empire, some form of federation is essential.' That resolution was seconded by the Earl of Rosebery, and passed unanimously. In November of the same year the Imperial Federation League was formed to carry out the objects of that resolution; and the subject has received considerable attention since. . . . I believe all are agreed that the leading objects of the Imperial Federation League are to find means by which the colonies, the outlying portions of the Empire, may have a certain voice and weight and influence in reference to the foreign policy of this country, in which they are all deeply interested, and sometimes more deeply interested than the United Kingdom itself. In the next place, that measures may be taken by which all the power and weight and influence that these great British communities in Australasia, in South Africa, and in Canada possess shall be brought into operation for the strengthening and defence of the Empire. The discussion of these questions has led to a great deal of progress. We have got rid of a number of fallacies that obtained in the minds of a good many persons in relation to the means by which those objects are to be attained. Most people have come to the conclusion stated by Lord Rosebery at the Mansion House, that a Parliamentary Federation, if practicable, is so remote, that during the coming century it is not likely to make any very great advance. We have also got rid of the fallacy that it was practicable to have a common tariff throughout the Empire. It is not, in my opinion, consistent with the constitution either of England or of the autonomous colonies. The tariff of a country must rest of necessity mainly with the Government of the day, and involves such continual change and alteration as to make uniformity impracticable. . . . I regard the time as near at hand when the great provinces of Australasia will be confederated under one Government [they were, in 1901]. . . . When that has been done it will be followed, I doubt not, at a very early day, by a similar course on the part of South Africa [this was achieved on May 31, 1910], and then we shall stand in the position of

having three great dominions, commonwealths, or realms, or whatever name is found most desirable on the part of the people who adopt them—three great British communities, each under one central and strong Government. When that is accomplished, the measure which the Marquis of Lorne has suggested, of having the representatives of these colonies during the term of their office here in London, practically Cabinet Ministers, will give to the Government of England an opportunity of learning in the most direct and complete manner the views and sentiments of each of those great British communities in regard to all questions of foreign policy affecting the colonies. I would suggest that the representatives of those three great British communities here in London should be leading members of the Cabinet of the day of the country they represent, going out of office when their Government is changed. In that way they would always represent the country, and necessarily the views of the party in power in Canada, in Australasia, and in South Africa. That would involve no constitutional change; it would simply require that whoever represented those dominions in London should have a seat in their own Parliament, and be a member of the Administration."—C. Tupper, *Federating the empire (Nineteenth Century, Oct., 1891)*.—"Recent expensive wars at the Cape, annexations of groups of islands in the neighbourhood of Australia, the Fishery and other questions that have arisen, and may arise, on the North American continent, have all compelled us to take a review of our responsibilities in connection with our Colonies and to consider how far, in the event of trouble, we may rely upon their assistance to adequately support the commercial interests of our scattered Empire. It is remarkable that, although the matters here indicated are slowly coming to the surface, and have provoked discussion, they have not been forced upon the public attention suddenly, or by any violent injury or catastrophe. The review men are taking of our position, and the debates as to how best we can make our relationships of standing value, have been the natural outcome of slowly developing causes and effects. Politicians belonging to both of the great parties in the State have joined the Federation League. The leaders have expressly declared that they do not desire at the present moment to propound any definite theories, or to push any premature scheme for closer union of the Empire. The society has been formed for the purpose of discussing any plans proposed for such objects. The suggestions actually made have varied in importance from comprehensive projects of universal commercial union and common contributions for a world-wide military and naval organization, to such a trivial proposal as the personal recognition of distinguished colonists by a nomination to the peerage."—The Marquis of Lorne [ninth duke of Argyll], *Imperial federation, ch. 1.*—"Many schemes of federation have been propounded, and many degrees of federal union are possible. Lord Rosebery has not gone further, as yet, than the enunciation of a general principle. 'The federation we aim at (he has said) is the closest possible union of the various self-governing States ruled by the British Crown, consistent with that free development which is the birthright of British subjects all over the world—the closest union in sympathy, in external action, and in defence.' . . . The representation of the Colonies in the Privy Council has been viewed with favour, both by statesmen and by theoretical writers. Earl Grey has proposed [written, 1891] the appointment of a Federal Committee,

selected from the Privy Council, to advise with the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The idea thus shadowed forth has been worked out with greater amplitude of detail by Mr. Creswell, in an essay to which the prize offered by the London Chamber of Commerce was awarded. 'The Imperial assembly which we want,' says Mr. Creswell, 'must be an independent body, constitutional in its origin, representative in its character, and supreme in its decisions. Such a body we have already in existence in the Privy Council. Its members are chosen, irrespective of party considerations, from among the most eminent of those who have done service to the State. To this body colonists of distinguished public service could be elected. In constituting the Imperial Committee of the Privy Council, representation might be given to every part of the empire, in proportion to the several contributions to expenditure for Imperial defence.' The constitution of a great Council of the Empire, with similar functions in relation to foreign affairs to those which are exercised in the United States by a Committee of the Senate, is a step for which public opinion is not yet prepared. In the meanwhile the utmost consideration is being paid at the Foreign Office to Colonial feelings and interests. No commitments or engagements are taken which would not be approved by Colonial opinion. Another proposal which has been warmly advocated, especially by the Protectionists, is that for a customs-union between the Mother-country and the Colonies. It cannot be said that at the present time proposals for a customs-union are ripe for settlement, or even for discussion, at a conference of representatives from all parts of the empire. The Mother-country has been committed for more than a generation to the principle of Free-trade. By our policy of free imports of food and raw materials we have sn cheapened production that we are able to compete successfully with all comers in the neutral markets of the world. . . . It would be impossible to entertain the idea of a reversal of our fiscal policy, in however restricted a sense, without careful and exhaustive inquiry. . . . Lord Rosebery has recently declared that in his opinion it is impracticable to devise a scheme of representation for the Colonies in the House of Commons and House of Lords, or in the Privy Council. The scheme of an Imperial customs-union, ably put forward by Mr. Hofmyer [of South Africa] at the last Colonial Conference [1887], he equally rejects. Lord Rosebery would limit the direct action of the Imperial Government for the present to conferences, summoned at frequent intervals. Our first conference was summoned by the Government at the instance of the Imperial Federation League. It was attended by men of the highest distinction in the Colonies. Its deliberations were guided by Lord Knutsford . . . ; it considered many important questions of common interest to the different countries of the empire; it arrived at several important decisions, and it cleared the air of not a few doubts and delusions. The most tangible, the most important, and the most satisfactory result of that conference was the recognition by the Australian colonies of the necessity for making provision for the naval defence of their own waters by means of ships, provided by the Government of the United Kingdom, but maintained by the Australian Governments. Lord Rosebery holds that the question of Imperial Federation depends for the present on frequent conferences . . . he laid down the conditions essential to the success of conferences in the future. They must be held periodically and at stated intervals.

The Colonies must send the best men to represent them. The Government of the Mother-country must invest these periodical congresses with all the authority and splendour which it is in their power to give. The task to be accomplished will not be the production of statutes, but the production of recommendations. Those who think that a congress that only meets to report and recommend has but a neutral task before it, have a very inadequate idea of the influence which would be exercised by a conference representing a quarter of the human race, and the immeasurable opulence and power that have been garnered up by past centuries of our history. If we have these conferences, if they are allowed to discuss, as they must be allowed to discuss, all topics which any parties to these conferences should recommend to be discussed, Lord Rosebery cannot apprehend that they would be wanting in authority or in weight. Lord Salisbury in his speeches recently delivered [written, 1801] in reply to the Earl of Dunraven in the House of Lords, and in reply to the deputation of the Imperial Federation League at the Foreign Office, has properly insisted on the chief practical obstacle to a policy of frequent conferences. Attendance at conferences involves grave inconvenience to Colonial statesmen. . . . In appealing to the Imperial Federation League for some practical suggestions as to the means by which the several parts of the British Empire may be more closely knit together, Lord Salisbury threw out some pregnant hints. To make a united empire both a Zollverein and a Kriegsverein must be formed. In the existing state of feeling in the Mother-country a Zollverein would be a serious difficulty. The reasons have been already stated. A Kriegsverein was, perhaps, more practicable, and certainly more urgent. The space which separates the Colonies from possible enemies was becoming every year less and less a protection. We may take concerted action for defence without the necessity for constitutional changes which it would be difficult to carry out."—T. Brassey, *Imperial federation: An English view (Nineteenth Century, Sept., 1801)*.—"The late Mr. Forster launched under the high-sounding title of the 'Imperial Federation League,' a scheme by which its authors proposed to solve all the problems attending the administration of our colonial empire. From first to last the authors of this scheme have never condescended on particulars. 'Imperial federation,' we were always told, was the only specific against the disintegration of the Empire, but as to what this specific really was, no information was vouchsafed. . . . It is very natural that the citizens of a vast but fragmentary empire, whose territorial atoms (instead of forming, like those of the United States, a 'ring-fence' domain) are scattered over the surface of the globe, should cast about for some artificial links to bind together the colonies we have planted, and 'the thousand tribes nourished on strange religions and lawless slaveries' which we have gathered under our rule. This anxiety has been naturally augmented by a chronic agitation for the abandonment of all colonies as expensive and useless. For though there may be little to boast of in the fact that Great Britain has in the course of less than three centuries contrived by war, diplomacy, and adventure, to annex about a fifth of the globe, it can hardly be expected that she should relinquish without an effort even the nominal sway she still holds over her colonial empire. Hence it comes to pass that any scheme which seems to supply the needed links is caught up by those who, possessing slight acquaintance with the past history or the present

aspirations of our colonists, are simply looking out for some new contrivance by which they may hope that an enduring bond of union may be provided. 'Imperial federation' is the last new 'notion' which has cropped up in pursuance of this object. . . . Some clue . . . to its objects and aims may be gained by a reference to the earliest exposition by Mr. Forster of his motives contained in his answer five years ago to the question, 'Why was the League formed at all?' 'For this reason,' says Mr. Forster, 'because in giving self-government to our colonies we have introduced a principle which must eventually shake off from Great Britain, Greater Britain, and divide it into separate states, which must, in short, dissolve the union unless counteracting measures be taken to preserve it.' Believing, as we do, that it has only been by conceding to our larger groups of colonies absolute powers of self-government that we have retained them at all, and that the secret of our protracted empire lies in the fact of this abandonment of central arbitrary power, the retention of which has caused the collapse of all the European empires which preceded us in the path of colonisation, we are bound to enter our emphatic protest against an assumption so utterly erroneous as that propounded by Mr. Forster. So far from believing that the permanent union of the British Empire is to be secured by 'measures which may counteract the workings of colonial self-government,' we are convinced that the only safety for our Empire lies in the unfettered action of that self-government which we have ourselves granted to our colonies. It would almost seem that for Lord Rosebery and his fellow workers the history of the colonial empires of Portugal, Spain, Holland, and France had been written in vain. For if we ask why these colonial empires have dwindled and decayed, the answer is simply because that self-government which is the life of British colonies was never granted to their dependencies. There was a time when one hundred and fifty sovereign princes paid tribute to the treasury of Lisbon. For two hundred years, more than half the South American continent was an appanage of Spain. Ceylon, the Cape, Guiana, and a vast cluster of trade factories in the East were at the close of the seventeenth century colonies of Holland; while half North America, comprising the vast and fertile valleys of the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, and the Ohio, obeyed, a little more than a century ago, the sceptre of France. Neither Portugal, nor Spain, nor Holland, nor France, has lacked able rulers or statesmen, but the colonial empire of all these states has crumbled and decayed. The exceptional position of Great Britain in this respect can only be ascribed to the relinquishment of all the advantages, political and commercial, ordinarily presumed to result to dominant states from the possession of dependencies. . . . The romantic dreams of the Imperial Federation League were in fact dissipated beforehand by the irrevocable grant of independent legislatures to all our most important colonies, and Lord Rosebery may rest assured that, charm he never so wisely, they will not listen to his blandishments at the cost of one iota of the political privileges already conferred on them."—*Imperial federation* (Edinburgh Review, July, 1889).—"Britannic Confederation" is defined to be an union of 'the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, British North America, British South Africa, and Australasia.' The West Indies and one or two other British Dependencies seem here to be shut out; but, at any rate, with this definition we at least know where we are. The terms of the union we are not told; but, as the

word 'confederation' is used, I conceive that they are meant to be strictly federal. That is to say, first of all, the Parliament of the United Kingdom will give up its right to legislate for British North America, British South Africa, and Australasia. Then the United Kingdom, British North America, British South Africa and Australasia will enter into a federal relation with one another. They may enter either as single members (States or Cantons) or as groups of members. That is, Great Britain and Ireland might enter as a single State of the Confederation, or England, Scotland, Ireland, Wales—or possibly smaller divisions again—might enter as separate States. Or Great Britain, Australia, Canada, &c., might enter as themselves Leagues, members of a greater League, as in the old state of things in Graubünden. I am not arguing for or against any of these arrangements. I am only stating them as possible. But whatever the units are to be—Great Britain and Australia, England and Victoria, or anything larger or smaller—it the confederation is to be a real one, each State must keep some powers to itself, and must yield some powers to a central body. That Central body, in which all the States must be represented in some way or other, will naturally deal with all international matters, all matters that concern the Britannic Confederation as a whole. The legislatures of Great Britain and Australia, England and Victoria, or whatever the units fixed on may be, will deal only with the internal affairs of those several cantons. Now such a scheme as this is theoretically possible. That is, it involves no contradiction in terms, as the talk about Imperial Federation does. It is purely federal; there is nothing 'imperial' about it. It is simply applying to certain political communities a process which has been actually gone through by certain other political communities. It is proposing to reconstruct a certain political constitution after the model of certain other political constitutions which are in actual working. It is therefore something better than mere talk and theory. But, because it is theoretically possible, it does not follow that it is practically possible, that is, that it is possible in this particular case. . . . Of the federations existing at this time the two chief are Switzerland and the United States of America. They differ in this point, that one is very large and the other very small; they agree in this, that the territory of both is continuous. But the proposed Britannic Confederation will be scattered, scattered over every part of the world. I know of no example in any age of a scattered confederation, a scattered Bundesstaat. The Hanse Towns were not a Bundesstaat; they were hardly a Staatenbund. Of the probable working of such a body as that which is now proposed the experience of history can teach us nothing; we can only guess what may be likely. The Britannic Confederation will have its federal congress sitting somewhere, perhaps at Westminster, perhaps at Melbourne, perhaps at some Washington called specially into being at some point more central than either. . . . For a while their representatives will think it grand to sit at Westminster; presently, as the spirit of equality grows, they are not unlikely to ask for some more central place; they may even refuse to stir out of their own territory. That is to say, they will find that the sentiment of national unity, which they undoubtedly have in no small measure, needs some physical and some political basis to stand on. It is hard to believe that States which are united only by a sentiment, which have so much, both political and physical, to keep them asunder, will be kept to-

gether for ever by a sentiment only. And we must further remember that that sentiment is a sentiment for the mother-country, and not for one another. . . . Canada and Australia care a great deal for Great Britain; we may doubt whether, apart from Great Britain, Canada and Australia care very much for one another. There may be American States which care yet less for one another; but in their case mere continuity produces a crowd of interests and relations common to all. We may doubt whether the confederation of States so distant as the existing colonies of Great Britain, whether the bringing them into closer relations with one another as well as with Great Britain, will at all tend to the advance of a common national unity among them. We may doubt whether it will not be likely to bring out some hidden tendencies to disunion among them. . . . In the scattered confederation all questions and parties are likely to be local. It is hard to see what will be the materials for the formation of great national parties among such scattered elements."—E. A. Freeman, *Physical and political bases of national unity, (Britannic Confederation, ed. by A. S. White)*.

20TH CENTURY.—That the federal idea still survives and is gathering strength is evidenced by a meeting of the *Empire Parliamentary Association* held in Westminster Hall, London, on December 15, 1919. The Speaker of the House of Commons, J. W. Lowther, presided over the gathering, which was attended by several colonial statesmen. A. J. Balfour, lord president of the council in the cabinet, delivered the following address:

"There are periods in the life of every individual and of every community in which events seem to hurry so fast that what might normally take a quarter of a century is got through in comparatively a few years or months. That is the case with the British Empire. The five years of war have produced consequences, mostly very bad consequences, in every part of the world. They have touched almost every interest concerned—commercial, domestic, as well as naval and military—and one of the things they have touched is the relation between our Dominions and ourselves. I do not believe there is a single politician or Minister on the Continent who for one moment supposed before the war that in moments of great national crises the Dominions would count themselves as, for every purpose, one with the Mother country, and who would be prepared with public spirit, with enthusiasm, and with a courage unsurpassed in the history of the world to throw themselves into the common cause. That is precisely the sort of event which those who pride themselves on their knowledge of human nature—by which they mean the selfish and unidealistic side of human nature—never can be brought to believe until it comes to pass. So, however, it has been, and if the British Empire, if this group of free democracies had never existed for any other purpose than that of fighting a great war it would not have existed in vain. Now, there can be no question. I think that the result of this common partnership in great perils and sacrifices is going to act as a bond of glorious memory between the different parts of the Empire for all time. But do not let us exaggerate all that we have gained by the unity of a great effort. Let us remember that in national life as well as in individual life moments of prodigious strain are always followed by some discouragement and reaction. Moreover, the difficulty which has constantly been present to the statesmen both in the Dominions and at home for a generation or more is still with us—the difficulty

of finding some organization which shall increase unity of action and unity of sentiment and shall not interfere with the absolute autonomy of the great constitutional elements of this great community of nations. It is inevitable that the difficulty of treating a community of five democracies as though they were one must become accentuated when, as in Paris, for example, or during the war, common action is required for all. It is a miracle of statesmanship on the part of the Prime Ministers of these various communities that this common action has been effectively attained. I have no doubt our friends and colleagues at the Conference have sometimes felt that to deal with five Powers, as if they were one, produced occasionally some difficulties and some delays; but on the whole they have accepted without qualification the situation and have acted upon it, and they are so conscious of all they have gained by the unity of the British Empire that they certainly did their best to help all those members of the Empire when they desired to join in common action. We have this magnificent performance behind us, fresh in our memories, and the question is, How are we to perpetuate all the good that has already accrued to us? How are we to avoid the ills of that period of reaction—of which I see no signs, but which I anticipate on general grounds—when that period of reaction sets in?"—Continuing the discussion, Colonel Amery, M. P., under-secretary for the colonies, said that the ultimate unity of the empire could only rest on the basis of complete equality of status in each truly governed part of it. The solution of that problem would involve great constitutional changes, and he was convinced that they could devise no new constitutional framework unless they got the men to understand how to work it and how to work with each other. The Speaker of the House of Commons then informed the meeting that he had been engaged lately in a task . . . connected with the question of devolution. . . . If that scheme should be adopted there was no doubt it would be the first stage towards the object which many members of the association and of the Oversea Dominion Parliaments had in view—namely, a federation of the Parliaments of the British Empire. That was still a very long way off, but it was an object which, he thought, they should keep before them. The difficulties of solution were very great; they were immense, but it was one at which they should aim.—Based on *The Times (London)*, Dec. 16, 1919.—See also NEW ZEALAND: 1916-1921; SUPFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire. 1921.

ALSO IN: Sir H. Jenkins, *British rule and administration beyond the seas*.—E. J. Payne, *Colonies and colonial federation*.—A. Todd, *Parliamentary government in the British colonies*.—H. E. Egerton, *Federations and unions within the British Empire*.

CITIZENSHIP AND NATURALIZATION

It is understood that before long the whole subject of the naturalization of aliens, which is generally considered as unduly lax, is to be reviewed and overhauled. At present the law is laid down in the British Nationality and Status of Aliens Acts, 1914 and 1918, which consolidated and amended the previous laws as from January 1, 1915. It may be pointed out that, as the law now stands, there is no uniform code of naturalization for the British empire. Certificates granted are local in their operation and do not necessarily naturalize the holder in other parts of the dominions, the latter not being bound to recognize a cer-

tificate granted elsewhere.—“It was natural that with a growing sense of nationhood there should arise a growing sense that there should be one common naturalization for the whole Empire. The naturalization law was considered in great detail by a Committee in 1901, and many of its defects were rendered obvious. A district movement towards final agreement with regard to the matter was made at the Colonial Conference of 1907, when the question was dealt with in some detail, and the outlines of the proposed new legislation considered. It was realized on all sides that the fundamental root of the difficulty was the absolute separation of the two kinds of naturalization: The British naturalization could only be obtained either by service under the Crown or by residence in the United Kingdom, while the Dominion naturalization was restricted to cases where the residence had taken place in the Dominion. No length of mere residence in a Dominion, despite naturalization there, as the law stood would be of the slightest aid to a man in becoming naturalized in the United Kingdom, but, like any newly-arrived alien he would have to reside for five years and declare his intention to continue to reside or to serve abroad under the Crown. . . . Finally, agreement was reached, and the Imperial *British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914*, deals with the question on the agreed basis. It provides for the grant by the Secretary of State of a certificate of naturalization to any alien on proof of five years' residence in the British Dominions in the eight years preceding his application and one year's immediately preceding residence in the United Kingdom, or, in lieu, five years' service under the Crown. An applicant must be of good character and have an adequate knowledge of the English language, and must intend either to reside in the British dominions or to serve under the Crown. In the case of a woman whose alienage is due to marriage, and whose husband is dead or is divorced from her, the period of residence may be dispensed with, and in any special case the rule regarding the limitation of eight years may be relaxed. A person thus naturalized is given all the privileges of a natural-born British subject, the few restrictions on the rights of naturalized aliens preserved by the Act of Settlement being abolished. The name of a minor child may be included in the certificate granted to an alien, but such a child may renounce British nationality within a year of attaining full age, and in any case the Secretary of State may grant a certificate to a minor if he sees fit. Any certificate issued may be revoked if granted on false representations or fraud. The powers of the Secretary of State to grant a certificate may be exercised by the Government of any British possession on the same terms *mutatis mutandis*, and with the addition that, where another language is recognized as being on the same official footing as English, that language may be accepted as an alternative to English, as is the case with French in Quebec, and Dutch in the Union of South Africa. Any certificate so granted shall have the same effect as one granted by the Secretary of State. But the legislative authority of the Dominions is preserved by the enactment that this part of the Act and any certificate of naturalization granted under it shall not have effect within any of the Dominions enjoying self-government unless it is adopted by the Dominion legislature. Such adoption may be rescinded by the legislature, but without prejudice to legal rights existing at the time of rescission, and in adopting the Act the legislature may make provision as to how the powers of the Govern-

ment are to be exercised. The Act further lays down—and this generally and without reference to legislation by the Dominion—rules for the nationality of British subjects. A natural-born British subject includes any person born within His Majesty's dominions and allegiance, but excluding the child of a foreign ambassador who owes no allegiance; and a person born out of His Majesty's dominions whose father was a British subject at the time of his birth and either was born within His Majesty's allegiance, or was a person to whom a certificate of naturalization was granted; and any person born on board a British ship, whether in foreign territorial waters or not. It is expressly provided that the child of a British subject, whether born before or after the passing of the Act, is to be deemed to have been born within the allegiance if born in a place where the Crown exercises extra-territorial jurisdiction, and that a person born on a foreign ship in British territorial waters shall not by that mere fact acquire British nationality. These two provisions are new: the first covers the case of children of British subjects in protectorates and in places like Turkey, where there is a resident British community of old standing. . . . The Act is of great importance for many reasons. It was passed with the full assent of the Dominion Parliaments and Governments, and it is expressed in large measure in terms which show that it applies without adoption by the Dominion Parliaments to the whole Empire. Indeed, it is a little difficult to see why the special case of naturalization should have been selected for Imperial legislation only to have effect with Dominion concurrence, were it not for the fact that British nationality generally had not been the subject of any Dominion legislation, and, as a Dominion is a dependency, it may be that no legislature in a Dominion would have been able to legislate so as to deprive a natural-born British subject of his nationality, though it might deprive him of all civil rights of every kind. . . . While British nationality is in one sense indivisible, there is an inevitable tendency to make a distinction between British subjects in regard to their connexion with the United Kingdom or a Dominion. The term British is often applied in the Dominions to a native of the United Kingdom, and the terms Canadian, Australian, New Zealander, South African, and Newfoundland, are regularly applied to the classes of British subjects born in these Dominions, or identified with them by residence. . . . Nor is this practical distinction of everyday life without a result in law. In the case of the Commonwealth the power of the Parliament is confined to immigration, and, by reason of the division of powers between the States and the Commonwealth, it is not open for the Commonwealth Parliament to make of immigration a term of vague meaning sufficient to cover any person entering a State of the Commonwealth. It has definitely and very properly, it would seem, been held by the High Court of the Commonwealth that a man cannot be an immigrant if he is a native of Australia, so that while an Australian law can shut out from entry an ordinary British subject it cannot shut out an Australian British subject, and this connexion would of course include any person domiciled in Australia, for such a person cannot be held to be an immigrant by any effort of the imagination. It is true that the Privy Council have laid it down that an alien has no right enforceable by law to enter a British Dominion, but the right of the coloured British immigrant is in all the Dominions, save Newfoundland, where he

does not want to go, as nugatory as that of the alien, and in point of fact the alien is admitted in many cases freely where the British Indian is rejected. Even the alien Japanese has a distinct preference *de facto* over the Indian in Canada, though it must be noted that this preference is due to the inability of the Government of India to adopt the same rules of restricting emigration from that country as the Japanese Government finds it possible to do in the case of the emigration of her subjects. While the advantages flowing from British nationality to inhabitants of the Dominions are very considerable, it can hardly be said that British nationality in itself confers upon any British subject in the Dominions any special rights. The express provisions of the *British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914*, allow any Dominion or State or Provincial Legislature and Government to exercise any rights they choose in the differential treatment of British subjects, and, unless the wording of the Act is strained, seems even to confer on all aliens a right as to personal property which is not conferred on all British subjects. In point of fact, moreover, it is impossible to deny that the Dominions treat various classes of aliens better than they do British subjects. From the unity of British nationality certain advantages are derived by the inhabitants of the oversea Dominions, such as the protection of the British power in the other States of the world, the free right of entry into the United Kingdom, and full political rights in that country. They also derive a somewhat remarkable advantage which has perhaps not always been realized. In the modern treaties of commerce and navigation no less than in older documents it is the custom to make express stipulations for personal rights of various kinds. Thus, to take a modern case, the treaty with Japan of 1911 assures to those entitled to its benefits the same rights as native citizens as regards entry and residence, and the carrying of commerce, manufacture, and trade, most favoured nation treatment in the matter of the pursuit of industries, professions, and trade, permission to own and hire premises and warehouses, and to lease lands, to have full access to the law courts on the same conditions as native subjects, and to enjoy exemption from military service, forced loans, and military requisitions, except such as are imposed on native owners of immovable property. . . . These personal privileges as opposed to such privileges as are directly connected with goods such as the duties to be levied on goods on entry are held to accrue to every British subject, wherever he may have been born or he domiciled, even although the Dominion in which he was born or is domiciled may not have been brought under the operation of the treaty at all, as, in the case of the Japanese treaty, is the position as regards Australia, New Zealand, and the Union of South Africa."—A. B. Keith, *Imperial unity and the Dominions*, pp. 247-248, 251-252.

COLONIAL AND IMPERIAL CONFERENCES, AND EMPIRE PROBLEMS

1887.—Colonial conference at London.—"An imperial conference, composed of delegates from all the self-governing Colonies, was held at the Foreign Office under the presidency of Sir Henry Holland, and was addressed at its first sitting (April 4) by Lord Salisbury. The Prime Minister offered to the delegates the hearty welcome of the Government and of the country. He deprecated 'all ambitious schemes of constitution-making,' though he held the aspiration for federation to be

'the nebulous matter which, in the course of ages, would cool down into material and practical results.' For the present, however, the task was to form neither a general Union nor a Zollverein, but a *Kriegsverein*—a combination for purposes of self-defence. So great was the advance in the power of making distant combinations, owing to the progress of modern science, that even if the Colonies were independent States, they would not be safe. They occupied some of the fairest and most desirable portions of the earth's surface; the desire for colonies had greatly increased, and, unless defended, they might be menaced with sudden attack. Their permanent interest, therefore, was to organise means of defence, to prepare men as well as money, and to the utmost of their means to strengthen the capacity of the Empire for defending them. 'The desire for colonial and foreign possessions,' Lord Salisbury remarked, 'is increasing among the nations of Europe. The power of concentrating military and naval forces is increasing under the influence of scientific progress. Put all those things together and you will see that the colonies have a real and genuine interest in the shield which their Imperial connection throws over them, and that they have a ground for joining with us in making the defences of the Empire secure—a ground which is not purely sentimental, and which does not rest merely on their attachment to this country, but which is based on the most solid and reasonable foundations of self-interest and security.'—*Annual Register, 1887, p. 127*.—"The meeting was summoned for friendly discussion for consulting, not for binding, the different governments in any way, and a large number of subjects were considered, a notable feature being a motion by Mr. Hofmeyr, one of the Cape representatives and 'of Dutch descent 'to discuss the feasibility of promoting a closer union between the various parts of the British Empire by means of Imperial tariff of customs to be levied independently of the duties payable under existing tariffs, on goods entering the Empire from abroad, the revenue derived from such tariff to be devoted to the general defence of the Empire.'"—*Oxford Survey, p. 50*.

1894.—Colonial conference at Ottawa.—On the invitation of the Dominion government a colonial conference was held at Ottawa for the purpose of discussing the question of trade and communication between the colonies and the mother country. Delegates attended from New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, South Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand and from the Cape Colony. Important resolutions were passed urging the removal of legislative or treaty obstacles to preferential tariff treatment within the empire, the establishment of a mail service between Great Britain and Australasia, via Canada, and the connection of Canada and Australasia by a cable under British control.

1897.—Colonial conference at London.—"Three years after the meeting at Ottawa, the celebration of the sixtieth year of the reign of Queen Victoria brought the third Colonial Conference. The prime ministers of all the self-governing colonies were invited to be present at the celebration as royal guests, and their presence in London was made the occasion for a Conference, presided over by Mr. Joseph Chamberlain, who was Secretary of State for the Colonies. Canada, the six Australian colonies, New Zealand, the Cape Colony, Natal, and Newfoundland were all represented by their prime ministers. Political relations, commercial questions, and defence, all received attention. A resolution was passed in favor of denouncing at

the earliest convenient time any treaties which hampered the freedom of commercial relations between Great Britain and her colonies by conceding to a foreign country most favoured-nation treatment, and this resolution led shortly afterward to the denunciation of the commercial treaties with Germany and Belgium. Another resolution suggested preference to the products of the United Kingdom in the markets of the colonies 'in the hope of improving the trade relations between the mother country and the colonies.' The all-important question of the exclusion of coloured immigrants from the self-governing colonies was discussed; and so was also the question of closer political union between the self-governing colonies and the mother country, involving on the one hand participation by the colonies in the direction of imperial policy and on the other proportionate contribution to imperial expenditure. Federation of colonies geographically coterminous was favoured; which expression of opinion was followed in three years' time by the passing of the Act constituting the Commonwealth of Australia. Much prominence was given to naval matters. The First Lord of the Admiralty attended the Conference and made a statement as to naval defence; while the Prime Minister of the Cape offered on behalf of his government a contribution to the Royal Navy in the form of the cost of a first-class battleship—an offer for which an annual payment was subsequently substituted. This Conference of 1897 more nearly approximated than the previous conferences to the form which the Imperial Conference has now taken, each colony being represented by its Prime Minister, all classes of subjects being discussed and a general agreement being arrived at that similar meetings should be held periodically."—*Oxford Survey*, pp. 52-53.—The colonial premiers also took this opportunity to hold a postal conference which resulted in the establishment of an imperial penny postage.

1898 (December).—Imperial penny postage.—On Christmas Day, 1898, the imperial penny postage came into operation,—i. e., it became possible to send for a penny a letter not above half an ounce in weight to all places in the British empire, except the Australasian colonies and the Cape. "Thousands of small orders and business transactions and millions of questions and answers will fly round the world at a penny which were too heavily weighted at twopence halfpenny. The political effect of the fact that it will not now be necessary to think whether an address is outside the United Kingdom, but only whether it is inside the British Empire, will be by no means insignificant. If people will only let the Empire alone we shall ultimately weave out of many varied strands—some thick, some thin—a rope to join the Motherland and the Daughter States which none will be able to break. Not an unimportant thread in the hawser will be,—letters for a penny wherever the Union Jack is flown."—*Spectator*, London, Dec. 31, 1898.

1902.—Conference at London with the prime ministers of the self-governing colonies.—Address of the colonial secretary, Joseph Chamberlain.—Results of the conference.—Taking advantage of the presence in London of the prime ministers of the various self-governing colonies of Britain, on the occasion of the coronation of King Edward VII, a conference with them, touching questions of general interest, was arranged by the secretary of state for the colonies, Joseph Chamberlain, in meetings which extended from June to August, 1902. The proceedings were confidential, and no report of discussions made public; but the

resulting resolutions, together with the opening address of the colonial secretary, and certain statements on subjects considered, are printed in a parliamentary paper (Cd. 1209) from which the following account of the conference is derived:

Mr. Chamberlain in his address argued strongly and with feeling for a political federation of the empire.

He said: "We have had, within the last few years, a most splendid evidence of the results of a voluntary union without any formal obligations, in the great crisis of the [South African] war through which we have now happily passed. The action of the self-governing Colonies in the time of danger of the motherland has produced here a deep and a lasting impression. . . I feel, therefore, in view of this it would be a fatal mistake to transform the spontaneous enthusiasm which has been so readily shown throughout the Empire into anything in the nature of an obligation which might be at this time unwillingly assumed or only formally accepted. The link which unites us, almost invisible as it is sentimental in its character, is one which we would gladly strengthen, but at the same time it has proved itself to be so strong that certainly we would not wish to substitute for it a chain which might be galling in its incidence. And, therefore, upon this point of the political relations between the Colonies and ourselves, His Majesty's Government, while they would welcome any approach which might be made to a more definite and a closer union, feel that it is not for them to press this upon you. The demand, if it comes, and when it comes, must come from the Colonies. If it comes it will be enthusiastically received in this country.

"And in this connection I would venture to refer to an expression in an eloquent speech of my right honorable friend, the Premier of the Dominion of Canada—an expression which has called forth much appreciation in this country, although I believe that Sir Wilfrid Laurier has himself in subsequent speeches explained that it was not quite correctly understood. But the expression was, 'If you want our aid call us to your councils.' Gentlemen, we do want your aid. We do require your assistance in the administration of the vast Empire, which is yours as well as ours. The weary Titan staggers under the too vast orb of its fate. We have borne the burden for many years. We think it is time our children should assist us to support it, and whenever you make the request to us, be very sure that we shall hasten gladly to call you to our councils. If you are prepared at any time to take any share, any proportionate share, in the burdens of the Empire, we are prepared to meet you with any proposal for giving to you a corresponding voice in the policy of the Empire. . . ." On the subject of imperial defence, the result of the conference was an agreement from Australia and New Zealand to increase their contribution towards an improved Australasian squadron and the establishment of a branch of the royal naval reserve to £200,000 a year for the former and £40,000 for the latter; an agreement from Cape Colony and Natal to contribute £50,000 and £35,000 per annum respectively toward the general maintenance of the navy, and a pledge from Newfoundland of £3000 per annum toward a branch of the royal naval reserve. From Canada no agreement was reported. In a *Memorandum by the First Lord of the Admiralty* of interviews held with the several premiers it is said: "Sir Wilfrid Laurier informed me that His Majesty's Government of the Dominion of Canada are contemplating the establishment of a local Naval force

in the waters of Canada, but that they were not able to make any offer of assistance analogous to those enumerated above."

Concerning preferential trade, the following resolutions were adopted:

"1. That this conference recognises that the principle of preferential trade between the United Kingdom and his majesty's dominions beyond the seas would stimulate and facilitate mutual commercial intercourse, and would, by promoting the development of the resources and industries of the several parts, strengthen the empire.

"2. That this conference recognises that, in the present circumstances of the colonies, it is not practicable to adopt a general system of free trade as between the mother country and the British dominions beyond the seas.

"3. That with a view, however, to promoting the increase of trade within the empire, it is desirable that those colonies which have not already adopted such a policy should, as far as their circumstances permit, give substantial preferential treatment to the products and manufactures of the United Kingdom.

"4. That the prime ministers of the colonies respectfully urge on his majesty's government the expediency of granting in the United Kingdom preferential treatment to the products and manufactures of the colonies either by exemption from or reduction of duties now or hereafter imposed.

"5. That the prime ministers present at the conference undertake to submit to their respective governments at the earliest opportunity the principle of the resolution and to request them to take such measures as may be necessary to give effect to it."

The prime ministers of the colonies also stated the extent to which they were prepared to recommend to their several parliaments a preferential treatment of British goods: The premier of Canada would propose to continue the existing preference of 33 1/3 per cent., and an additional preference on lists of selected articles—(a) by further reducing the duties in favor of the United Kingdom; (b) by raising the duties against foreign imports; (c) by imposing duties on certain foreign imports now on the free list. In New Zealand the recommendation would be of a general preference by 10 per cent., or an equivalent in respect of lists of selected articles on the lines proposed by Canada. At the cape and Natal a preference of 25 per cent. would be advised, or its equivalent given by increasing duties on foreign imports. The recommendation in Australia would also be of a preferential treatment not then defined. A resolution was adopted favoring future conferences at intervals not exceeding four years. Other resolutions recommended that a preference be given to products of the empire in all government contracts, imperial or colonial; that the privileges of coast-wise trade within the empire be refused to countries in which the corresponding trade is confined to ships of their own nationality; that a mutual protection of patents within the empire be devised; that the principle of cheap postage between the different parts of the empire on all newspapers and periodicals published therein be adopted; that the metric system of weights and measures be adopted throughout the empire.—See also ENGLAND: 1903 (May-September).

1907.—Conference of imperial and colonial ministers at London.—Formulation of the constitution of the conference, to be known as the Imperial Conference.—Discussion of preferential trade, imperial defense, and other subjects.—Resolutions adopted.—According to the resolution

adopted by the colonial conference of 1902, the next conference should have been held in 1906, but by agreement of all parties it was deferred until the following year. In the interval, a protracted correspondence occurred between the colonial office and the governments of the several states federated in the commonwealth of Australia, each of which claimed representation in the conference by its own ministers, and protested against the sufficiency of the representation that would be given to it by the general government of the commonwealth. The "state rights" doctrine received no encouragement, however, and only the premier of the commonwealth, Mr. Deakin, and one of the members of his cabinet, took part in the conference, which held its first meeting in London on April 15 and its final one on May 14.

At the first meeting there were present, as representatives of the imperial government, the prime minister, Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, the secretary of state for the colonies, the earl of Elgin, in the chair, and several other members of the cabinet and officials of the administration. The premiers of the self-governing colonies, excepting Sir Robert Bond, of Newfoundland, who arrived a few days later, were all in attendance,—namely, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, of Canada, the Hon. Alfred Deakin, of Australia, the Hon. Sir J. G. Ward, of New Zealand, Dr. L. S. Jameson, of Cape Colony, the Hon. F. R. Moor, of Natal, and General Louis Botha, of the Transvaal. At the second session of the conference resolutions brought forward by the governments of Australia and New Zealand, proposing to give the character of an imperial council to the conference, and a resolution from the government of Cape Colony on the subject of imperial defence, together with a draft resolution concerning the constitution of the conference which the chairman, Lord Elgin, submitted, were discussed, without action taken. The discussion was continued at the third and fourth meetings, and the resolution proposed by the secretary of state for the colonies, being amended in some particulars, was adopted at the end, as follows: "That it will be to the advantage of the empire if a conference to be called the Imperial Conference is held every four years at which questions of common interest may be discussed and considered as between his majesty's government and his governments of the self-governing dominions beyond the seas. The prime minister of the United Kingdom will be *ex officio* president, and the prime ministers of the self-governing dominions *ex officio* members of the conference. The secretary of state for the colonies will be an *ex officio* member of the conference and will take the chair in the absence of the president. He will arrange for such Imperial Conferences after communication with the prime ministers of the respective dominions. Such other ministers as the respective governments may appoint will also be members of the conference—it being understood that, except by special permission of the conference, each discussion will be conducted by not more than two representatives from each government, and that each government will have only one vote. That it is desirable to establish a system by which the several government represented shall be kept informed during the periods between the conferences in regard to matters which have been or may be subjects for discussion, by means of a permanent secretarial staff charged under the direction of the secretary of state for the colonies with the duty of obtaining information for the use of the conference, of attending to its resolutions, and of conducting correspondence on matters relating to its affairs. That upon mat-

ters of importance requiring consultation between two or more governments which cannot conveniently be postponed until the next conference, or involving subjects of a minor character or such as call for detailed consideration, subsidiary conferences should be held between representatives of the governments concerned specially chosen for the purpose."

On the subject of imperial defense, which was then taken up, and in the discussion of which the secretary of state for war took part, the following resolutions were approved: "That the colonies be authorized to refer to the Committee of Imperial Defence through the secretary of state for advice and local questions in regard to which expert assistance is deemed desirable. That whenever so desired, a representative of the colony which may wish for advice should be summoned to attend as a member of the committee during the discussion of the questions raised. That this conference welcomes and cordially approves the exposition of general principles embodied in the statement of the secretary of state for war, and, without wishing to commit any of the governments represented, recognizes and affirms the need of developing for the service of the empire a general staff, selected from the forces of the empire as a whole, which shall study military science in all its branches, shall collect and disseminate to the various governments military information and intelligence, shall undertake the preparation of schemes of defence on a common principle, and without in the least interfering in questions connected with command and administration, shall at the request of the respective governments advise as to the training, education, and war organization of the military forces of the crown in every part of the empire." [See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1907-1909: British territorial force.] At subsequent meetings the following resolutions were adopted or accepted: On the subject of emigration: "That it is desirable to encourage British emigrants to proceed to British colonies rather than foreign countries. That the imperial government be requested to cooperate with any colonies desiring immigrants in assisting suitable persons to emigrate." On the subject of judicial appeals: The conference "agreed to the following finding: The resolution of the commonwealth of Australia, 'That it is desirable to establish an Imperial Court of Appeal,'" was submitted and fully discussed. The resolution submitted by the government of Cape Colony was accepted, amended as follows: "This conference, recognizing the importance to all parts of the empire of the appellate jurisdiction of his Majesty the King in Council, desires to place upon record its opinion—(1) That in the interests of his majesty's subjects beyond the seas it is expedient that the practice and procedure of the Right Honourable the Lords of the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council be definitely laid down in the form of a code of rules and regulations. (2) That in the codification of the rules regard should be had to the necessity for the removal of anachronisms and anomalies, the possibility of the curtailment of expense, and the desirability of the establishment of courses of procedure which would minimize delays. (3) That, with a view to the extension of uniform rights of appeal to all colonial subjects of his majesty, the various orders in council, instructions to governors, charters of justice, ordinances and proclamations upon the subject of the appellate jurisdiction of the sovereign should be taken into consideration for the purpose of determining the desirability of equaliz-

ing the conditions which gave right of appeal to his majesty. (4) That much uncertainty, expense, and delay would be avoided if some portion of his majesty's prerogative to grant special leave to appeal in cases where there exists no right of appeal were exercised under definite rules and restrictions."

The following resolutions, presented to the conference by General Botha and supported by the representatives of Cape Colony and Natal, were accepted: "(1) That when a Court of Appeals has been established for any group of colonies geographically connected, whether federated or not, to which appeals lie from the decisions of the Supreme Courts of such colonies, it shall be competent for the legislature of each such colony to abolish any existing right of appeal from its Supreme Court to the judicial committee of the Privy Council. (2) That the decisions of such court of appeal shall be final, but leave to appeal from such decisions may be granted by the said court in certain cases prescribed by the statute under which it is established. (3) That the right of any person to apply to the judicial committee of the Privy Council for leave to appeal to it from the decision of such appeal court shall not be curtailed."

On April 30 the conference came to the discussion of the question which had been dominant in all minds from the first,—the question of preferential trade. . . . Other resolutions adopted or accepted during the last two sessions of the conference were as follows: "That it is desirable that the attention of the governments of the colonies and the United Kingdom should be called to the present state of the navigation laws in the empire, and in other countries, and to the advisability of refusing the privileges of coastwise trade, including trade between the mother country and its colonies and possessions, and between one colony or possession and another, to countries in which the corresponding trade is confined to ships of their own nationality, and also to the laws affecting shipping, with a view of seeing whether any other steps should be taken to promote imperial trade in British vessels. [This was voted by the representatives of the colonies only, 'his majesty's government dissenting.'] That it is desirable that his majesty's government, after full consultation with the colonies, should endeavour to provide for such uniformity as may be practicable in the granting and protection of trade marks and patents. That it is desirable, so far as circumstances permit, to secure greater uniformity in the trade statistics of the empire, and that the note prepared on this subject by the imperial government be commended to the consideration of the various governments represented at this conference. That it is desirable, so far as circumstances permit, to secure greater uniformity in company laws of the empire, and that the memorandum and analysis prepared on this subject by the imperial government be commended to the consideration of the various governments represented at this conference. That, in view of the social and political advantages and the material commercial advantages to accrue from a system of international penny postage, this conference recommends to his majesty's government the advisability, if and when a suitable opportunity occurs, of approaching the governments of other states, members of the Universal Postal Union, in order to obtain further reductions of postage rates, with a view to a more general and if possible a universal adoption of the penny rate. That, with a view to attain uniformity so far as practicable, an inquiry should be held to consider further the

question of naturalization, and in particular to consider how far, and under what conditions, naturalization in one part of his majesty's dominions should be effective in other parts of those dominions, a subsidiary conference to be held, if necessary, under the terms of the resolution adopted by this conference on April 20 last. That in the opinion of this conference the interests of the empire demand that in so far as practicable its different portions should be connected by the best possible means of mail communication, travel, and transportation; That to this end it is advisable that Great Britain should be connected with Canada, and through Canada with Australia and New Zealand by the best service available within reasonable cost; That for the purpose of carrying the above project into effect such financial support as may be necessary should be contributed by Great Britain, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand in equitable proportions."

1909 (June).—Imperial press conference in England.—Among the many endeavors of late years in England to draw the distant peoples of the great British empire into closer relations with its sovereign mother country, and into the feeling of stronger ties of unity among themselves and with her, none seems to have been wiser or more surely of effect than that which brought about the imperial press conference of June, 1909. It assembled sixty representatives of the newspaper press of every part of the empire and of every shade of political opinion. . . .

The practical object for which the press conference strove most earnestly was a cheapening of telegraphic communication, by cable or wireless, between the distant parts of the empire, to the end that there may be an ampler publication of news from each division of it in every other. It received strong assurances of coöperation from the imperial government in its efforts to accomplish this end. To a deputation which waited on him, the premier, Herbert H. Asquith, said: "Your conference, if I may venture to say so, has very wisely appointed a standing committee to deal with that matter. The post office and other government departments concerned will be anxious to assist and to keep themselves in touch with this committee by information and intercommunication and in all other ways that may be practicable. I think it will be the solid and substantial result of your deliberations on this very great imperial necessity that in regard to the development of electric communication between different parts of the empire we shall now have on the side of the press a body formally organized and constantly existing with which we can enter into necessary communication, and by mutual discussion and reference, having regard to the various considerations to which I have already adverted, we may accelerate the developments of what we all agree to be one of the first requisites of an empire such as ours—a cheap, a certain, a constant, a convenient, and a universally accessible system of electric communication."

1909 (July-August).—Imperial defense conference. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British imperial defense conference; 1909-1910.

1909 (September).—Congress of empire chambers of commerce.—A congress of chambers of commerce, representing all parts of the empire, which was assembled at Sydney, New South Wales, on September 14, 1909, gave much of its discussion to the proposition that the several parts of the empire should afford preferential treatment to each other in their several markets, on a basis of reciprocity, and adopted resolutions to the effect that

the congress "urges upon the governments of the empire that they should treat this matter as of present practical importance, and that the organizations represented at this congress pledge themselves to press their respective governments to take such action at the next imperial conference as will give effect to the principle advocated in this resolution." This was carried on individual voting, by eighty-one votes to thirty-one. On voting by chambers, the resolution was passed with sixty for, eight against, and eleven neutral. Among the other resolutions of the congress were the following: "That this congress urges upon his majesty's government and upon the governments of the colonies the appointment of an advisory imperial council to consider questions of imperial interest, especially those tending to promote trade between the various parts of the empire. That the settlement in adequate volume of the Anglo-Saxon race in the British dominions is deserving of the constant solicitude of the home and colonial governments, who are hereby urged to consider what further or better steps than those at present existing should be taken to elaborate a general state-aided scheme at reduced rates to encourage emigration of suitable settlers under well-considered conditions. This congress is of opinion that it is desirable to complete the imperial route between the motherland, Canada, Australia and New Zealand by state-owned electric communication across Canada to Great Britain and that the postal departments of the various governments of the empire should be requested to frame a combined scheme of substantial reductions in telegraphic rates."

1910.—Copyright conference.—Subsidiary imperial conference.—In 1910 a subsidiary imperial conference was held to consider the subject of imperial copyright. The conference convened in May and June to discuss the questions of the maintenance of the unity of copyright legislation, and the desirability of the empire's accepting the revised copyright convention of Berlin (1908). The government of every dominion was represented and a resolution was passed favoring (1) the adoption of a uniform copyright law for the empire; (2) the acceptance of the revised copyright convention, subject to certain reservations, and in particular, to the right of any self-governing dominion to limit the obligation imposed upon the convention to works, the authors of which are subjects or citizens of a country of the union or *bona fide* residents of such a country. An imperial copyright act was passed in 1911 in accordance with the resolution.

1911.—Imperial conference.—"In accordance with the resolution of 1907, the first Conference which was officially styled 'Imperial' was held in May and June, 1911. The question of the constitution of the Conference and the reconstruction of the Colonial Office was considered at length but a majority of the representatives were of the opinion that no fundamental change was necessary. The Conference also considered the question how far the Dominion Governments should be consulted with regard to Treaties, with special reference to the fact that the Declaration of London of 1908 [dealing with rights of search by belligerents at sea] was not submitted to the Dominions for approval before it was concluded. The Imperial Government proposed, and the representatives of the Dominions agreed that in future the Dominions should be afforded an opportunity of consultation when the instructions to be given to British delegates at the Hague Conference were to be framed that Conventions affecting the Dominions

ions provisionally assented to at that Conference should be circulated to the Dominion Governments before they were officially signed, and that a similar procedure . . . should, as far as possible, be used when preparing instructions for the negotiation of other international agreements affecting the Dominions. . . . The question of an Imperial Court of Appeal was discussed at length, and the Imperial Government proposed, and the Dominions accepted the proposal, that two Lords of Appeal should be added to the number of four already existing so that their services might be available both for service in the House of Lords and for service on the judicial committee. The question of emigration to the Dominions was discussed at full length. . . . It was agreed that the present policy of encouraging British emigrants to proceed to British Dominions rather than to foreign countries should be continued and that full coöperation should be accorded to any Dominion desiring immigrants. The discussion of the question of naturalisation resulted in an agreement on the main principles on which naturalization in one of the Dominions should be recognized in other parts of the Empire. The question of improved cable communications was considered and the Postmaster-General was able to announce the prospect of important reductions from January 1, 1912, in rates for deferred messages and in Press Cables. It was also agreed that a chain of Wireless Telegraph Stations should be constructed from the United Kingdom, *via* Cyprus, Aden, Bombay and Singapore, to some point in Australia from which there would be communication over the land lines to other parts of Australia and New Zealand. The Governments of Canada and Australia undertook to consider favourably the extension of the Imperial Postal Order system and a resolution in favour of the lowering of the postal rates generally was agreed to. In order to render possible further coöperation in commercial relations it was agreed that a royal commission should be appointed representing the imperial and dominion governments with a view to investigating and reporting upon the natural resources of each part of the Empire represented at the Conference, the development attained and attainable, the facilities for production, manufacture and distribution, the trade of each part with the others and with the outside world, the food and raw material requirements of each and the sources thereof available; the extent, if any, to which the trade between each of the different parts had been affected by existing legislation in each, either beneficially or otherwise, and the methods by which, consistently with the existing fiscal policy of each part, the trade of each part with the others might be improved and extended. It was agreed that all practical steps should be taken to secure uniformity of treatment of British shipping, to prevent unfair competition with British ships by foreign subsidized ships, to secure to British ships equal trading advantages with foreign ships, to promote the employment of British seamen on British ships, and to raise the status and improve the conditions of seamen employed on such ships. Proposals were made by the Dominion of New Zealand with the support of the Dominion of Canada for the grant of wider legislative powers in respect of shipping to the oversea dominions, but the resolution was not accepted by the government of the United Kingdom, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Union of South Africa and Newfoundland. In connection with the question of Merchant Shipping a discussion took place as to the treatment of British Indians in the Self-Gov-

erning Dominions. Lord Crewe made a statement in which he pointed out that, while it was the undoubted right of the self-governing Dominions to determine in what manner their communities should be composed, and therefore to restrict in such way as they thought fit Indian immigration, it was important that this should be done in a way compatible with the comity due to the Indian people, and that in all cases in which Indians were permitted to enter the Dominions or were domiciled therein due respect should be paid to their rights. The principles laid down by Lord Crewe were accepted by the representatives of the dominion Governments. It was agreed to consider how far it was possible to make arrangements with a view to the enforcement in one part of the empire of judgments and orders of the courts of justice in another part. Resolutions were also passed in favour of uniformity in the law of copyright, patents, trade-marks, companies and workmen's compensation. The questions of provision for deserted wives and children, the celebration of his majesty's birthday, and the Suez Canal dues were discussed, and it was agreed that concerted action should be taken by all the Governments of the Empire to promote better trade and postal communications between Great Britain and the oversea dominions, and in particular to discourage shipping conferences or combines in so far as the operations of such conferences were prejudicial to trade. Before separating the conference agreed that it was desirable that between conferences there should be interchange of visits between ministers of the United Kingdom and ministers of the dominions and that the government of the United Kingdom should take into consideration the possibility of holding a meeting of the conference or a subsidiary conference, in one of the oversea dominions. After the termination of the conference of 1911, steps were taken to carry out the several recommendations made. Agreements were made with the Governments of Sweden, Norway, Denmark, France, Costa Rica, and Colombia, authorising his Majesty's Government to terminate on twelve months notice the application of the commercial treaties with those powers with regard to all or any of the self-governing dominions. Similar power has also been obtained in the case of the commercial treaty with Switzerland. An Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament to add two Lords of Appeal, available for service in the House of Lords and on the judicial committee, and to increase to seven the number of judges of the Courts of the Oversea Dominions who may be members of the judicial committee. In accordance with this provision, the Hon. Sir Joshua Williams, senior puisne judge of the Supreme Court of New Zealand, became a member of the judicial committee. The bill on naturalization which it was proposed to introduce into the Imperial Parliament, was re-drafted in accordance with the views of the Imperial Conference, and passed into law under the title of the 'British Nationality and Status of Aliens Act, 1914.' Legislation was also passed in Canada and Newfoundland. Legislation was passed providing for the laying of the cable by the Pacific Cable Board between Australia and New Zealand, and the work was successfully carried out. Reductions were made in cable rates between the United Kingdom and the oversea dominions (including the establishment of week-end telegrams in addition to deferred rates). A Royal Commission was appointed to investigate and report upon the natural resources and trade of the Empire."—*Colonial office list for 1920*, pp. liii.-liv.

1912.—Defense.—Imperial defense committee.

—"Describing the work of the committee . . . [Mr. Asquith] said the whole body met only six or seven times a year; it worked by referring questions to four permanent sub-committees: (1) Home Ports Defence, which had already made twenty-five reports; (2) Oversea Defence, which had made recommendations including India and Egypt; (3) a new committee for the co-ordination of departmental action on the outbreak war, composed of permanent officials, which had compiled a War Book, assigning to each department its responsibility, and the departments had drafted all the proclamations, telegrams, etc., of which the need could be foreseen; (4) the Air Committee, also recent, dealing with all matters of aerial navigation in war. There were also a number of subcommittees dealing with internal and oversea transport, wireless telegraphy throughout the Empire, the control of the Press and its censorship, and the maintenance of oversea commerce. These were only specimen inquiries, and from time to time gentlemen from Lloyd's, the great railway companies and other great commercial organizations were taken into council. . . . In regard to international relations, for at any rate eight years they had been conducted on settled lines, and there had been no change of policy, and matters which would before have caused friction and hostility had been smoothly settled."—*Annual Register*, 1912, p. 188.

1917.—*Imperial war conference*.—"The Members of the Imperial War Conference were received by the King at Windsor on May 3, when they presented a loyal address to which the King made a reply, in the course of which he said that the Conference had met at an historic moment in the Empire's story, and that he was confident that when peace was restored, 'We may be found prepared for the tasks which then await us in the organisation of the resources of the empire with a view to rendering it more self-sustaining and in strengthening the ties which knit together all parts of my dominions.' The speech referred also to the satisfaction felt by his majesty in the fact that India had been a member of the Conference with equal rights with the other dominions. On the same day the secretary of state for the colonies issued a statement in which he said that it was not possible, owing to the confidential character of the business, to publish in full the resolutions or the debates on the subjects before the conference, but he was ready to give such of the resolutions as could now be made public. In every case the decision of the conference had been unanimous. The most important of the resolutions was that dealing with the future constitutional relations of the empire. This, it was stated, was too important a subject to be dealt with during the war, and they had therefore recommended that a special imperial conference to deal with the question should be summoned as soon as possible after the cessation of hostilities. The conference, however, placed on record 'its view that any such readjustment while thoroughly preserving all existing powers of self-government and complete control of existing affairs should be based on the full recognition of the dominions as autonomous nations of an imperial commonwealth, and of India as an important portion of the same; should recognise the rights of the dominions and India to an adequate voice in foreign policy and in foreign relations, and should provide effective arrangements for continuous consultation in all important matters of common Imperial concern, and for such necessary concerted action founded on consultation as the several Governments may determine.'"

The importance of this resolution is that while demanding that the dominions should share in the foreign policy of the empire, they still asserted their right to complete national autonomy, and thus by implication stated their objections to any scheme of imperial federation, which would involve the setting up of an Imperial Legislature or Imperial Executive with power to legislate for the whole empire, and to over-ride the subordinate Parliaments. The meeting of the Conference marked an important step in Imperial development, for its discussions included also the question of Imperial Preference, and other matters of importance.

With regard to the question of defense the following resolutions were adopted: "That the Admiralty be requested to work out immediately after the conclusion of the war what they consider the most effective scheme of naval defence for the empire for the consideration of the several governments summoned to this conference, with such recommendations as the Admiralty consider necessary in that respect for the empire's future security.

"That this conference, in view of the experience of the present war, calls attention to the importance of developing an adequate capacity of production of naval and military material, munitions, and supplies in all important parts of the empire (including the countries bordering on the Pacific and India oceans), where such facilities do not presently exist, and affirms the importance of close cooperation between India, the dominions, and the United Kingdom with this object in view.

"That this conference, recognizing the importance of assimilating as far as possible the military stores and equipment of the imperial forces throughout the empire, recommends that an expert committee, representative of the military authorities of the United Kingdom, the dominions, and India, be appointed as early as possible to consider the various patterns in use with a view to selecting standard patterns for general adoption, as far as the special circumstances of each country admit.

"This conference is of opinion that it is desirable that the ordnance *personnel* of the military organizations of the empire should, as far as possible, be trained on the same methods and according to the same principles, and that to secure this end selected officers of the ordnance service from all parts of the empire should be attached for adequate periods to the Imperial Ordnance Department.

"An interesting sequel to the meetings of the Imperial Conference took place on May 17, when the prime minister announced in the House of Commons that the experiment of an Imperial War Cabinet had been a complete success. Accordingly, at the last session, the prime minister had formally proposed on behalf of the British Government that meetings of an Imperial Cabinet consisting of the prime minister of the United Kingdom, such of his colleagues as dealt specially with Imperial affairs, the prime minister of each of the Dominions, and a representative of the Indian people to be appointed by the government of India, should be held annually or at any intermediate time when matters of urgent Imperial concern had to be settled. These proposals met with cordial approval from the oversea representatives, and the announcement of the decision was received with great satisfaction in the House of Commons."—*Annual Register*, 1917, pp. 117-118.—See also CABINET, ENGLISH: War cabinets; also below, under heading World War, 1917: Imperial war cabinet session.



BRITISH IMPERIAL CONFERENCE AT LONDON, 1921

The leading personages, seated in the first row, are: Sir E. Montagu, Lord Balfour, Mr. Srinivasa-Sastri, Mr. Massey, Premier of New Zealand; Mr. Meighan, Premier of Canada; Premier Lloyd George, W. M. Hughes, Premier of Australia; Jan C. Smuts, Premier of South Africa; Lord Curzon, the Maharao of Cutch.

1918.—Imperial war conference.—“Optimism characterised the proceedings of the Imperial War Conference, at the sittings of which post-war economic policies occupied the chief place. The official summary of the proceedings of this assembly refers specifically to three important resolutions.

“The first subject on which a resolution was passed dealt with the recent Non-ferrous Metal Industry Act of the United Kingdom, and the question of similar legislation in the oversea Dominions. This resolution was to the effect that, in pursuance of the policy of freeing the Empire from dependence on German controlled organisations in respect of non-ferrous metals and ores, the Conference endorsed the principle of the Non-ferrous Metal Industry Act of the United Kingdom, and recommended that the Governments of the Empire should adopt effective measures, in so far as these might be necessary and not already taken, to carry out this policy. The next resolution related to the measures necessary to secure for the British Empire and the belligerent Allies the command of certain essential raw materials to enable them to repair the effects of war as soon as possible and safeguard their industrial requirements. The Conference agreed that this course was necessary, and expressed the opinion that the Governments of the British Empire should make such arrangements among themselves as would ensure that the essential raw materials produced within the Empire should be available for the purposes named above, and should arrange with the Allied countries to utilise for the same purposes the essential raw materials produced in those countries. A further resolution in connexion with the same question recommended that a Committee of members of the conference should first consider the possible methods by which each part of the Empire could obtain command of the essential raw materials referred to in the previous resolution, and that the Governments represented at the conference should, in the light of the information collected by their representatives on this committee, consult with representatives of the producers and trades concerned as to the method of obtaining command best suited to each individual commodity.” The conference held its sixteenth and last meeting on July 26, and on the following day the members were received by the King at Buckingham Palace.”—*Annual Register*, 1918, p. 125.

1920.—Personnel.—Members of the imperial conference are: President, the prime minister of the United Kingdom; chairman (in the absence of the president), the secretary of state for the colonies; the prime minister and other ministers of the Dominion of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, and Newfoundland, the secretary of state for India and other representatives of India.

1920.—Imperial defense.—Preference.—Wireless.—Lord Curzon in speaking of coöperating for defense, June, 1920, made the two following statements: first that “no decision will be taken or even attempted till the Imperial Conference meets next year;” second, that “much depends on the League of Nations.”—In his budget speech for 1919-1920 the chancellor of the exchequer (Austen Chamberlain) introduced proposals for preference on certain articles (such as tea, cocoa, sugar and tobacco), subject already to duty when imported into the United Kingdom which were (1) consigned from and (2) grown, produced or manufactured in the British empire. These proposals were accepted by Parliament and were in the Finance

Act 1919, the general rate of preference given being one-sixth of the full rate.

A news item from Toronto in the *Times Weekly Bulletin* of October 1, states that by eighty-five votes to twenty-one the congress of British chambers of commerce declared for preferential trade with the empire and pledged itself to press the policy on all governments of the empire. The British Empire Producers' organization aims to support preference as promoting imperial unity and assisting imperial development. A scheme of imperial wireless was proposed for communications, to be arranged in stages of 2,000 miles and which would link up Great Britain with Egypt, South Africa, East Africa, India, Malay, Hong Kong and Australia. Canada's participation was to be left for the moment to be settled later in conference between the imperial and dominion authorities.

1920 (August).—Imperial press conference at Ottawa.—Delegates from the various parts of the empire and also from the United States representing the press met in Ottawa to consider pertinent questions and reforms. The guests were first welcomed in Montreal where McGill University conferred honorary degrees upon Viscount Burnham, (proprietor of *Daily Telegraph*, London), Sir Harry Brittain, organizer of the Imperial Press Conference, 1909, R. S. Ward Jackson, a Yorkshire newspaper man, and Thomas Wilson Leys of Auckland, New Zealand. The meetings, however, took place in Ottawa. Lord Atholstan, better known as Hugh Graham, greeted the convention but Viscount Burnham was unanimously elected chairman. The delegates were welcomed in turn by the lieutenant-governor, the premier and other well-known speakers. Hon. Mackenzie King explained the fact that it was “up to the press to reverse its war time policy and stimulate the bonds of a common brotherhood and that faith in each other which would give the empire an enduring and ennobling expression.” Resolutions were adopted in regard to the rates of cable communications and news messages. A resolution was carried unanimously: “That as empire interests need a greater dissemination of knowledge concerning the empire, this conference urges the Council of the Empire Press Union to take such action as may be practicable to ensure the interchange and publication of a larger volume of empire news, apart from political propaganda, by the newspapers associated with the empire press than at present pertains.”

Another resolution provided for a conference within the empire every four years.

1920.—Special conferences.—“This year has witnessed the meeting of (1) an Imperial Statistical Conference, which is likely to become a periodic conference served by a permanent joint bureau of officials; (2) an Imperial Entomological Conference (likely also to meet periodically) held in conjunction with an already existing Imperial Bureau of Entomology, which was established as far back as 1909; (3) an Imperial Forestry Conference, which will probably meet regularly in the future and will have organised in connection with it a joint Imperial Forestry Bureau. These are merely examples of the score or more joint bodies set up or authoritatively proposed in the last ten years. These bodies, it will be seen, fall roughly into two complementary groups: (1) subsidiary conferences of ministers (or experts nominated by them) charged with particular functions of government—e. g. education, statistics, agriculture, etc.; (2) inter-imperial joint bodies or bureaus, manned by experts, for the performance of definite pieces of administrative work (e. g. Pacific Cable

Board), or for the collection and dissemination of information, or for research and the coördination of research in relation to particular functions of government (e. g. imperial mineral resources and bureau of entomology, etc.)."—H. D. Hall, *United Empire (Royal Colonial Institute Journal, Sept., 1920, pp. 488-489)*.

1921.—Imperial Conference in London.—Prime ministers and representatives at Downing Street.—Wide range of discussion.—Lloyd George's opening speech.—Foreign policy of the empire.—Imperial problems.—German reparations.—Anglo-Japanese Alliance.—Far East policy.—A conference of prime ministers and representatives of the United Kingdom, the Dominions, and India met at 10 Downing Street, the official residence of the British premier, on June 20. Up till August 5, thirty-four plenary meetings were held, under the presidency of David Lloyd George, prime minister. The following representatives of the British government attended: Austen Chamberlain, lord privy seal, A. J. Balfour, lord president of the council, Lord Curzon, foreign minister, W. S. Churchill, colonial secretary. Canada was represented by A. Meighen, prime minister, and C. C. Ballantyne, minister of naval service. The Commonwealth of Australia was represented by W. M. Hughes, prime minister; New Zealand by W. F. Massey, prime minister; South Africa by General J. C. Smuts, prime minister, Sir Thomas Smartt and H. Mentz, respectively ministers of agriculture and defense; and India by the secretary of state, E. S. Montagu, the Maharao of Cutch and Srinivasa Sastri. Other representatives of the imperial government were the lord chancellor, the chancellor of the exchequer, secretary for war, president of the board of education, the postmaster-general, the chief of the imperial general staff, the first lord of the admiralty and the first sea lord, secretary of state for air, and a number of technical, economic and financial advisers. David Lloyd George, as chairman, opened the proceedings with a comprehensive review of the situation in which the Conference had assembled. He outlined its tasks, stated broadly the principles of policy which commended themselves to the British government, and dwelt upon the significance of the Conference and the importance of its work. He was followed in turn by all the other prime ministers, by Mr. Sastri for India, and by Mr. Churchill for the colonies and protectorates. This preliminary discussion occupied two days, the speeches being published in full immediately afterwards. In his opening address Lloyd George welcomed the delegation and paid high tributes to those statesmen of distant parts of the empire who were absent owing to retirement or other circumstances. He especially eulogized the career and services to the empire of the late General Botha of South African fame (died 1919). The premier covered the whole range of British imperial and foreign policy in his speech; of particular interest were his remarks on the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, relations with United States and the status of the self-governing dominions within the Empire: "I should like to refer very briefly to one of the most urgent and important of foreign questions—the relations of the Empire with the United States and Japan. There is no quarter of the world where we desire more greatly to maintain peace and fair play for all nations and to avoid a competition of armaments than in the Pacific and in the Far East. Our Alliance with Japan has been a valuable factor in that direction in the past. We have found Japan a faithful ally, who rendered us valuable assistance in an

hour of serious and very critical need. The British Empire will not easily forget that Japanese men-of-war escorted the transports which brought the Australian and New Zealand forces to Europe at a time when German cruisers were still at large in the Indian and Pacific Oceans. We desire to preserve that well-tryed friendship which has stood us both in good stead, and to apply it to the solution of all questions in the Far East, where Japan has special interests, and where we ourselves, like the United States, desire equal opportunities and the open door. Not least amongst these questions is the future of China, which looks to us, as to the United States, for sympathetic treatment and fair play. . . . We desire to work with the great Republic in all parts of the world. Like it, we want stability and peace, on the basis of liberty and justice. Like it, we desire to avoid the growth of armaments, whether in the Pacific or elsewhere, and we rejoice that American opinion should be showing so much earnestness in that direction at the present time. We are ready to discuss with American statesmen any proposal for the limitation of armaments which they may wish to set out, and we can undertake that no such overtures will find a lack of willingness on our part to meet them. In the meantime, we cannot forget that the very life of the United Kingdom, as also of Australia and New Zealand, indeed, the whole Empire, has been built upon sea power—and that sea power is necessarily the basis of the whole Empire's existence. We have, therefore, to look to the measures which our security requires; we aim at nothing more; we cannot possibly be content with less. . . . [A] change, which has taken place since the War, is the decision of the Canadian Government to have a Minister of its own at Washington—a very important development. We have cooperated willingly with that, and we shall welcome a Canadian colleague at Washington as soon as the appointment is made. . . . In recognition of their services and achievements in the War the British Dominions have now been accepted fully into the comity of nations by the whole world. They are signatories to the Treaty of Versailles and to all the other Treaties of Peace; they are members of the Assembly of the League of Nations, and their representatives have already attended meetings of the League; in other words, they have achieved full national status."—*Present problems of the commonwealth of British nations (International conciliation, No. 167)*.

The day following that on which Lloyd George made his opening remarks was the occasion of several unusual addresses. The meeting of June 21 was made memorable by speeches from Jan Christian Smuts of South Africa and Premier Hughes of Australia. [See also AUSTRALIA: 1921.] Both urged the conference to invite America and Japan to discuss limitation of naval armaments; the storm centre of the world, they agreed, was now in the Pacific. The two statesmen, however, seemed to be divided on the question of renewal of the Anglo-Japanese Alliance. While Premier Smuts came out strongly against the treaty, and was supported by Premier Meighen of Canada, Premier Hughes was, broadly speaking, in favor of it, finding a sympathetic follower in Premier Massey of New Zealand. But the Australian Premier was not oblivious to difficulties, the chief of which was the attitude of America toward the treaty. . . . Premier Meighen of Canada on June 27 presented to the conference what was in effect a declaration of Dominion rights in relation to foreign affairs of the empire. . . . At the session of

July 1 all the Premiers of the British Dominions again gave their views on the Anglo-Japanese Alliance, but the utmost secrecy enveloped the proceedings. All that the public was allowed to know was that there had been a general agreement of the need of delay in renewing the treaty. The mental fog that enveloped the subject was finally cleared away on July 3 by the announcement of a decision of the Lord Chancellor that the Anglo-Japanese Treaty had not been denounced by the note sent to the League of Nations last July, and that, therefore, even if it were now denounced on July 15, it would run automatically for another year."—*New York Times Current History, August, 1921.*—Under the terms of the Four Power Pacific Treaty of Feb. 6, 1922, Great Britain and Japan agreed to abrogate the Anglo-Japanese Alliance when the Pacific Treaty should be duly ratified.—See also WASHINGTON CONFERENCE.

FOREIGN AFFAIRS DEBATE: PRESIDENT HARDING'S INVITATION TO DISARMAMENT CONFERENCE.—PREMIER'S STATEMENT IN PARLIAMENT.—JAPANESE ALLIANCE.—PACIFIC PROBLEMS AND UNITED STATES.—LEAGUE OF NATIONS.—EGYPT.—"The Conference then addressed itself to a detailed consideration of the Foreign Policy of the British Empire. The discussion on this war opened by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, who made an exhaustive statement upon the course of foreign affairs since the Peace Conference. . . .

"A precedent created by the Imperial War Cabinet was also revived with valuable results. From 1916 till the Armistice, the Prime Ministers of the Dominions and the Representatives of India frequently sat with members of the British Cabinet to determine the measures necessary for the prosecution of the War. This method of procedure was also adopted by the British Empire Delegation during the Peace Conference in Paris, when all cardinal decisions were taken by the delegation as a whole. In accordance with this precedent, the Prime Ministers of the Dominions and the Representatives of India present in London this year were invited to meetings with members of the British Cabinet called to deal with Imperial and foreign questions of immediate urgency which arose in the course of the sittings. . . . The problems of the Western Pacific and the Far East, together with the Anglo-Japanese Agreement, were also fully discussed; and President Harding's invitation to a Conference on Disarmament was warmly welcomed by all the members of the Conference. The following statement, made by the Prime Minister in the House of Commons, on 11th July, represents the general view of all members of the Conference on the main issues of the Pacific, as also on the question of disarmament:

"The broad lines of Imperial policy in the Pacific and the Far East were the very first subjects to which we addressed ourselves at the meetings of the Imperial Cabinet, having a special regard to the Anglo-Japanese Agreement, the future of China, and the bearing of both those questions on the relations of the British Empire with the United States. . . . We had, in the first place, to ascertain our exact position with regard to the Anglo-Japanese Agreement. There had been much doubt as to whether the notification to the League of Nations made last July constituted a denunciation of the Agreement in the sense of clause 6. If it did, it would have been necessary to decide upon some interim measure regarding the Agreement pending fuller discussions with the other Pacific Powers, and negotiations with this object in view were, in point of fact, already in progress. If, on the other hand, it did not, the Agreement

would remain in force until denounced, whether by Japan or by ourselves, and would not be actually determined until twelve months from the date when notice of denunciation was given. The Japanese Government took the view that no notice of denunciation had yet been given. This view was shared by the Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs; but, as considerable doubt existed, we decided, after a preliminary discussion in the Imperial Cabinet, to refer the question to the Lord Chancellor, who considered it with the Law Officers of the Crown, and held that no notice of denunciation had yet been given. It follows that the Anglo-Japanese Agreement remains in force unless it is denounced, and will lapse only at the expiration of twelve months from the time when notice of denunciation is given. It is, however, the desire of both the British Empire and Japan that the Agreement should be brought into complete harmony with the Covenant of the League of Nations, and that wherever the Covenant and the Agreement are inconsistent, the terms of the Covenant shall prevail. Notice to this effect has now been given to the League. . . .

"In addition to these considerations, we desire to safeguard our own vital interests in the Pacific, and to preclude any competition in naval armaments between the Pacific Powers. All the representatives of the Empire agreed that our standpoint on these questions should be communicated with complete frankness to the United States, Japan, and China, with the object of securing an exchange of views which might lead to more formal discussion and conference. The Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs accordingly held conversations last week with the American and Japanese Ambassadors and the Chinese Minister, at which he communicated to them the views of the Imperial Cabinet, and asked in turn for the views of their respective Governments. He expressed at these conversations a very strong hope that this exchange of views might, if their Governments shared our desire in that respect, pave the way for a conference on the problems of the Pacific and the Far East. . . ."

"In accordance with the suggestion which was believed to have been made by the American Government, that the Conference on Disarmament should be preceded by friendly conversations or consultations between the Powers who were principally concerned in the future of the Far East and the Pacific, the Imperial Conference, anxious that for the Anglo-Japanese Agreement should be substituted some larger arrangement between the three Great Powers concerned, namely, the United States of America, Japan, and Great Britain, and holding the firm conviction that the later discussions on disarmament, to which they attached a transcendent importance, could best be made effective by a previous mutual understanding on Pacific questions between those Powers, devoted many hours of examination to the question how such an understanding could best be arrived at, where the proposed conversations could best be held, in what manner the representatives of the British Dominions, who were so vitally affected, could most easily participate in them, and upon what broad principles of policy it was desirable to proceed. It was difficult for the Dominion Prime Ministers, owing to the exigencies of time and space, to attend at Washington late in the autumn. On the other hand, advantage might be taken of their presence in England to exchange views with representatives of the other Great Powers who had been invited to Washington later on. It was in these circumstances that the idea was

mooted that the preliminary conversations or consultations, to which the American Government had in principle agreed, should be held in London. When it transpired a little later that there was some misunderstanding as to the nature of the preliminary conversations which had been suggested, the British Government, in the earnest desire to remove any possible misconception, and to meet what they believed to be the American views at each stage of the impending discussions, volunteered to attend a meeting on the other side of the Atlantic, at which the agenda of the forthcoming Conference at Washington could be discussed, and a friendly interchange of views take place in order to facilitate the work of the main Conference later on. The British Prime Minister and Foreign Secretary, together with the Dominion Prime Ministers, were prepared to attend such a meeting, if invited to do so by the American Government. The Japanese Government signified their willingness, if invited, to take part in the suggested conversations. The American Government, however, did not favour the idea, which was accordingly dropped. This conclusion was viewed with the utmost regret by the members of the Imperial Conference, who had devoted no small portion of time to the working out of an arrangement, which they understood would be equally acceptable to all parties, and the abandonment of which could not, they feared, be otherwise than prejudicial to the great objects which all had in view. At no stage had it been suggested that the results of such a consultation as was contemplated should either anticipate the work or tie the hands of the Washington Conference at a later date. On the contrary, holding, as they do, the firm belief that without a Pacific understanding the Conference on Disarmament will find it less easy to attain the supreme results that are hoped for by all, the Imperial Conference made the proposal before referred to anxious to remove every possible obstacle from the path of the Washington Meeting, which they desire to see attended with complete and triumphant success.

"A discussion took place in regard to the League of Nations during which Mr. Balfour explained at length the work which had been carried out by the League and the special difficulties with which it has to contend. While a more equitable distribution between its members of the cost of the League was considered essential to its future, there was general appreciation of its work and of the League's claim to the support of the British Empire as a step forward in the regulation of international affairs.

"Close consideration was given to the question of British policy in Egypt, and the future status of that country, and general agreement was reached regarding the principles by which His Majesty's Government should be guided in the negotiations with the Egyptian Delegation."—*Present problems of the commonwealth of British nations (International Conciliation, No. 167)*.

IMPERIAL DEFENSE PROBLEMS: NAVAL, MILITARY AND AERIAL. — COMMUNICATIONS. — WIRELESS. — SHIPPING. — WIRELESS TELEPHONY. — PRESS CABLES. — "Several plenary meetings and several meetings of the Prime Ministers alone with the Secretary of State of India, were devoted to considering the Naval Defence of the Empire, and the following Resolution was adopted:

"That, while recognizing the necessity of co-operation among the various portions of the Empire to provide such Naval Defence as may prove to be essential for security, and while holding that equality with the naval strength of any other

Power is a minimum standard for that purpose, this Conference is of opinion that the method and expense of such co-operation are matters for the final determination of the several Parliaments concerned, and that any recommendations thereon should be deferred until after the coming Conference on Disarmament."

"In addition, a number of useful consultations took place between the Admiralty and the Representatives of the several Dominions and India, at which were discussed such matters as the local co-operation of each Dominion in regard to the provision of oil tanks, local naval defence, etc. A discussion took place on the Military and Air Defence of the Empire, and the views of the General and Air Staffs on the principles which should be adhered to in order to ensure co-operation in these matters were laid before Ministers. The question of improved communication throughout the Empire, including Air, Telegraphy, Telephony, and Shipping, was considered, and a special Committee under the chairmanship of the Secretary of State for the Colonies was appointed to go into the whole question. This Committee reported to the main Conference, and eventually the following conclusions were arrived at: 'The Conference, having carefully considered the report of the expert Sub-Committee on Imperial Communications, are of opinion that the proposals contained therein should be submitted for the consideration of the Governments and Parliaments of the different parts of the Empire. On the understanding that the cost involved will be in the region of £1,800 per month they recommend that, pending such consideration, the existing material, so far as useful for the development of Imperial Air Communications, should be retained.'—*Ibid.*— On the Imperial wireless scheme it was "agreed that His Majesty's Government should take steps for the erection of the remaining stations for which they are responsible, as soon as the stations are designed; that the Governments of Australia, the Union of South Africa, and India, should take similar action so far as necessary, and that the Governments of Canada and New Zealand should also co-operate. . . ."

"As regards the Report of the Imperial Shipping Committee on Bills of Lading, it was decided [that] 'the Conference approves the recommendations made in the Report of the Imperial Shipping Committee on the Limitation of Shipowners' Liability by Clauses in Bills of Lading, and recommends the various Governments represented at the Conference to introduce uniform legislation on the lines laid down by the Committee.' A resolution was also adopted to the effect that, pending the constitution of a permanent Committee on Shipping, the existing Imperial Shipping Committee should continue its inquiries. . . ."

"The position regarding the development of Wireless Telephony was explained, and the following Resolution was adopted: 'That the Radio Research Board be asked to investigate the subject of Wireless Telephony and to report on its development, whether Governmental or private. That the Postmaster-General shall supply to the Governments of the Dominions and India technical reports showing its position and possibilities.'

"The Special Committee on Communications received a deputation representing the Empire Press Union and the Newspaper Proprietors' Association, and subsequently . . . the following Resolution was agreed to and thereafter adopted by the main Conference: 'The Committee agrees with the Resolution passed at the Second Imperial Press Conference, held at Ottawa in 1920, that any as-

sistance given by the Governments of the Empire towards the reduction of rates for Press services by wireless and cable should appear specifically in the Estimates of Public Expenditure, and should be so directed as not to affect the quality of the news service supplied or the freedom of the newspapers so served. The Committee is in full sympathy with the object of reducing rates, both by cable and wireless, for press messages, and recommends the most favourable examination by the Governments concerned of any practicable proposals to this end."—*Ibid.*

TREATY OF VERSAILLES: REPARATIONS.—"The Conference agreed that the reparation receipts under the Treaty of Versailles should be apportioned approximately as follows:

United Kingdom.....	86.85
Minor Colonies80
Canada	4.35
Australia	4.35
New Zealand	1.75
South Africa60
Newfoundland10
India	1.20
	<hr/>
	100.00

POSITION OF BRITISH INDIANS IN THE EMPIRE.—"The question of the position of British Indians in the Empire was discussed first at a plenary meeting when the representatives of India fully explained the situation and the views held in India on the subject. The question was then remitted to a special Committee under the chairmanship of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. At a final meeting on the subject the following Resolution was adopted:

"The Conference, while reaffirming the Resolution of the Imperial War Conference of 1918, that each community of the British Commonwealth should enjoy complete control of the composition of its own population by means of restriction on immigration from any of the other communities, recognizes that there is an incongruity between the position of India as an equal member of the British Empire and the existence of disabilities upon British Indians lawfully domiciled in some other parts of the Empire. The Conference accordingly is of the opinion that in the interests of the solidarity of the British Commonwealth, it is desirable that the rights of such Indians to citizenship should be recognized. The representatives of South Africa regret their inability to accept this resolution in view of the exceptional circumstances of the greater part of the Union. The representatives of India while expressing their appreciation of the acceptance of the resolution recorded above, feel bound to place on record their profound concern at the position of Indians in South Africa, and their hope that by negotiation between the Governments of India and of South Africa, some way can be found, as soon as may be, to reach a more satisfactory position."—*Ibid.*

EMPIRE SETTLEMENT AND MIGRATION.—"The question of Empire Settlement and Migration was considered by a special Committee under the chairmanship of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and the following Resolution was finally adopted by the Conference:

"The Conference having satisfied itself that the proposals embodied in the Report of the Conference on State-Aided Empire Settlement are sound in principle, and that the several Dominions are prepared, subject to Parliamentary sanction and to the necessary financial arrangements being made, to coöperate effectively with the United

Kingdom in the development of schemes based on these proposals, but adapted to the particular circumstances and conditions of each Dominion, approves the aforesaid Report.

"The South African representatives wish to make it clear that the limited field for white labor in South Africa will preclude coöperation by the Union Government on the lines contemplated by the other Dominions.

"The Conference expresses the hope that the Government of the United Kingdom will, at the earliest possible moment, secure the necessary powers to enable it to carry out its part in any schemes of coöperation which may subsequently be agreed on, preferably in the form of an Act which will make clear that the policy of coöperation now adopted is intended to be permanent.

"The Conference recommends to the Governments of the several Dominions that they should consider how far their existing legislation on the subject of land settlement, soldier settlement and immigration, may require any modification or expansion in order to secure effective coöperation; and should work out, for discussion with the Government of the United Kingdom, such proposals as may appear to them most practicable and best suited to their interests and circumstances."—*Ibid.*

EMPIRE PATENT.—NATIONALITY.—On the question of an Empire Patent Law, "The Committee recommends that a Conference of representatives of the Patent Offices of His Majesty's Dominions shall be held in London at an early date to consider the practicability of instituting a system of granting Patents which should be valid throughout the British Empire." A memorandum prepared in the Home Office with reference to the nationality of children of British parents born abroad was considered by a Special Committee under the Chairmanship of the Secretary of State for the Colonies, and the following resolution, which was finally approved by the main Conference, was adopted: "The Committee, having considered the memorandum prepared in the Home Office regarding the nationality of the children born abroad of British parents, commends the principle of the proposals contained therein to the favourable consideration of the Governments of the Dominions and India."—*Ibid.*

PROPOSED CONFERENCE ON CONSTITUTIONAL RELATIONS.—"Several plenary meetings and meetings of the Prime Ministers were devoted to a consideration of the question of the proposed Conference on the Constitutional relations of the component parts of the Empire, and the following resolution was adopted:

"The Prime Ministers of the United Kingdom and the Dominions, having carefully considered the recommendation of the Imperial War Conference of 1917 that a special Imperial Conference should be summoned as soon as possible after the War to consider the constitutional relations of the component parts of the Empire, have reached the following conclusions:

"(a) Continuous consultation, to which the Prime Ministers attach no less importance than the Imperial War Conference of 1917, can only be secured by a substantial improvement in the communications between the component parts of the Empire. Having regard to the constitutional developments since 1917, no advantage is to be gained by holding a constitutional Conference.

"(b) The Prime Ministers of the United Kingdom and the Dominions and the Representatives of India should aim at meeting annually, or at such longer intervals as may prove feasible.

“(c) The existing practice of direct communication between the Prime Ministers of the United Kingdom and the Dominions, as well as the right of the latter to nominate Cabinet Ministers to represent them in consultation with the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, are maintained.”—*Ibid.*

WORLD WAR

1914-1918.—British dominions at war.—“Germany largely based her confidence of victory on the belief that, under the strain of war, the far-flung British Empire, with its heterogeneous elements and racial jealousies, would promptly crumble. It was a vital error. Instead of crumbling it hardened into a unity which is adamant. Canada has already [1915] contributed half a million men to the British armies, Australia three hundred thousand. South Africa, by undertaking her own defense, released the imperial regiments stationed there. She not only suppressed the German-fomented rebellion, but she conquered German South-west Africa and German East Africa, thus adding nearly a sixth of the Dark Continent to the Empire, and has sent ten thousand men to the battle-fields of Europe. Indian troops are [1915] fighting in France, in Macedonia, in Mesopotamia, in Palestine, and in Egypt. From the West Indies have come twelve thousand men. The Malay States gave to the Empire a battleship and a battalion. A little island in the Mediterranean raised the King's Own Malta Regiment. Uganda and Nyasaland raised and supported the King's African Rifles—five thousand strong. The British colonies on the other seaboard of the continent increased the West African Field Force to seven thousand men. The fishermen and lumbermen from Newfoundland won imperishable glory on the Somme. From the coral atolls of the Fijis hastened six score volunteers. The Falkland Islands, south of South America, raised 140 men. From the Yukon, Sarawak, Wei-hai-wei, the Seychelles, Hong-Kong, Belize, Saskatchewan, Aden, Tasmania, British Guiana, Sierra Leone, St. Helena, the Gold Coast, poured Europeward, at the summons of the Motherland, an endless stream of fighting men.”—E. A. Powell, *Italy at war and the Allies in the West*, pp. 209-211.

According to official statistics published in 1921, Great Britain passed more than 6,000,000 men through the ranks of her armies between August 4, 1914, and November 11, 1918. The total number of British troops, employed in battle, behind the lines, in training at home and in the colonies, is given as 8,654,467, distributed as follows:

British Isles	5,704,416
Canada	640,886
Australia	416,809
New Zealand	220,009
South Africa	136,070
India	1,401,350
Other Colonies	134,837

8,654,467

The last item in this table includes colored troops recruited from South Africa, West Indies, etc. There were 80,000 British combatant troops in Italy who cooperated in the final defeat of Austria in 1918; while about 400,000 British troops operated in Palestine and Mesopotamia during that year. The casualties suffered by the British forces in all theatres of war, France, Italy, Dardanelles, Salonika, Mesopotamia, Egypt, East Africa, West Africa, South-West Africa, etc., reached a grand total of 3,049,991.—See also WORLD WAR: Mis-

cellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: a; b, 4; b, 8, ii.

1917.—Imperial war cabinet session.—When David Lloyd George assumed office as prime minister in December, 1916, he announced in a speech in the House of Commons that it was proposed to convene an imperial conference in order to place the whole position before the dominions and take counsel with them as to the best means of securing an early and complete triumph. Representatives of India as well as of all the self-governing dominions were invited. All were able to attend but the representatives of Australia, who were prevented from being present by the approach of a general election. Arrangements were made for the meetings to take two forms. The oversea representatives were made temporarily members of the British war cabinet, which thus became an imperial war cabinet. While this was in session oversea members had access to all the information which was at the disposal of his majesty's government and occupied a status of absolute equality with that of the members of the British war cabinet. At the conclusion of the sittings the prime minister proposed on behalf of his majesty's government that meetings of an imperial cabinet should be held annually or at any intermediate time when matters of urgent imperial concern required settlement, and that the imperial cabinet consist of the prime minister of the United Kingdom, his colleagues that deal specially with imperial affairs, the prime minister of each of the dominions, or an accredited alternate possessed of equal authority, and a representative of the Indian people to be appointed by the government of India.—See also above under heading of Colonial and imperial conferences, 1917: Imperial war conference.

1918.—War cabinet session.—In the summer of 1918 sessions of the imperial war cabinet were held again from June to the middle of August. It was announced at the termination of the meetings that every aspect of policy affecting the conduct of the war and the question of peace had been examined. As the meetings had proved of such value it was thought essential that modifications be made in the existing channels of communication so as to make consultations among the different governments of the empire as continuous and intimate as possible. It had, therefore, been decided that for the future the prime ministers of the dominions as members of the imperial war cabinet, should have the right to communicate on matters of cabinet importance directly with the prime minister of the United Kingdom. It had also been decided that each dominion should have the right to nominate a visiting or a resident minister in London to be a member of the imperial war cabinet at meetings other than those attended by prime ministers and that at these meetings, held at regular intervals, arrangements would be made also for the representation of India.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS

New constitutional status of Dominions and India.—“The British Commonwealth is itself a league of nations, though a league without a covenant. It proved its unity of aim and sentiment in the great ordeal of the war, and during that ordeal it established and worked a definite system of united action with historic results. United action was, however, made possible only by united counsels, which took shape in a new constitutional invention of a very elastic character—the Imperial War Cabinet. This system was prolonged into the period of peace negotiations, in which unity was as

obvious a condition of success as during the war itself. By means of it the diplomacy which shaped our course at Paris was representative of the whole British Commonwealth in an altogether unprecedented sense. The climax of this very new and proper constitutional development was reached at the signature of peace. The Dominions and India then definitely established their status as individual nations and members of the League by affixing their separate signatures to the Treaty and the Covenant, which gave them individual votes in the Assembly of the League and the right of individual entry to the Council of the League, should the other signatory Powers consent. Therewith the mechanism by which British unity of action had been secured dropped into the past, and the League of Nations itself became the organ through which the union of British aims and sentiments should in future make itself heard. The motive for this new constitutional theory lay quite as much in the domestic difficulties of the British Empire as in a disinterested desire to make the most of the League. The constitutional position resulting from the new status of the Dominions and India as partner-nations in the British Commonwealth, in no way subordinate to the Government of Great Britain, required elucidation. The new status of the Dominions and India could have no constitutional meaning unless their respective Governments were entitled to advise the King in the same way as the Government of Great Britain, which had hitherto exercised that responsibility alone. A sovereign advised by six different governments cannot act on the advice of all his governments unless they happen to be unanimous. It had been found in Paris that in order to preserve its unity the British delegation must meet frequently as a delegation to discuss its policy before meeting the representatives of foreign nations in conference. How was this unity of action to be maintained after the signature of peace without committing the dominion governments to some new constitutional organisation within the Commonwealth? And if some new constitutional organisation were to be devised for this purpose, how could it fail to limit in some way the full national independence of status which the dominion governments had just achieved by their recognition as individual members of the League of Nations? The answer to these questions was found in co-operation within the League, which was to serve, not only as the link between the British Empire and foreign powers, but as the link also between the constituent nations of the British Empire itself. Imbued with this idea, the Dominion statesmen accepted obligations which they would undertake to their kindred nations within the British Commonwealth. In other words, they mortgaged their freedom of action to a league of foreign States in order to avoid the possibility of mortgaging it to the British Government. . . . It is almost needless to observe that none of the democracies of the British Empire has grasped the extent of its obligations to the League of Nations or would hesitate to repudiate them at once, if put to the test. If England were threatened by invasion, the other British democracies would mobilise at once for her support; but though they have a written obligation to Poland, which they have never dreamed of giving to England, they would not in practice mobilise a single man to defend the integrity of the corridor to Danzig or any other Polish territorial interest. They have drifted into this equivocal situation simply through a desire to establish their new status within the British Commonwealth without admitting the domestic diffi-

culties which that status inevitably entails. That is a dangerous and equivocal situation, which entirely belies our real desire for straight dealing in international affairs. The same moral is pointed with equal force by another significant feature of the present situation. The dominion governments did their full share in the work of the British delegation at Paris which represented the Empire in making the peace with Germany. They have since affixed their signatures to the peace with Austria and the peace with Bulgaria; but they took no part in the negotiation of either of these instruments. This is only another demonstration of the fact that membership of the League of Nations does not of itself, except in form, establish the national status of the British Dominions either in the community of nations or in the British Commonwealth. It shows that something more is needed for full national status, since independent nations cannot be bound by treaties in the negotiation of which they have taken no part. The Dominions might have taken their part, had they chosen to do so, in exactly the same manner as in the negotiation of the peace with Germany. The British Imperial delegation which negotiated the German treaty has, however, ceased to exist; and the Dominions have not yet realised that without it their participation in the League of Nations as individual members is a matter of form without political substance. The negotiation of peace with the Ottoman Empire and the shaping of our policy towards Russia and the Bolshevik Government are even more significant examples of this fact. Among the many changes brought upon the British Empire by the war none is more serious than the great extension of its responsibilities in the Middle East. . . . The settlement which we now adopt, and the lines upon which our future policy is shaped, must vitally affect the peace of the world and our own security. It is essential that our course should be wisely taken and generally understood. It follows that the Dominions are as closely interested as Great Britain and India in the negotiation of the peace with Turkey and in the choice of our policy towards Russia.—*British empire, the league, and the United States (Round Table, March, 1920).*

Mandates under the League of Nations. See LEAGUE OF NATIONS: Plans formulated during the World War.

CONCLUSION

"If I were asked how one could describe in a sentence the general aim of British imperialism . . . I should answer . . . to give all men within its borders an English mind; to give all who come within its sway the power to look at things of man's life, at the past, at the future, from the standpoint of an Englishman; to diffuse within its bound that high tolerance in religion which has marked this Empire from its foundation; that reverence yet boldness before the mysteriousness of life and death, characteristic of our great poets and our great thinkers; that love of free institutions, that pursuit of ever higher justice and a larger freedom, which, rightly or wrongly, we associate with the temper and character of our race wherever it is dominant and secure. To give all men within its bounds an English mind—that has been the purpose of our Empire in the past. He who speaks of England's greatness speaks of this. Her renown, her glory, it is this, undying, imperishable, in the strictest sense of that word. For if, in some cataclysm of nature, these islands and all that they embrace were overwhelmed and sunk in

sea-oblivion, if tomorrow's sun rose upon an Englandless world, still this spirit and this purpose in other lands would fare on untouched amid the wreck."—H. Egerton, *War and the British dominions* (Oxford pamphlet).

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BRITISH EMPIRE LEAGUE. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Colonial federation: Imperial federation proposals: 19th century.

BRITISH EMPIRE STEEL CORPORATION, Canada. See **TRUSTS**: Canada: 1920.

BRITISH EXPEDITIONARY FORCE, a term applied first to Great Britain's small regular army of about 80,000 men which landed in France in August, 1914; later applied to all the British armies operating in France and Belgium during World War.

BRITISH FLAG. See **FLAG, BRITISH**.

BRITISH GUIANA, British colonial possession in South America with an area of 84,480 square miles and an estimated population in 1917 of 313,999 (excluding aborigines estimated at 13,000 who live in the unsettled portions of the colony). British Guiana was taken from the French in 1803, and is controlled by a governor appointed by the crown and a court of Policy elected by the registered voters, of whom there were about 4,000 in 1920. Civil cases are judged by the Roman-Dutch law and criminal cases by the law of Great Britain.—See also **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Expansion: 19th century: South America; Extent; GUIANA.

1895.—Boundary dispute with Venezuela. See **U. S. A.**: 1895 (December); and **VENEZUELA**: 1895 (July); (November).

1904.—Settlement of Brazilian boundary dispute. See **BRAZIL**: 1904.

BRITISH HONDURAS. See **HONDURAS, BRITISH**.

BRITISH IMPERIAL CONFERENCES. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Colonial and imperial conferences.

BRITISH INDIA. See **INDIA**.

BRITISH ISLES. See **ENGLAND**; **IRELAND**; **SCOTLAND**; **WALES**.

BRITISH LABOR PARTY. See **LABOR PARTIES**: 1868-1919.

BRITISH MUNITIONS MINISTRY. See **MUNITIONS MINISTRY, BRITISH**.

BRITISH MUSEUM, London, is situated in Bloomsbury on Great Russell street just off New Oxford street and High Holborn. "This splendid national Institution owes its first establishment to the will of Sir Hans Sloane, an eminent physician and naturalist of his day, who directed that on his death, his books, manuscripts, and collections both of art and natural history, should be offered to Parliament for £20,000. The offer was accepted at his death in 1753; and the Act (26 Geo. II) which directed the purchase, also directed the purchase of the Harleian Library of Manuscripts; and enacted that the Cottonian Library, which had been presented to the nation, in the reign of William III, and deposited in Dean's Yard, Westminster, should, with these, form one general collection; to which at the same time George II added a large library that had been collected by the preceding sovereigns since Henry VIII. To accommodate the national property thus accumulated, the Government raised by lottery, the sum of £100,000, of which £20,000 were devoted to purchase the above collections."—H. G. Clarke, *British museum*, p. 5.—"Montague House was purchased by the Trustees in 1754 for a general repository, and the collections were removed to it. . . . On the 15th of January, 1750, the British Museum was opened for the inspection and use of the public. At first the Museum was divided into three departments, viz., Printed Books, Manuscripts, and Natural History; at the head of each of them was placed an officer designated as 'Under Librarian.' The increase of the collections soon rendered it necessary to provide additional accommodation for them, Montague House proving insufficient. The present by George III of Egyptian Antiquities, and the purchase of the Hamilton and Townley Antiquities, made it moreover imperative to create an additional department—that of Antiquities and Art—to

which were united the Prints and Drawings, as well as the Medals and Coins, previously attached to the library of Printed Books and Manuscripts. The acquisition of the Elgin Marbles in 1816 made the Department of Antiquities of the highest importance, and increased room being indispensable for the exhibition of those marbles, a temporary shelter was prepared for them. This was the last addition to Montague House. When, in 1823, the library collected by George III was presented to the nation by George IV it became necessary to erect a building fit to receive this valuable and extensive collection. It was then decided to have an entirely new edifice to contain the whole of the Museum collection, including the recently-acquired library. Sir R. Smirke was accordingly directed by the Trustees to prepare plans. The eastern side of the present structure was completed in 1828, and the Royal Library was then placed in it. The northern, southern, and western sides of the building were subsequently added, and in 1845 the whole of Montague House and its additions had disappeared; while the increasing collections had rendered it necessary to make various additions to the original design of Sir R. Smirke, some of them even before it had been carried out.—J. W. Jones, *British museum: a guide*, pp. ii-iii.—“The British Museum has, since 1753, been under the government of a Board of Trustees. This body includes certain family Trustees, representing some of the legates to the Museum, and insisted on by the terms of the bequest.”—T. Greenwood, *Museums and art galleries*, p. 225.

Explorations and accessions.—“The year 1772 is noteworthy as the date of the first Parliamentary grant for the augmentation of the Museum collection. The House of Commons in that year voted a sum of £8410 for the purchase of the valuable museum of antiquities which had been formed by Sir William Hamilton (1730-1803), British Ambassador at Naples, 1764-1800. The vases formed the most important section, but the collection also contained several sculptures in the round and in relief. . . . The collection of sculpture which had thus slowly come into existence during the first fifty years of the Museum's history, received its most brilliant accessions during the first quarter of the [nineteenth] century. . . . Thomas Bruce, seventh Earl of Elgin (1766-1841), whose collection was the next and greatest addition to the British Museum, had been appointed British Ambassador to the Porte in 1799. On his appointment, he resolved to make his time of office of service to the cause of art, and accordingly engaged a body of five architects, draughtsmen and formatori, under Lusieri, a Neapolitan portrait painter, to make casts, plans and drawings from the remains in Greece, and more particularly at Athens. While the work was in progress, Lord Elgin became aware of the rapid destruction that was taking place, of the sculptures in Athens. The success of the British arms in Egypt having made the disposition of the Porte favourable to the British Ambassador, a firman was obtained which sanctioned the removal of the sculptures. The whole collection, formed by Lord Elgin's agents, was, after long negotiations, and an enquiry by a Select Committee of the House of Commons, purchased of Lord Elgin for £35,000 in 1816. It consists of sculptures and architectural fragments from the Parthenon, the Erechtheion, and other Athenian buildings; casts, which have now become of great value, from the Parthenon, the Theseion, and the Monument of Lysicrates; a considerable number of Greek reliefs, principally from Athens; fragments from Mycenæ and elsewhere; drawings and

plans. . . . In 1846, permission was given by the Porte to the British Ambassador . . . to remove twelve slabs of the frieze of the Mausoleum from Halicarnassos. These sculptures, long known to travellers, were taken from the walls of the castle of Budrum, and presented by the Ambassador to the British Museum. Ten years later the influence of Lord Stratford de Redcliffe was exerted to support Sir Charles Newton in his explorations in Asia Minor. Sir Charles Newton exchanged his position at the British Museum, in 1856, for the post of British Vice-Consul at Mitylene, which he held till 1859, and in that capacity he was able, on behalf of the Trustees, to excavate the sites of the Mausoleum at Halicarnassos, and of the temple of Demeter at Cnidus. He also removed the archaic statues of Branchidæ, and collected several minor pieces of sculpture. The excavations on the site of the Mausoleum added four slabs to the series presented by Lord Stratford de Redcliffe in 1840. One additional slab was purchased in 1865 of the Marchese Serra, of Genoa. While the excavations of the Mausoleum were in progress, the Crimean campaign afforded an opportunity to Col. Westmacott to form a collection of sculptures from Kertch and the neighbourhood, illustrating the later stages of Greek art on the Euxine. In the years 1860-1861, Captain, [afterward] General Sir R. Murdoch Smith, R. E., and Commander E. A. Porcher, R. N., carried out a series of excavations on the site of Cyrenê, and discovered a considerable number of sculptures in marble, and an admirable bronze portrait head, among the ruins of the temples of Apollo, Dionysos and Aphrodite, and elsewhere. The excavations which were carried on at Ephesus by the late Mr. John Turtle Wood, for the British Museum, began in 1863, and were continued till 1874, the site of the great temple of Artemis not having been determined before the spring of 1870. Besides excavating the site of the temple, Mr. Wood obtained inscriptions and sculptures from the Odeum, the great Theatre, and the road to the temple of Arthemis. The site of Naucratis in the Egyptian Delta was discovered by Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie, and was excavated, partly by the discoverer, and partly by Mr. E. A. Gardner, at the cost of the Egypt Exploration Fund in the years 1884-6. The most important objects found were fragments of pottery, but there were also some architectural remains, and archaic statuettes of interest.”—A. H. Smith, *British museum (Catalogue of sculpture*, pp. 1-9).

1880-1916.—Library.—Recent history of the library.—Changes in the buildings.—Important bequests.—Size of the library.—“In 1879 the White Wing, on the southeast side, was added to the museum buildings. . . . This wing, when completed, contained newspaper rooms and additions to the Department of Manuscripts, besides other extensions not connected with the library. In 1880-1883 the great step was taken of removing the natural history collections to a new museum in Cromwell Road, South Kensington, where they could obtain the justice they deserve. . . . The galleries at Bloomsbury left vacant by the transfer were immediately filled with antiquities hitherto meanly lodged in the basement. The Reading-room accommodation was now becoming extremely inadequate to the demands made upon it. . . . To relieve the pressure, the newspapers and Parliamentary Papers were removed to the White Wing, and had a reading-room specially allotted to them. Restrictions also were placed on the reading of novels. Novels less than five years old cannot now [1916] be obtained in the Reading-room without special permission from the Superintendent. . . .

The British Museum Act, 1902, authorised the erection of a building there in which might be stored newspapers and other printed matter not in general use, provided that they were made accessible to the public at Bloomsbury on due notice being given. . . . The new library and galleries on the north side recently completed were begun in April, 1906, the late Mr. Vincent Stuckey Lean having in 1899 left £50,000 chiefly for the extension of the library. This sum was augmented by a Treasury grant of £150,000 under the Public Buildings Expenses Act. The new wing is called King Edward the Seventh's Galleries. . . . On 7th May, 1914, the new galleries were opened by King George V., who was accompanied by the Queen and Princess Mary. The ceremony took place in the North Library, when the Archbishop of Canterbury read an address to the King summarising the history of the Museum. In his reply, the King spoke of the pride he felt in the museum, as a former trustee of this great national institution. 'The new galleries which we are met to open today,' said his majesty, 'form a worthy addition to one of the noblest public buildings of my capital. They will enable your ever-growing collections to be displayed to more advantage, and will provide better accommodations for students and for the work of the staff, and will thus, I trust, extend and enhance the influence of the Museum as one of the chief educational agencies of the world. . . . The latter days of the library have been uneventful, though the collections are steadily increasing, being added to yearly, partly by purchase, partly by benefactions from public-spirited persons. . . . Baron Ferdinand Rothschild's bequest of illuminated manuscripts—some exceedingly fine—was received in 1899. In 1910 the Huth Bequest was received. . . . This is the most important addition of manuscripts and printed books acquired by the Museum since the bequest of the Grenville Library in 1847. The Music Department has recently been enriched by the King's loan of the royal Musical Library from Buckingham Palace. This collection numbering about 1000 manuscripts and 3000 printed books is now deposited in the Museum. . . . Happily there has been no catastrophe to chronicle in the history of our national library, save the disastrous fire at Ashburnham House, in 1731, which destroyed part of the Cottonian collection. Fire, War and Neglect are the enemies which have wrought havoc among books in all ages, but from the beginning the authorities of the British Museum have taken such careful precautions against danger of any kind that the Museum collections have never been seriously threatened. . . . At the time of the Gordon Riots, in 1780, troops were stationed in the Museum garden. . . . Cowtan, an assistant in the Library under Panizzi's administration, has left an entertaining account of the precautions taken against an attack by the Chartists in 1848. . . . In 1912 the outrages on public buildings committed by some fanatics for the purpose of influencing public opinion in favor of the political enfranchisement of women, led to the closing of the Museum to the general public. The Reading-room and Library, however, remained available for students. . . . Since the outbreak of the war [World War] precautions have been taken against damage by hostile aircraft, and specially valuable books and other objects have been removed to safes and strong rooms. . . . That the British Museum Library is paramount among all the libraries within the Empire is accepted as a matter of course, but there has always been an inclination . . . to make comparisons between the French national library

and our own, with a view to discovering which is the greater. It must be admitted that in the earliest part of the last century the Bibliothèque Royale was undoubtedly far superior in its number of books to the library of the British Museum. Indeed, it was the first library in the world. But as regards administration, cataloguing, and the facilities afforded readers, the British Museum has always been foremost. . . . According to the enumeration published in 1912 the contents of the Museum Library then occupied forty-six miles of shelves, and stood approximately as follows:—
 Volumes of MSS . . . 50,500; Charters and Rolls . . . 76,000; Greek and Latin Papyri . . . 1,000; Printed Books . . . 3,500,000 to 4,000,000."—G. B. Rawlings, *British Museum library*, pp. 92-97, 99, 101-104.—See also EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: ENGLAND; LIBRARIES: Modern: ENGLAND.

BRITISH MUSEUM ACT (1902). See BRITISH MUSEUM: 1880-1916.

BRITISH NATIONAL COUNCIL. See YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATION: 1898-1912.

BRITISH NATIONALITY AND STATUS OF ALIENS ACTS (1914 and 1918). See BRITISH EMPIRE: Citizenship and Naturalization.

BRITISH NAVY, Increase of. See ENGLAND: 1912-1914.

BRITISH NEW GUINEA. See PACIFIC OCEAN: 1800-1914.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT, an act of the British Parliament passed in March, 1867, providing for the unification of the four provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It met with the warm support of the statesmen of all parties, and came into operation by royal proclamation on July 1, 1867. Since then, July 1 has been celebrated as Dominion day.—See also CANADA: 1867; 1871; 1886; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: Comparison with constitution of U. S.

Act amended in 1916. See CANADA: 1916.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO. See BORNEO: 1521-1846.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO COMPANY. See BORNEO: 1865-1890.

BRITISH PROTECTORATES. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Governments of the empire: Colonies and Protectorates.

BRITISH RED CROSS. See RED CROSS: British organizations.

BRITISH SOMALILAND. See AFRICA: Later 19th century; BRITISH EMPIRE: Expansion: 19th century: Africa: East Africa: 1884; and SOMALILAND.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF; and AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA COMPANY: 1887.—Occupation of Rhodesia. See RHODESIA: 1887-1889.

1889.—Founding of the company. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1884-1889; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1884-1894; 1885-1893.

1894-1895.—Extended charter and enlarged powers.—Its master spirit, Rhodes. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1894-1895.

1896.—Revocation of the company's charter called for by President Kruger. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (January-April).

1896.—Resignation of Rhodes. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (June).

1896.—Parliamentary investigation of its administration. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (July).

1896.—Complicity of officials in the Jameson raid. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896 (July).

1896-1897.—Demands from President Kruger for proceedings against the directors. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1896-1897 (May-April).

1897.—Convicted of subjecting natives to forced labor. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1897 (January).

1898.—Reorganization. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1898 (February).

1900.—Administration extended over Barotsiland. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1900 (September).

1903-1908.—Power and policy in Rhodesia. See RHODESIA: 1903-1908; 1908-1918.

BRITISH WEST AFRICA, a political division of British Africa, comprising the colony and protectorate of Nigeria (q. v.), of Gambia (q. v.), of Sierra Leone (q. v.), the Gold Coast colony (q. v.) with the Ashanti (q. v.) territory, and parts of Togoland (q. v.) and Cameroons (q. v.). See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914; Distribution of European sovereignty; SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.

BRITISH WEST INDIES, a political division of the West Indies, comprising Jamaica and most of the smaller Antilles islands. See BARBADOS; BERMUDA; JAMAICA; NEVIS; WEST INDIES.

BRITONS, name for the original inhabitants of the British Isles, especially the Celtic inhabitants of the island of Britain. See BRITAIN: 6th century; BRITANNIA; CELTS; CUMBRIA; SCOTLAND: 7th century.

BRITANNIC, British hospital ship sunk by the Germans. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: b; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: e.

BRITANNY, a province of northwestern France, bordering on the English Channel, and identified with the modern departments of Finistère, Côtes-du-Nord, Morbihan, Loire-Inférieure, and Ille-et-Vilaine.

In the Roman period. See AMORICA; VENETI OF WESTERN GAUL.

383.—British settlement and name. See BRITAIN: 383-388.

409.—Independence asserted.—At the time that the British island practically severed its connection with the expiring Roman Empire (about 409) the Britons of the continent,—of the Armorican province, or modern Brittany,—followed the example. "They expelled the Roman magistrates, who acted under the authority of the usurper Constantine; and a free government was established among a people who had so long been subject to the arbitrary will of a master."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 31.—"From this time, perhaps, we ought to date that isolation of Brittany from the politics of the rest of France which has not entirely disappeared even at the present day."—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 2, ch. 3.—The Armoricans, however, were found fighting by the side of the Romans and the Goths, against the Huns, on the great day at Chalons. See HUNS: 451.

818-912.—The Breyzad kingdom.—Subjection to the Norman dukes.—"Charlemagne's supremacy over the Armoricans may be compared to the dominion exercised by Imperial Russia amongst the Caucasian tribes—periods during which the vassals dare not claim the rights of independence, intercalated amongst the converse periods when the Emperor cannot assert the rights of authority; yet the Frank would not abandon the prerogative of the Caesars, whilst the mutual antipathy between the races inflamed the desire of dominion on the

one part, and the determination of resistance on the other. Brittany is divided into Bretagne Bretonnante and Bretagne Gallicante, according to the predominance of the Breyzad and the Romane languages respectively. The latter constituted the march-lands, and here the Counts-marchers were placed by Charlemagne and his successors, Franks mostly by lineage; yet one Breyzad, Nominœ, was trusted by Louis-le-débonnaire [818] with a delegated authority. Nominœ deserved his power; he was one of the new men of the era, literally taken from the plough. . . . The dissensions among the Franks enabled Nominœ to increase his authority. Could there be any adversary of the Empire so stupid as not to profit by the battle of Fontenay. . . . Nominœ assumed the royal title, vindicated the independence of his ancient people, and enabled them, in the time of Rollo, to assert with incorrect grandiloquence, pardonable in political argument, that the Frank had never reigned within the proper Armorican boundaries." Nominœ transmitted his crown to his son Herispoë; but the latter reigned briefly, succumbing to a conspiracy which raised his nephew, Salomon, to the throne. Salomon was a vigorous warrior, sometimes fighting the Franks, and sometimes struggling with the Normans, who pressed hard upon his small kingdom. He extended his dominions considerably, in Maine, Anjou, and the future Normandy, and his royal title was sanctioned by Charles the Bald. But he, too, was conspired against, blinded and dethroned, dying in prison; and, about 912, the second duke of Normandy established his lordship over the distracted country.

"Historical Brittany settled into four great counties, which also absorbed the Carolingian march-lands, Rennes, Nantes, Vannes and Cornouailles, rivalling and jealousy, snarling and warring against each other for the royal or ducal dignity, until the supremacy was permanently established in Alafr Fergant's line, the ally, the opponent, the son-in-law of William the Bastard. But the suzerainty or superiority of all Brittany was vested in the Conqueror's and the Plantagenet's lineage, till the forfeiture incurred by King John—an unjust exercise of justice."—Sir F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, ch. 3.

912-936.—Northmen.—"Brittany at that time was independent and prosperous, and arts and belles-lettres began to make rapid advance. They had progressed but little, however, before they began to wither beneath the ravages of the Northmen. Those pagan pirates from Denmark and Norway sailed up the rivers, burning everything on their way, and generally falling upon the monasteries, whose riches tempted their cupidity. The Bretons were unable to defend themselves successfully, for upon Salomon's death in 847 Brittany was again divided into petty kingdoms, independent of each other and weakened by civil wars. In vain did Alain, Comte de Vannes, win a great victory in 890. At the very beginning of the tenth century, a few years after the settlement of a band of Northmen in the part of the country which, after them, was named Normandy, another band settled at the mouth of the Loire, and from there oppressed the whole of Brittany. Many noble families sought shelter in France and in England. The monks deserted their abbeys, and fled with the relics of their saints to Paris, Picardy, Burgundy, and everywhere where a shelter was offered them. The dominion of the pirates lasted more than twenty-five years. The first attempt at enfranchisement did not succeed. It was only in 936 that emigrants returning to Brittany united their efforts with those of the Bretons who had remained

in their country, and after a war which lasted for some three years the Northmen were completely driven out. Alain Barbe Torte, Comte de Nantes, and Berengier, Comte de Rennes, were the heroes of the deliverance of their country."—Y. Josse, *Outline of Breton history* (from the French of M. de Calan, *Celtic Review*, July, 1909, pp. 43-44).

992-1237.—First dukes, feudal culture.—"After the death of Salomon . . . all these districts or territories merged in the three dominations of Nantes, Rennes, and Cornouaille. Amongst the Celts concord was impossible. In early times Nomoë, the Ruler of Cornouaille, had assumed, by Papal authority, the royal style, but the Counts of Rennes acquired the pre-eminence over the other chieftains. Regality vanished. Geoffrey, son of Conan [992-1008] . . . must be distinguished as the first Duke of Brittany. He constituted himself Duke simply by taking the title. This assumption may possibly have been sanctioned by the successor of Saint Peter; and, by degrees, his rank in the civil hierarchy became ultimately recognized. . . . The Counts of Brittany, and the Dukes in like manner, in later times, rendered homage 'en parage' to Normandy in the first instance, and that same homage was afterwards demanded by the crown of France. But the Capetian monarchs refused to acknowledge the 'Duke,' until the time of Peter Mauclerc, son of Robert, Count of Dreux, Earl of Richmond [1213-1237]."—Sir F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 3, p. 165.—"Brittany was then a feudal country; that is to say, the land belonged to great lords on whom depended a numerous gentry having free peasants as farmers—for Brittany is one of the provinces of France where villainage was most promptly abolished. Husbandry was the greatest resource of the inhabitants. Manufactures had not as yet been developed very extensively, though several small towns carried on a very considerable trade with foreign countries. After the Northmen had been expelled, many old abbeys rose up from their ruins—Landevennee, Saint Gildas, Redon, etc. Others were founded in the twelfth century, to clear the uncultivated lands, such as those of the Cistercians at Begar, St. Aubin de Bois, etc.; and others to help the secular clergy in the parishes, such as those of the Augustines and Prémontrés at Beauport, Beau-lieu, etc. More than forty abbeys for men and two for women were thus founded. Brittany had then great literary importance. Abelard, the greatest French philosopher of the Middle Ages; Adam de Saint Victor, the greatest poet in the Romance language; and Guillaume le Breton, one of the greatest epic poets in the same language, were all Bretons. The laments our poets had composed for the Armorican bishops, companions of Charles Martel—Amile, Moran, etc.—for the companions in arms of Pépin and Charlemagne—Ogier, Roland, about the heroes of the war of independence—Erispœ, Salomon, etc.—served as topics for the great poems the French call 'Chansons de Geste.' The marvellous tales of King Arthur, his knights and the prophet Merlin, which the Bretons had brought back from their stay in Britain in the tenth century, and made so popular all over France, were the beginning of the 'Romans de la Table Ronde.' [See ARTHURIAN LEGEND.] Brittany thus became a country of legends—the scene of fantastic or edifying stories, but never of those humorous or obscene tales called 'Fabliaux.' That did not prevent the French of that time from laughing at the Bretons, whom they liked to represent as a foolish and clownish people."—Y. Josse, *Outline of Breton history* (from the French of M. de Calan, *Celtic Review*, July, 1909, pp. 36-37).

1154-1360.—Extent of territory. See FRANCE: Maps of Medieval period: 1154-1360.

1341-1365.—The long Civil War.—Montfort against Blois.—Almost simultaneously with the beginning of the Hundred Years War of the English kings in France, there broke out a malignant and destructive civil war in Brittany, which French and English took part in, on the opposing sides. "John III, duke of that province, had died without issue, and two rivals disputed his inheritance. The one was Charles de Blois, husband of one of his nieces and nephew of the King of France; the other, Montfort, . . . younger brother of the last duke and . . . disinherited by him. The Court of Peers, devoted to the king, adjudged the duchy to Charles de Blois, his nephew. Montfort immediately made himself master of the strongest places, and rendered homage for Brittany to king Edward [III. of England], whose assistance he implored. This war, in which Charles de Blois was supported by France and Montfort by England, lasted twenty-four years without interruption, and presented, in the midst of heroic actions, a long course of treacheries and atrocious robberies." The war was ended in 1365 by the battle of Auray, in which Charles de Blois was slain, and Bertrand Du Guesclin, the famous Breton warrior, was taken prisoner. This was soon followed by the treaty of Guérande, which established Montfort in the duchy.—E. de Bonnechose, *History of France*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 2 and 4.

Also in: Froissart (Johnes), *Chronicles*, bk. 1, ch. 64-227.

1491.—Joined by marriage to the French crown.—The family of Montfort, having been established in the duchy of Brittany by the arms of the English, were naturally inclined to English connections; "but the Bretons would seldom permit them to be effectual. Two cardinal feelings guided the conduct of this brave and faithful people; the one an attachment to the French nation and monarchy in opposition to foreign enemies; the other, a zeal for their own privileges, and the family of Montfort, in opposition to the encroachments of the crown. In Francis II., the present duke [at the time of the accession of Charles VIII. of France, 1483], the male line of that family was about to be extinguished. His daughter Anne was naturally the object of many suitors, among whom were particularly distinguished the duke of Orleans, who seems to have been preferred by herself; the lord of Albret, a member of the Gascon family of Foix, favoured by the Breton nobility, as most likely to preserve the peace and liberties of their country, but whose age rendered him not very acceptable to a youthful princess; and Maximilian, king of the Romans [whose first wife, Mary of Burgundy, died in 1482]. Brittany was rent by factions and overrun by the armies of the regent of France, who did not lose this opportunity of interfering with its domestic troubles, and of persecuting her private enemy, the duke of Orleans. Anne of Brittany, upon her father's death, finding no other means of escaping the addresses of Albret, was married by proxy to Maximilian. This, however, aggravated the evils of the country, since France was resolved at all events to break off so dangerous a connexion. And as Maximilian himself was unable, or took not sufficient pains to relieve his betrothed wife from her embarrassments, she was ultimately compelled to accept the hand of Charles VIII. He had long been engaged by the treaty of Arras to marry the daughter of Maximilian, and that princess was educated at the French court. But this engagement had not prevented several years of hostilities,

and continual intrigues with the towns of Flanders against Maximilian. The double injury which the latter sustained in the marriage of Charles with the heiress of Brittany seemed likely to excite a protracted contest; but the king of France, who had other objects in view, and perhaps was conscious that he had not acted a fair part, soon came to an accommodation, by which he restored Artois and Franche-comté. . . . France was now consolidated into a great kingdom: the feudal system was at an end."—H. Hallam, *View of the state of Europe during the middle ages, ch. 1, pt. 2*.—In the contract of marriage between Charles VIII and Anne of Brittany, "each party surrendered all separate pretensions upon the Duchy, and one stipulation alone was considered requisite to secure the perpetual union of Brittany with France, namely, that in case the queen should survive her consort, she should not remarry unless either with the future king, or, if that were not possible, with the presumptive heir of the crown."—E. Smedley, *History of France, pt. 1, ch. 18*.

ALSO IN: F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France, ch. 26*.

1532.—Final reunion with the crown of France.—"Duprat [chancellor of Francis I of France], whose administration was . . . shameful, promoted one measure of high utility. Francis I until then had governed Brittany only in the quality of duke of that province; Duprat counselled him to unite this duchy in an indissoluble manner with the crown, and he prevailed upon the States of Brittany themselves to request this reunion, which alone was capable of preventing the breaking out of civil wars at the death of the king. It was irrevocably voted by the States assembled at Vannes in 1532. The king swore to respect the rights of Brittany, and not to raise any subsidy therein without the consent of the States Provincial."—E. de Bonnechose, *History of France, bk. 1, ch. 2*.

16th century.—Protestantism.—"Protestantism made but few recruits in Brittany—a hundred noble families, a few magistrates, and some gentry. The Catholics were very tolerant towards them, and the Protestants suffered few vexations: they were not the victims of any massacre, even at the feast of Saint Barthélemy, 1572. They consequently revolted only in one or two districts, and for the most part the religious wars that desolated France spared Brittany. Everything changed when Henry III. died in 1589. His successor, Henry IV., was a Protestant. He was helped by his co-religionists and by those among the Catholics who thought a difference of religion was not sufficient to exclude the rightful heir from the throne. The Bretons, however, Catholics before everything else, united to resist the new king, with the Duke of Mercœur, governor of the province, at their head. Some among them, who wanted to be governed only by descendants of their former dukes, and who would not accept Henry IV. for that reason, sought to establish as their duchess the daughter of the King of Spain, niece to Henry III., and great-granddaughter of the Duchess Anne. The war lasted more than nine years. It was a succession of petty battles, of taking and retaking of towns and castles, that did all the more harm to the country because several commanders on both sides, such as the Protestant Du Liscouet and the Catholic La Fontenelle, were sheer brigands, who, under the pretence of religion, sought only to release friends and to hold enemies to ransom. And the foreigners called in to help the two parties—the Spanish by the Catholics and the English by the Protestants—followed their example without

scruple. When Henry IV. renounced Protestantism in 1593 many Ligueurs joined him, but Mercœur and his partisans submitted to him only in 1598."—Y. Josse, *Outline of Breton history* (from the French of M. de Calan, *Celtic Review, July, 1909, pp. 41-42*).—See also FRANCE: 1503-1508.

1793.—Resistance to the French Revolution.—The Vendean War. See FRANCE: 1793 (March-April); (June); (July-December).

1794-1796.—The Chouans. See FRANCE: 1794-1796.

1788.—Break-up of the original Breton states.—"The States of Brittany were strongly imbued with national feeling, and they helped the Benedictine Lobineau to write a history of Brittany which served as a model for those written later on in the different provinces. Up to the end of the eighteenth century the three orders were united for the defence of the privileges of Brittany, but in 1788, when the burst of civil, political and social unrest that ended with the Revolution appeared in France, the Breton townsmen, finding their influence in the States too small, claimed representation according to their proportionate number among the population. It was a throwing over of the old principles by which it was not the men but the general interests, the group, that were represented. The clergy and nobility refused to make any concessions. The townsmen grew excited. Fighting took place in the streets at Rennes, and the Government dissolved the States, never to call them together again. In their place the 'Assemblée Nationale,' made up of all the French deputies, met in Paris, and departments took the place of the provinces. Brittany was divided into five departments: Ille-et-Vilaine, Loire-Inférieure, Côtes-du-Nord, Morbihan, Finistère."—Y. Josse, *Outline of Breton history* (from the French of M. de Calan, *Celtic Review, July, 1909, pp. 43-44*).

Modern Brittany.—"France is by no means a smiling garden in every one of her parts, and the first distinction to be drawn is between the mountainous areas, barren, isolated, unprogressive, and the rich, hospitable plains, where men congregate in great cities. Among the former we should place Brittany—a huge slab of granite, flung as the western bastion of the continent against the Atlantic. The interior of Brittany is a rugged country, savage and sombre without grandeur. It is partly covered with black mountains, worn down to the size of hills by æonial erosion, but still forbidding. Groves of stunted oaks alternate with moors of gorse and broom; rye takes the place of wheat; the very cattle are of an undersized breed; and cider is less sweet than in the neighbouring province, opulent Normandy. The coast, assailed by the age-long fury of the ocean, is, in the north and west, deeply indented with fjords, fringed with islands and sunken reefs. A tragic shore, fertile in shipwrecks: the wild inhabitants were long accused of turning these into a profitable industry, and of bringing them about by means of delusive lights. The land is swathed in ocean mist: hence a mild climate, which allows violets to grow in mid-winter, and makes market-gardening profitable in every coast valley and cove: this forms the Golden Belt of Brittany, a Cimmerian Riveria. Each little fjord shelters a fishing village, like Paimpol and Tréguier, whence a fleet of sturdy brigs starts every year for Iceland or Newfoundland. From afar the returning sailor descries the tall, fretted granite spire, heart and sole pride of the humble city. These eyries of sea-birds alone are truly Breton. Nantes and St. Nazaire, on the Loire, industrial and shipping centres; Rennes, the university seat and old-time capital; Lorient, an ar-

tificial creation and a failure both as a commercial port and as a naval base; Brest [q. v.], the great arsenal, the chief bridgehead of the American Expeditionary Forces all belong to France rather than to Armor. The Bretons are a strange people, short, dark-haired, blue-eyed. Unlike the French, they are still very prolific, and their country, neither fertile nor rich in minerals, is one of the most densely populated in France. Celtic is still the speech of the majority in the western districts; the old costumes have not yet been wholly discarded, nor the old customs, such as the great pilgrimages or Pardons; neither have many decades of centralizing democracy and aggressive anticlericalism been able to root out the old loyalty to King and Church. Isolated in its corner of the land, in its traditions and its language, Brittany offers the pathetic spectacle of a small nation whose soul is relentlessly stifled by the pressure of an alien civilization. Yet France has dealt not unfairly with Brittany. The numbness which has seized its original culture is not the result of persecution; the 'oppression' is well-meaning and almost intangible; the 'victim' is driven to silence and melancholy rather than rebellion; perhaps persecution were kinder. The daughters of Brittany emigrate to Paris as domestic servants; with conscription and the influx of summer tourists, the men are becoming frenchified. The last biniou (bag-pipe) will probably be played for the benefit of American trippers. It is a poignantly attractive soul which is thus dying under our eyes—rugged and misty like the Breton shore: the greatest legends of adventure, mysticism, and passion in the Middle Ages came from the Celtic sources, and the history of religion in the nineteenth-century France could be summed up in three Breton names, Chateaubriand, Lamennais, Renan."—A. L. Guerard, *French civilization—from its origins to the close of the Middle Ages*, pp. 33-35.

Music. See **Music:** Folk music and nationalism: Celtic: Brittany.

BRITTANY, Dukes of, growth of power. See **BREST:** 1239; **BRITTANY:** 992-1237.

BRIXHAM CAVE, a cavern near Brixham, Devonshire, England, in which noted evidences of a very early race of men, contemporaneous with certain extinct animals, have been found.—J. Geikie, *Prehistoric Europe*.

ALSO IN: W. B. Dawkins, *Cave hunting*.

BROAD BOTTOMED MINISTRY, of Chesterfield, so termed from his pseudonym, "Jeffrey Broadbottom." See **ENGLAND:** 1742-1745.

BROAD CHURCH PARTY, name applied to the liberals in the Church of England. See **CHURCH OF ENGLAND:** 19th century; **OXFORD OR TRACTARIAN MOVEMENT.**

BROADHURST, George A. (1866-), American dramatist. See **DRAMA:** 1865-1913.

BROADWOOD, John (1732-1812), Scottish piano manufacturer. See **INVENTIONS:** 19th century: Piano.

BROCK, Isaac (1769-1812), British major-general and administrator, known as the "Hero of Upper Canada." In the war of 1812 he led British forces against General Hull, and in 1812 captured Detroit. See **U. S. A.:** 1812 (June-October); (September-November).

BROCK, W. L., American aviator who won the British Aerial Derby and other flights in England (1914), including the London to Paris race. See **AVIATION:** Important flights since 1900: 1914.

BROCKDORFF-RANTZAU, Ulrich Karl Christian, Count von, original leader of the German delegates to the peace conference, 1919; pro-

tested against allied terms and resigned; succeeded by Dr. Hermann Muller, who signed the treaty of Versailles. See **GERMANY:** 1919 (June-July); **PARIS, CONFERENCE OF:** Reception of the treaty.

BRODIE, Alexander O. (1849-1918), army officer, organizer of Rough Riders. See **U. S. A.:** 1898 (April-May).

BROGLIE, de, a distinguished French family, originally from Piedmont, established in France about the middle of the seventeenth century. Several of them became marshals of France and played a leading part in French history.

Brogie, Achille Charles Leonce Victor (1785-1870), French statesman. During restoration he acted with the doctrinaires (q. v.); in Louis Philippe's cabinet; in 1832 became minister of foreign affairs and finally head of the cabinet until 1836, when he retired. See **FRANCE:** 1830-1840.

Brogie, Jacques Victor Albert, Duc de (1821-1901). Fall of ministry. See **FRANCE:** 1871-1876.

Brogie, Victor Francois, Duc de (1718-1804), lieutenant general during the Seven Years' War, defeated the Prussians at the battle of Berghen; became marshal of France, 1759; minister of war 1789; led a group of French émigrés in the invasion of Champagne, 1792.—See also **AUSTRIA:** 1742 (January-May); 1742 (June-December); **FRANCE:** 1789 (June); **GERMANY:** 1759 (April-August); and 1761-1762.

BROKE, Sir Philip Bowes Vere (1776-1841), English admiral who in 1813 defeated the American frigate *Chesapeake*. See **U. S. A.:** 1812-1813: Indifference to the navy.

BROMSEBRO, Peace of (1645). See **GERMANY:** 1640-1645.

BROMWYCHAM. See **BIRMINGHAM, England.**
BRONKHORST SPRUIT, Battle of (1880). See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF:** 1806-1881.

BRONSTEIN, Leiba. See **TROZKY, LEON.**

BRONX, one of the boroughs of New York City which comprises the section north of the Harlem river. It was made a separate county in 1913, and in 1914 assumed its own government. See **NEW YORK CITY:** 1895-1897, 1910-1920.

BRONX PARKWAY. See **NEW YORK CITY:** 1851-1920.

BRONZE AGE, a period in history of mankind, when bronze was in general use for tools, weapons and ornaments. See **EUROPE:** Prehistoric period: Bronze age; **STONE AGE.**

BROOK FARM, a communistic experiment to solve the social problem, which was started in 1841 at West Roxbury, Massachusetts. In 1844 the community became reorganized as a Fourieristic community. See **SOCIALISM:** 1840-1847.

BROOKE, Sir Charles Johnson (1829-1917), nephew of Sir James Brooke, whom he succeeded as raja of Sarawak in 1868. See **BORNEO.**

BROOKE, Sir James (1803-1868), first raja of Sarawak who was instrumental in securing control of Borneo and in doing away with piracy. •See **BORNEO:** 1521-1846.

BROOKE, John Rutter (1838-), American general. Served in the Civil War; in 1897 he was in Porto Rico, arranging for its evacuation by Spanish troops; 1898-1899, military governor of Cuba. See **CUBA:** 1898-1899 (December-October); **PORTO RICO:** 1898-1899 (October-October).

BROOKE, Rupert (1887-1915), English poet. See **ENGLISH LITERATURE:** 1880-1920.

BROOKLYN, N. Y., situated on Long Island and separated from Manhattan island by the East river. Until 1898 a separate city, but since then a borough of Greater New York, and constituting

Kings county. (See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897). Population over 2,000,000.

1624.—The first settlements by Walloon families.—A few families of Walloons, in 1624, built their cottages on Long Island, and began the cultivation of the lands they had secured; the women working in the fields, while the men were engaged in the service of the Dutch West India Company. These were the first settlers of Brooklyn.—G. W. Schuyler, *Colonial New York*, v. 1, p. 27.

1646.—The town named and organized.—The occupation of land within the limits of the present city of Brooklyn . . . had steadily progressed, until now (1646) nearly the whole water-front, from Newtown Creek to the southerly side of Gowanus Bay, was in the possession of individuals who were engaged in its actual cultivation. . . . The village . . . was called Breuckelen, after the ancient village of the same name in Holland.—H. R. Stiles, *History of the city of Brooklyn*, ch. 1.

1776.—Battle of Long Island. See U. S. A.: 1776 (August).

1883-1911.—Bridges. See NEW YORK CITY: 1867-1915.

1895-1897.—Absorption in Greater New York. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895; 1897.

1903-1922.—Tunnels in and from New York. See NEW YORK CITY: 1860-1922.

City Plan. See CITY PLANNING: United States: Survey of New York.

BROOKLYN BOROUGH, one of the boroughs of New York, but until 1898 a separate city. It is on the west end of Long Island, and is separated from the island and borough of Manhattan by the East river. See NEW YORK CITY: 1895-1897.

BROOKLYN BRIDGE.—The great suspension bridge, spanning East river, between New York and Brooklyn, at a height of 135 feet above high water, was begun in 1870 and opened in 1883. Total length, including approaches, 6,016 feet; river span, 1,595½.—See also NEW YORK CITY: 1867-1915.

BROOKLYN RAPID TRANSIT COMPANY. See NEW YORK CITY: 1860-1920.

BROOKS, James (1810-1873), American journalist and politician. Was in New York state legislature, 1847; U. S. Congress, 1849-1853 and 1863-1873. Censured for his connection with the Crédit Mobilier scandal. See CRÉDIT MOBILIER SCANDAL.

BROOKS, Joseph (1821-1877), candidate for governor of Arkansas in 1872. He was defeated by Eliza Baxter, the regular Republican candidate. See ARKANSAS: 1872-1874.

BROOKS, Preston Smith (1819-1857), American congressman; noted for his assault on Senator Sumner. See U. S. A.: 1856: Senator Sumner's speech.

BROOM, Jacob (1808-1864), American statesman; nominated for presidency, 1852; member of House of Representatives, 1855-1857. See U. S. A.: 1852: Appearance of the Know Nothings.

BROOME, Western Australia, scene of anti-Japanese race riot in 1921. See WESTERN AUSTRALIA: 1921.

BROQUEVILLE, Charles de, Baron (b. 1860), minister of war and later premier of Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1914: World War; WORLD WAR: 1917: XII. Political conditions, etc.: h, 6. On re-education of the maimed. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Re-education.

BROTHER JONATHAN.—A title given by Washington to his close friend, Gov. Jonathan Trumbull, of Connecticut; whence came, it is said, the name applied typically to Americans.

BROTHERHOOD OF RAILWAY TRAINMEN. See RAILWAY BROTHERHOODS.

BROTHERS' CLUB. See CLUBS.

BROTHERS OF CHRIST. See CHRISTIAN DELPHIANS.

BROTHERS OF THE CHRISTIAN SCHOOLS, or Christian Doctrine, an order established in 1684 by St. Jean Baptiste de la Salle for the purpose of teaching the poor. See EDUCATION: Modern: 17th-20th centuries: Christian brothers.

BROUGHAM AND VAUX, Henry Peter, 1st Baron (1778-1868), lord chancellor of England, interested in woman suffrage and in the reform of debt laws. See DEBT, LAWS CONCERNING: In England; ENGLAND: 1830-1832; SUFFRAGE, WOMAN; England: 1819-1860.

BROUWER, Hendrik (fl. 1611), Dutch navigator. See AUSTRALIA: 1601-1800.

BROWN, Aaron Vail (1795-1859), American statesman, governor of Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856.

BROWN, Sir Arthur Whitten, British aviator. Made first continuous flight across the Atlantic in an aeroplane. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1919 (June).

BROWN, Benjamin Gratz (1826-1885), American politician. Member Missouri legislature, 1852-1858; served on the Union side in the Civil War, rising to rank of brigadier general of volunteers, United States senator, 1863-1867; governor of Missouri, 1871; candidate for vice-president on ticket headed by Horace Greeley, 1872.—See also U. S. A.: 1872.

BROWN, Charles Brockden (1771-1810), American novelist. "Wieland," his best book, and the first American novel, is, like much of his work, a study in abnormal psychology, combined with an idealism which he owes to William Godwin. "Brown's mature years came during the period, between the Revolution and the War of 1812, when the nationally independent feeling of America, was most acutely conscious. . . . This impulse—the 'American brag' so frequently remarked by foreigners—is clearly evident in the works of Brown."—B. Wendell, *Literary history of America*, p. 159-160.—See also AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1790-1860.

BROWN, George (1818-1880), Canadian statesman and journalist, one of the leaders of the confederation movement; editor of the Toronto *Globe* and leader of the "Clear Grits." He was nominated for the Senate in 1873, and a year later, together with Sir Edward Thornton, negotiated a reciprocity treaty between the United States and Canada. The treaty, however, did not pass the United States Senate. See CANADA: 1840; 1840-1847; 1869-1873.

BROWN, General Jacob (1775-1828), American soldier, prominent in the War of 1812. See U. S. A.: 1812 (September-November); 1813 (October-November); 1814 (July-September).

BROWN, John (1735-1788), Scottish physician and inventor of Brunonian system of stimulation. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th century: Brunonian system, etc.

BROWN, John (1800-1859), extreme American abolitionist. Took part in the struggle for Kansas; convicted of treason for seizure of Harper's Ferry, sentenced to death and executed at Charleston, West Virginia, December 2, 1859.—See also U. S. A.: 1859.

BROWN, Preston (1872-), American general in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front; g, 2; v, 9.

BROWN, R. E., American engineer who brought suit against the South African republic in the Gold

Mine case. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1897 (January-March).

BROWN BESS, name for flint lock musket. See RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: Origin of small arms.

BROWN UNIVERSITY. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1762-1769; RHODE ISLAND: 1764.

BROWNE, Charles Farrar (1834-1876), American humorist. Under the name "Artemus Ward" wrote humorous articles that were popular in England and America. His humor is the typical American method of inextricably confusing fact and nonsense.

BROWNE, Robert (1550-1633), English divine and founder of the Brownists. See INDEPENDENTS; SEPARATISTS.

BROWNING, Elizabeth Barrett (1806-1861), English poet. In 1846 married Robert Browning, and removed to Italy where she spent the rest of her life. Her poetry ranks high in the Victorian period, the best being the collection known as "Sonnets from the Portuguese," and "Aurora Leigh."

BROWNING, Robert (1812-1889), English poet, creator of the dramatic monologue. "His work covers more than half a century of almost incessant production (*Pauline*, 1833; *Asolando*, 1880), exhibiting in sheer bulk and intellectual vigor a creative energy hardly surpassed by any poet since Shakespeare. Written while England was passing through a time of spiritual despondency and fluctuating faith, Browning's poetry is independent and often eccentric in style; it is defiant of the prevailing theories of art; it rises solitary, abrupt, rugged, and powerful, from an age of fluent, graceful, and melodious verse."—H. S. Pancoast, *Introduction to England literature*, p. 485.—See also ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1832-1880; DRAMA: 1815-1877.

BROWNING, John M. (1854-), American inventor. See ORDNANCE: 20th century; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: World War.

BROWNING GUN, invention and use of. See ORDNANCE: 20th century; RIFLES AND REVOLVERS: World War.

BROWNISTS. See ANABAPTISTS; INDEPENDENTS; PURITANS: In distinction from Independents and Separatists.

BROWNLOW, "Parson" William Gannaway (1805-1877), American journalist, strong advocate of slavery but not of secession. Elected governor of Tennessee, 1865, and in the United States Senate, 1860-1875. See TENNESSEE: 1865-1866.

BROWN-SEQUARD, Charles Edouard (1818-1894), French-American neurologist and physiologist. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th century: Endocrinology.

BROWNSVILLE AFFAIR. See U. S. A.: 1906 (August).

BRUCE, David (1855-), British surgeon, serving in the British armies of Malta and Egypt. He made some important observations on Malta fever and the sleeping-sickness in Uganda. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 19th-20th centuries: animals as carriers; SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Medicine.

BRUCE, Edward (d. 1318), Scottish prince; headed invasion of Ireland. See IRELAND: 1314-1318.

BRUCE, Frederick (1814-1867), English diplomat; minister to China. See CHINA: 1856-1860.

BRUCE, James, 8th earl of Elgin (1811-1863), British statesman. See EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Canada.

BRUCE, Robert (1274-1329), king of Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1305-1307; 1306-1314.

BRUCE, William Speirs (1867-), Scottish explorer in the Antarctic. See ANTARCTIC EX-

PLORATION: 1892-1893; and Map of Antarctic regions.

BRUCHEUM, the royal quarter of ancient Alexandria which held the famous library, started by Lagos, the first of the Ptolemies. See ALEXANDRIA; B. C. 282-246; A. D. 260-272, 273; LIBRARIES: Ancient: Alexandria.

BRUCKNER, Anton (1824-1896), Austrian organist and composer. Wrote eight symphonies, three masses, a "Te Deum," and the "One Hundred and Fiftieth Psalm."

BRUCTERI.—"After the Tencteri [on the Rhine] came, in former days, the Bructeri; but the general account now is, that the Chamavi and Angrivarii entered their settlements, drove them out and utterly exterminated them with the common help of the neighbouring tribes, either from hatred of their tyranny, or from the attractions of plunder, or from heaven's favourable regard for us. It did not even grudge us the spectacle of the conflict. More than 60,000 fell, not beneath the Roman arms and weapons, but, grander far, before our delighted eyes."—"The original settlements of the Bructeri, from which they were driven by the Chamavi and Angrivarii, seem to have been between the Rhine and the Ems, on either side of the Lippe. Their destruction could hardly have been so complete as Tacitus represents, as they are subsequently mentioned by Claudian."—Tacitus, *Minor works*, trans. by Church and Brodrick: Germany.—See also FRANKS; GERMANY: 14-16.

BRUEYS, François Paul, French admiral defeated by Nelson in the battle of the Nile. See FRANCE: 1798 (May-August).

BRUGES (Flemish *Brugge*), a town in Belgium and capital of West Flanders. By the seventh century Bruges, often called Flanders, was a city and the capital of the district of Flanders. In 1180 it lost its premier position to Ghent, but remained equal to the latter in wealth and power for several hundred years. The town became extremely prosperous during the fourteenth century when it was the financial center in the north as Venice was in the south.—See also NETHERLANDS: Map.

13th-15th centuries.—Prominence as trading center in the Middle Ages.—"The League [Hanseatic] was so successful that it obtained in the closing centuries of the Middle Ages a predominance in the commerce of northern Europe comparable to that of the Dutch and the English in later times. In the West it had to share its trade with other peoples. In this direction Bruges was the terminus of many of the voyages; at that port the Hanseatics met the Venetians, coming in the Flanders galleys, and secured also many wares from western Europe. . . . In the fourteenth century . . . Bruges . . . [was] the greatest market in northern Europe, vying even with Venice. Here could be found Scandinavians, Germans, French, Portuguese, Spaniards and Italians, exchanging the wares from different sources; a contemporary writer names 30 different countries, both Christian and Mohammedan, which fed the markets of Bruges with their commodities. The natives were content to let foreigners carry on the business of transportation; they stayed at home and grew rich from the wares, money and credit instruments which commerce brought to their doors."—C. Day, *History of Commerce*, pp. 105, 109.—See also FLANDERS: 13th century; HANSA TOWNS.

1302.—Massacre of the French.—"The Bruges Matins." See FLANDERS: 1299-1304.

1341.—Made the staple for English trade. See STAPLE.

1379-1381.—Hostilities with Ghent. See FLANDERS: 1379-1381.

1382.—Taken and plundered by the people of Ghent. See FLANDERS: 1382.

1400-1500—Decline of its commercial greatness.—“Partly because of this passive part which they [the people of Bruges] assumed, partly because of the practice of mediæval countries in diverting their trade from one place to another, the people of Bruges had but a precarious hold on their commerce, and lost it in the fifteenth century. The silting up of its harbors, making these unfit to hold the larger ships now coming into use, explains in part the decline of Bruges, but political forces were at work to divert commerce to another center. In the fifteenth century the place of Bruges as the great market of northern Europe was taken by Antwerp.”—*Ibid.*, p. 109.

1482-1488—At war with Maximilian. See NETHERLANDS: 1482-1493.

1584.—Submission to Philip of Spain. See NETHERLANDS: 1584-1585.

1745-1748.—Taken by the French, and restored. See BELGIUM: 1745; AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses.

1830.—Demands separation of Belgium and Holland. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.

1900.—The new canal from the city to the sea.—“On the 25th day of February, the inauguration of the new canal was celebrated at Bruges. . . . The canal runs from Zeebrugge, a port on the North Sea 14.29 miles north of Ostend, to the city of Bruges, a total distance of 7.46 miles. The work is now so far completed that vessels of a draft of 25 feet can enter and pass to the port of Bruges. The locks are fully completed, as well as three-fifths of the wharf wall at Bruges; when finished, the wharf wall will have a total length of 1,575 feet. The canal has a width of 72 feet 6 inches at the bottom and 229 feet 4 inches at the water level and will have, when completed, a depth of 26 feet 3 inches; this will also be the depth of the interior port and of the great basin of Bruges. Bruges is an old, inland deep-water port, having connection with the sea by canal from Ostend, but this only for vessels of every light draft.”—*United States Consular Reports, July, 1900, p. 346.*

1914-1918.—On Oct. 14, 1914, during the World War, the Germans under General von Beseler entered Bruges and held it until Oct. 10, 1918. The strategic position of the town enabled the Germans to hold Ostend and Zeebrugge as their submarine bases and allied efforts to recapture them were unavailing until the opening of the final Foch campaign when the town fell shortly before the armistice. See WORLD WAR: 1916: X. German rule, etc.; 1918: II. Western front: 9, 3; VIII. Aviation.

BRUGES, School of, a school of fifteenth century Flemish painters lead by the brothers Van Eyck. In fact, painting in Flanders began with this school.

BRUGES MATINS. See FLANDERS: 1299-1304.

BRULE INDIANS, a branch of the Dakota tribe. See SIOUAN FAMILY.

BRUM, Balthasar, Uruguayan statesman. See URUGUAY: 1919: Presidential election.

BRUMAIRE, month. See CHRONOLOGY: French revolutionary era and calendar; and FRANCE: 1793 (October).

Eighteenth of Brumaire. See FRANCE: 1799 (November).

BRUN, Johan Nordal (d. 1816), Norwegian writer of tragedies. See SCANDINAVIAN LITERATURE: 1750-1850.

BRUNDISIUM (Modern Brindisi), an important harbor town in what is now Calabria, Italy. It was developed by the Romans after their conquest in 266 B.C. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 282-275.

B.C. 49.—Flight of Pompeius before Cæsar. See ROME: Republic: B.C. 50-49.

B.C. 40.—The peace of Antony and Octavius.—The peace which Antony and Octavius were forced by their own soldiers to make at Brundisium, B.C. 40, postponed for ten years the final struggle between the two chief Triumvirs. For a much longer time it “did at least secure the repose of Italy. For a period of three hundred and fifty years, except one day’s fighting in the streets of Rome, from Rhægium to the Rubicon no swords were again crossed in war.” See MITHRIDATIC WARS; and also ROME: Republic: B.C. 31.

BRUNE, Guillaume Marie Anne (1763-1815), French marshal. In 1796 he fought in Italy; in 1798 he occupied Switzerland; in 1799 successfully defended Amsterdam against the duke of York; served later in Vendee and Italy; in 1807 commanded in North Germany; he was then in retirement until the Hundred Days (1815).—See also FRANCE: 1798-1799 (August-April).

BRUNEI, a portion of northwest Borneo, and a British protectorate. See BORNEO: Country; BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

BRUNEL, Isambard Kingdom (1806-1859), English railroad engineer. See RAILROADS: 1759-1881.

BRUNELLESCHI, Filippo (1379 - 1446), Florentine architect and sculptor; inspired by remains found at Rome, revived the Classic style of architecture; planned the dome of Santa Maria del fiore, the Pitti palace, and other famous buildings of his native city.

BRUNETIERE, Ferdinand (1849 - 1906), French man-of-letters and critic. In 1893 became editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and a member of the Academy. A reactionary in politics and a staunch Roman Catholic, he opposed modern materialism in thoroughly logical and systematic criticism.

BRUNETTO, Latini (c. 1210-1294), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 12th-14th centuries.

BRUNHILDE.—The heroine of the Volsung-saga and the Nibelungenlied (q. v.), who brings to pass the death of the hero Sigurd or Siegfried, out of revenge for his broken troth.

BRUNKEBURG, Battle of the (1471). See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1397-1527.

BRUNNABURGH, or Brunanburb, Battle of. See ENGLAND: 938.

BRUNO, Filippo Giordano (1548-1600), Italian philosopher and scientist. He upheld the Copernican system of astronomy, expounded pantheism, and denounced ecclesiastical abuses (see ASTRONOMY: 130-1600). Having left Italy to avoid persecution, he was treacherously decoyed to Venice, and betrayed to the Inquisition, by whose judgment he was burned at the stake for alleged heresy.

BRUNO, ST. (1030-1101), abbot, founder of Carthusian order. See ABBOT; CARTHUSIAN ORDER.

BRUNO OF TOUL (1002-1054). See LEO IX, pope.

BRUNONIAN STIMULATION. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 18th century: Brunonian system of stimulation.

BRUNSWICK, Charles William Ferdinand, duke of (1735-1806), German general. Ruling prince, 1780-1806; commander of the Prussian and Austrian army during its invasion of France in

1792; was commander of the Prussian army in the battle of Auerstädt, and mortally wounded October 14, 1806.—See also FRANCE: 1792 (September-December); GERMANY: 1806 (October), (October-December).

ALSO IN: H. B. Blum, *Ein Zeit und Charakterbild für das deutsche Volk*.

BRUNSWICK, Christian of. See CHRISTIAN OF BRUNSWICK.

BRUNSWICK, Ferdinand, Duke of. See FERDINAND, DUKE OF BRUNSWICK.

BRUNSWICK, City of: Origin and name.—In the tenth century, a prince named Bruno, younger son of the reigning duke of Bavaria, and grandson of the Emperor Henry the Fowler, received as his patrimony the country about the Ocker. "Having fixed his residence at a village established by Charlemagne on the banks of that river, it became known as the 'Viculus Brunonis,' and, when enlarged and formed into a city, afterwards gave its name to the principality of which it formed the capital."—Sir A. Halliday, *Annals of the house of Hanover*, v. 1, bk. 4.

13th century.—In the Hanseatic League. See HANSA TOWNS.

BRUNSWICK-LUNEBURG, or Hanover. See ENGLAND: 1714; HANOVER.

BRUNSWICK-WOLFENBUTTE L, or BRUNSWICK: Origin of the house and dukedom. See SAXONY: Old Duchy; and 1178-1183.

Guelf connection. See GUELFs AND GHIBELINES, and ESTE, HOUSE OF.

1543.—Expulsion of Duke Henry by the League of Smalcald. See GERMANY: 1533-1546.

1546.—Final separation from the Lüneburg or Hanoverian branch of house. See HANOVER: 1546.

1622.—Union with Baden and Bohemia against Tilly. See GERMANY: 1621-1623.

1806.—The Duke's dominions confiscated by Napoleon. See GERMANY: 1806 (October-December).

1807.—Absorbed in the kingdom of Westphalia. See GERMANY: 1807 (June-July).

1820.—Constitution granted. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.

1830.—Deposition of the duke. See GERMANY: 1819-1847.

1833.—Member of Zollverein. See TARIFF: 1833.

BRUNSWICKERS, troops in British army. See U. S. A.: 1776 (January-June): Engagement of hiring Hessians.

BRUZZI, Bruno (c. 1890-), Italian Communist. In 1920 was head of the Metal Workers' Union, and a prominent figure in the Italian labor unrest which involved in some cases the taking over of factories by the workmen.

BRUSA, or Broussa, a city in Asia Minor lying south of the sea of Marmora (see TURKEY: Map of Asia Minor); an ancient capital of the Ottoman Turks and the scene of fighting in many wars. For its fall in 1920, see GREECE: 1920.

BRUSH, Charles Francis (1849-), American inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric lighting: 1876.

BRUSLOFF, General. See BRUSILOV, ALEXIS ALEXIVICH.

BRUSSELS, the capital of Belgium and of the province of Brabant, situated on the Senne, about 70 miles from the sea (see NETHERLANDS: Map). It is the most important city in the kingdom and ranks among the finest cities of Europe by virtue of the remarkable number of splendid ancient buildings and the expansiveness and elegance of its

residential quarters. The city also holds a very prominent position in the commercial world, being famed for its production of lace, linen, leather, and woolen and cotton goods. During the nineteenth century the city went through a complete transformation. An old wall around the city was removed and the *quartier Léopold* was built. Some of the most beautiful boulevards, including the *Avenue de Louise* were constructed on the bed of the Senne, which at one time flowed through the lower part of the town. Brussels became a seaport with the development of its harbor which offers access to vessels drawing twenty-four feet. It enjoyed a very prosperous period under Charles V and Philip II.—See also CIVIC BEAUTY: Brussels; LIBRARIES: Modern: Belgium.

1555.—Abdication of Emperor Charles V. See NETHERLANDS: 1555-1558.

1577.—Union of the patriots. See NETHERLANDS: 1575-1577.

1585.—Surrender to the Spaniards. See NETHERLANDS: 1584-1585.

1695.—Bombardment by the French. See FRANCE: 1695-1696.

1705.—Strategic point in campaign of Marlborough. See NETHERLANDS: 1705.

1706.—Taken by Marlborough and the Allies. See NETHERLANDS: 1706-1707.

1746-1748.—Taken by the French and restored to Austria. See NETHERLANDS: 1746-1747; and AIX-LA-CHAPELLE: Congresses.

1794-1814.—Capital of the French department of Dyle, and alternated with The Hague as the capital of the Netherlands (1815-1830).

1815.—Battle of Waterloo. See FRANCE: 1815 (June).

1830.—Brussels was the center of the Belgian revolution and was made the capital of Belgium.

Dutch attack on city repelled. See BELGIUM: 1830-1832.

1853.—International statistical congress.—Work of Quetelet. See STATISTICS: Early records, etc.

1889-1900.—Riots in Chamber of Deputies. See BELGIUM: 1889-1900.

1898.—Sugar Conference. See SUGAR BOUNTIES.

1899.—General Act of Brussels. See AFRICA: 1890-1906.

1900.—Convention of Brussels. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1890-1906.

1902-1907.—Sugar Bounty Conference and Convention (1902) and Additional Act (1907). See SUGAR BOUNTY CONFERENCE.

1914.—International socialist bureau. See INTERNATIONAL: 1914.

1914-1918.—Brussels in the World War.—On August 10, 1914, the city was evacuated by the Belgian government. The German forces entered it the next day, and within twenty-four hours a burdensome war tax was levied upon the inhabitants. The city was the center of German administration for Belgium during the World War.

General Moritz F. F. von Bissing was at the head of the German military government in Brussels of the years 1914-1916. Edith Cavell, an English nurse and humanitarian who had tended German and Belgian wounded without partiality was executed in Brussels at 2 A. M. on October 12, 1915; by order of a German court martial. She was charged with having facilitated the escape of some of the wounded Belgian prisoners and despite the efforts of neutrals the German military governor of Belgium refused to stay the execution.—See also BELGIUM: 1914: World War; CAVELL, EDITH; WORLD WAR: and 1914: I. Western front:

c, 2; 1916: X. German rule, etc.: b; 1918: XI. End of the war: c, d.

1919.—International scientific conference. See INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH.

1920.—Conference of International Union of Academies. See INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES: Conference called by French academy.

1921.—Treaty giving Belgium economic control of Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1919-1921.

BRUSSELS CONFERENCES, 1890 and 1899. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1890-1906; BELGIAN CONGO: 1876-1890, 1885-1902.

BRUSSELS INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century.

BRUSSELS ROYAL ACADEMY OF FINE ART. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern period: Belgium.

BRUSILOV, Alexis Alexeivich (c. 1869-), Russian general. One of the best leaders in the World War; notably successful in 1914 and 1916 in the drive against the Austrians in Galicia; commander-in-chief in 1917 under the Kerensky revolutionary government; resigned when the Russian armies broke down under the influence of Bolshevism (see RUSSIA: 1917: Disintegrating propaganda), later seems to have received important command under the Bolsheviks. See also WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: b, c, 1; d, 1; d, 5; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; i, 6; 1916: I. Military situation: d, 2; III. Eastern front: a; a, 1; a, 3; 1917: III. Russia and the eastern front: j. BRUSILOV, lieutenant of the Russian navy. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1910-1916.

BRUSTHEM, Battle of (1467). See NETHERLANDS: 1466-1468.

BRUTII, ancient tribe of lower Italy. See SOMNITES.

BRUTUM FULMEN, a phrase, signifying a blind thrust, which was applied in a contemporary pamphlet by Francis Hotman to the bull of excommunication issued by Pope Sixtus V against Henry of Navarre, in 1585. See FRANCE: 1584-1589.

BRUTUS, Decimus Junius (B.C. 84-43), Roman who served under Julius Cæsar in Gaul and was made governor of Gaul by him. (See ROME: Republic: B.C. 44-42); with his relative Marcus Junius (see below), participated in the assassination of Cæsar (see ROME: Republic: B.C. 44); captured while escaping to Macedonia and put to death by Mark Antony (B.C. 43).

BRUTUS, Lucius Junius, one of first two consuls of Rome who expelled last of the Tarquins. See ROME: Ancient Kingdom: B.C. 753-570.

BRUTUS, Marcus Junius (c. 85-42 B.C.), Roman governor and prætor, and hero of Shakespeare's "Julius Cæsar"; supported Pompey in the Civil Wars; was pardoned by Cæsar and appointed governor of Cis-Alpine Gaul in 46 B.C.; one of the chief conspirators who assassinated Julius Cæsar in 44 B.C. After the death of Cæsar, he fled to the province of Macedonia and held it with Cassius against Mark Antony; was defeated at Philippi by Antony (42 B.C.) and fell by his own sword. ROME: Republic: B.C. 44-42.

BRYAN, Charles Page (1856-1918), American diplomat. Member Colorado house of representatives, 1880; member Illinois house of representatives, 1888-1897; minister to China, Brazil, Switzerland, Portugal and Belgium, 1897-1911; ambassador to Japan, 1911; resigned, 1912.

BRYAN, William Jennings (1860-), American orator and national party leader; member of the House of Representatives, 1891-1895; Democratic

candidate for president, 1896, 1900 and 1908; opposed to protective tariff and "imperialism"; favored free silver and prohibition (see U. S. A.: 1896: Platforms and nomination: National Silver Party, Peoples or Populist, Democratic; 1900: May-November; 1908: April-November). Secretary of state in the early part of President Wilson's administration; resigned in 1915 because he considered the President's notes to Germany too severe (see U. S. A.: 1913 (March); 1915 (May-September)).

Views on Imperialism.—Speech of acceptance of presidential nomination. See U. S. A.: 1900 (May-November).

Work in Democratic national campaign. See U. S. A.: 1912: Woodrow Wilson and the election.

Bryan-Wilson Treaties. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern Period: 1913.

Bryan-Chamorro Treaty. See NICARAGUA: 1913-1916.

BRYANT, William Cullen (1794-1878), American poet and man of letters. In 1826 became editor of the *Evening Post* in New York, where he set a high standard of journalism. "As a poet Bryant possesses great excellence within a strictly limited range. He is even more exclusively the poet of nature than Wordsworth; throughout his poetry warmth, human interest, and human passion are almost absent. He wrote but little verse, and never really surpassed his two early efforts, 'Thanatopsis' and the 'Ode to a Water-fowl'; yet though he did not advance, he maintained an exceedingly high standard until the last."—H. S. Pancoast, *Introduction to American literature*, p. 147.—See also AMERICAN LITERATURE: 1790-1860.

BRYCE, James, Viscount (1838-1922), distinguished British diplomat and historian (see HISTORY: 32); studied at Glasgow and Oxford and admitted to the bar in 1867, practised until 1882; 1870-1893 he was regius professor of civil law at Oxford; became a member of Parliament in 1880; represented South Aberdeen, 1885, as a Liberal and Home Ruler; under secretary of foreign affairs, 1886; member of the Liberal Ministry of 1892; chairman of the royal commission on secondary education, 1894; foreign member of Royal academies at Turin, Brussels, Naples (1896), St. Petersburg and Stockholm (1903); chief secretary for Ireland, 1905-1907 (see ENGLAND: 1905-1906); ambassador to the United States, 1907-1913 (see CANADA: 1908 (April); U. S. A.: 1909 (March): End of President Roosevelt's administration); chairman of the committee to investigate the Belgian atrocities, 1914-1915 (see BELGIUM: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: a); British member at the Hague Court. Among his famous publications are: *Holy Roman Empire* (1862); *American Commonwealth* (1888, revised in 1910); *University and Historical Addresses* (1913); *Essays and Addresses on the war*, (June, 1918). For his comment on Lichnowsky memorandum, see WORLD WAR: Diplomatic Background: 72.

BRYENNIUS, Nicephorus (1062-1137), Byzantine general and statesman. See TURKEY: 1063-1073.

BRYN MAWR COLLEGE, a college for higher education of women, located at Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania. It was founded in 1885. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Secondary education.

BRYTHONS, Welsh name for Britons. See BRITANNIA; CELTS: Early history.

BU HAMARA (nickname of Jelali Zarhoui), Moroccan pretender and leader of an insurrection. See MOROCCO: 1903-1904; 1909.

BUBASTIS.—"On the eastern side of the Delta [of the Nile], more than half-way from Memphis to Zoan, lay the great city of Pi-beseth, or Bubastis. Vast mounds now mark the site and preserve the name; deep in their midst lie the shattered fragments of the beautiful temple which Herodotus saw, and to which in his days the Egyptians came annually in vast numbers to keep the greatest festival of the year, the Assembly of Bast, the goddess of the place. Here, after the Empire had fallen, Shishak [Sheshonk] set up his throne, and for a short space revived the imperial magnificence of Thebes."—R. S. Poole, *Cities of Egypt*, ch. 10.

BUBBLE ACT. See COMMON LAW: 1710.

BUBONIC PLAGUE. See PLAGUE: Bubonic plague.

BUCCANEERS, a term applied to adventurers who harried the islands of the Caribbean sea, the Spanish main and the coast of North America during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. They affectionately termed themselves "brethern of the coast" but to their victims they were the "demons of the sea." "In the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the work of policing the seas was given over to the casual attention of the royal navies of Europe. When piracy became so flagrant that it dared enter the very ports, a few men-of-war, generally the older, battered, less sea-worthy vessels, would be detailed to suppress the pirates. These, after a sedate patrol of the coasts and the capture of a chance-met offender or so, would report the seas clear and lie up for repairs. Yet no sooner were they out of commission than the pests were back from the Scilly Isles, or the Orkneys, or the Canaries, or the desolate creeks and coves of Ireland, from any hiding-place or from the open sea, and the merchantmen must protect themselves again as best they could. Under such trifling restraint, piracy continued undiscouraged in European waters. In the West Indies it flourished openly, almost respectably. There the sea was broken by a multitude of islands affording safe anchorage and refuge, with wood, water, even provisions for the taking. There the colonies of the great European powers, grouped within a few days' sail of one another, were forever embroiled in current European wars which gave the stronger of them excuse for preying on the weaker and seemed to make legitimate the constant disorder of those seas. There trade was rich but settlement thin and defense difficult. There the idle, the criminal, and the poverty-stricken were sent to ease society in the Old World. By all these conditions piracy was fostered, and for two centuries throve ruinously, partly as an easy method of individual enrichment, partly as an instrument of practical politics."—V. Barbour, *Privateers and pirates of the West Indies* (*American Historical Review*, Apr., 1911, p. 529).—See also BAHAMA ISLANDS: 1492-1783; JAMAICA: 1655-1706; PACIFIC OCEAN: 1513-1764; and VIRGINIA: 1684-1699.

Privateering caused by rigid restrictions of the Spanish against European trade in the Caribbean sea.—Free granting of letters of marque and reprisal.—"Piracy in the Indies began with the beginnings of Spanish colonization, in the high-handed actions of traders, from all the European states, who ventured into the Caribbean in defiance of Spanish prohibitions. [Tortuga del Mar, a little island off the coast of Santo Domingo was the first headquarters of the buccaneers.] By the middle of the sixteenth century religious and patriotic zeal had become the justification of deliberate robbery of Spanish subjects by the Protestants of other nations. No catch-

word was ever truer than 'No peace beyond the Line' during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; in 1684 one finds the translator of *Buccaniers of America* still declaiming it with conviction: 'We know that no Peace could ever be established beyond the Line, since the first possession of the West-Indies by the Spaniards, till the burning of Panama.' It is probable that only a small portion of the violence committed in the Indies would square with the legal theory of piracy: generally speaking, the robbers were not *hostes humani generis* [enemies of the human race], but enemies of Spain; furthermore, the majority of them sailed under letters of marque or reprisal, which legally authorized them to seize Spanish ships and goods. These privateers' commissions were issued freely by belligerent powers to almost any ship-owner that applied for one, and as cruising for prizes was often a profitable speculation, a great many people did apply who were not concerned in the outcome of the war. In peace, letters of marque were an instrument of private redress, whereby a state authorized certain of its subjects who had received injury at the hands of foreigners to obtain compensation at the expense of the subjects of the offending state. Before letters of marque were granted, the injured party was obliged to have petitioned the sovereign of the aggressors for redress, and only in case of a refusal or unreasonable delay of justice was he permitted to take the law into his own hands. As an instrument of justice this system must have been most commonly a failure. The exact amount of the injury could seldom be determined, and, when it could, the measure of indemnity claimed was apt to be in generous excess. The practice was a survival of the medieval treatment of aliens, and flourished in the time when justice between the subjects of one state and those of another was a matter of diplomacy and not of law. In the Indies the last vestige of justice in the reprisal system disappeared, and English and Dutch, French and Portuguese peddled letters of marque freely to one another, and regularly to the disadvantage of Spain, the richest prey in those parts. Privateering became a profession having no necessary connection with the politics, commerce, or religion of those that practised it, though all of these motives continued to be used to disguise individual cupidity. By the Spaniard, since it mattered little by what rope he were hanged, privateers were regarded as pirates, as in act they were; captured privateers were treated no more leniently than the robbers who could show no papers. Letters of marque were desirable as a protection from the interference of neutrals, and because they enabled the holder to bring his prize into port and sell it, not because they minimized the danger to his life."—*Ibid.*, pp. 529-531.—See also AMERICA: 1630-1700.

French buccaneers, the first in the Indies.—Huguenot pirates.—French settlement in Florida destroyed by Menendez.—"The French appear to have been the first piratical invaders of the Indies. It is possible that the close commercial relations between Spain and Portugal first brought the French overseas to trade in Brazil, whence it was no far step, either morally or geographically, to plundering raids in the Indies. As early as 1513, the Casa de Contratacion at Seville was obliged to provide two caravels to protect the coasts of Cuba. In 1521 the necessity of defending the lengthening coast-line of the Spanish colonies on the Main as well as among the islands led to the fitting out of a line of *guarda costas* for constant service in those seas. The interminable

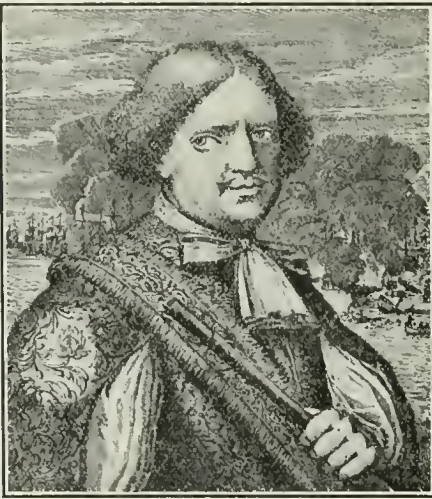
wars of Francis I and Charles V gave French seamen impulse and excuse for a long series of marauding expeditions by land as well as by sea. A Milanese, Girolamo Benzoni, who has left an account of his travels in the Indies between 1541 and 1556, tells a picturesque story of a French corsair who, in 1538, extorted a ransom of seven hundred ducats from the town of Havana, and, being chased by three Spanish ships, made prize of all three, then returned to Havana, and compelled another ransom to atone for the indignity of pursuit. The discovery of the mines of Potosi in 1545 and the astounding rumors of the treasure Spain reaped from them, made the security of ships and towns in the Indies still more precarious. From this time, too, the Huguenot seamen from Rochelle and Dieppe began their piratical cruises along the Main and among the islands. These fanatics were the most ruthless and cruel of all the free-booters that sailed those seas. They cut down their prisoners like dogs or devoted them to a slow torture in which they lingered miserably for days; the towns that fell into their hands were burned after being pillaged. By the middle of the sixteenth century nearly all the important coast settlements of Spanish America had been sacked at least once. Laudonnière's Huguenot colony in Florida was regarded by Menendez, who destroyed it, as an attempt to establish headquarters conveniently close to Spanish dominions, whence their pirates could pounce upon the Mexican fleet before it reached Havana, or even seize upon Cuba. Laudonnière himself tells of the difficulty he had in restraining his soldiers who 'would enterprise somewhat against the King of Spains Subjects.' His soldiers reasoned that 'if their enterprise should bee disliked withall in France, they should bee always able, by reason of the great wealth that they should gaine, to retire themselves into Italy, until the heat were overpassed, and that in the meane season some warre would fall out, which would cause all this to be quite forgotten.'"—*Ibid.*, pp. 531-532.

English buccaneers.—Activities of English privateers against Spain in the Elizabethan period.—Characteristics of the later sixteenth century privateers.—Sir Henry Morgan.—"That the English were not as prompt as the French in collecting a share of the Spanish treasure was not due to a more scrupulous conscience as regards piracy. Throughout the Middle Ages the Cinque Ports had swarmed with pirates who took toll of the commerce that passed through the Narrow Seas, sometimes as free-lance auxiliaries to the royal fleet in time of war, but quite as often in unmitigated piracy, not caring whether the prize were enemy, ally, or Englishman. In the first half of the sixteenth century, however, the English pirates had not the provocation to extend their sphere of activities to the Indies which the wars of Francis I. offered the French corsairs. In these wars England was as a general thing on the side of the Empire and against France. Commercially the relations of England and Spain had been amicably adjusted on the basis of mutual freedom of trade by the treaty of 1515. The first English vessels to enter the Caribbean came with peaceable intentions of trade and discovery, and it was in the effort to break down the Spanish monopoly of trade in the New World that the English finally took up the rougher game already begun by the French. The voyages of John Hawkins in 1562, 1564, and 1567, mark the transition in England's relations with Spain from the peace and alliance of the reigns of Henry VIII and Mary to the almost fanatic enmity of the time of Elizabeth. Hawkins's disregard of the prohibitions from Ma-

drid that met him on his second trading voyage to the Indies, and again and more stringently in 1567, and his warlike methods of forcing trade, brought about a definite rupture of the peace in his battle with a Spanish fleet in the harbour of Vera Cruz, which in turn led to the ample protracted reprisals of Francis Drake [see AMERICA: 1572-1580; CARACAS: 1595] and lesser privateers and pirates, and hastened the inevitable war with Spain. The recognized warfare of 1588 and the defeat of the Armada left the way to the Indies open, and English privateers in large numbers, nobles, courtiers, merchants, and ship-owners, crossed the Atlantic to seek easy fortunes for, themselves, and, more or less incidentally, to win glory in serving their country. The galleons that carried the royal treasure to Spain sailed in fleets, protected from privateers by heavy armament and escorted by specially provided men-of-war, but the luckless islands and coast towns were not valuable enough for such costly protection and continued the prey of every handful of ragamuffins that set upon them. The inhabitants had formed the habit as early as Hawkins's second voyage of scuttling away to the forests whenever a strange sail appeared off their coasts. This inertness of the Spanish colonists, their inability to defend themselves from attack, is a monotonously constant feature in the history of the Indies. Their assailants were usually few and armed baphazard, relying for success on the demoralizing effect of a surprise, and the Spaniards after close on a century of experience were always surprised and always demoralized. The death of Elizabeth and the conclusion of peace with Spain in 1604 closed English ports to Spanish prizes, and they remained closed during the reign of James. Throughout those endless, futile negotiations of the Spanish marriage the king's hand was heavy on such free-booters as fell in the way of his ships, and in final emphasis of his point of view he sent to execution Sir Walter Raleigh, one of the last of the Elizabethan sea-dogs 'flesh'd in Spanish blood and ruine.' In order to find a market for Spanish prizes from the Indies it became necessary for unreconstructed British seamen to seek authorization from some other power. Some asked for letters of marque from James's luckless son-in-law, the King of Bohemia. Perhaps he saw the irony of inviting trouble in the West Indies when so much lay close at hand, for the letters were not forthcoming. In another quarter the English privateers received more encouragement. Spain was still trying to reduce to obedience the revolted Netherlands, and it is probable that many Englishmen served in Dutch privateers or themselves obtained letters of marque from the States General during the reign of James. The Hollanders had made themselves redoubtable in the Indies after the fashion of the Elizabethan privateers in the last decade of the sixteenth century, and until the Peace of Westphalia their freebooters were a menace to Spanish commerce and the royal treasure.

"[A typical buccaneer of this period was Sir Henry Morgan who confined his attacks to Spanish towns and vessels and was given more or less recognition by the enemies of Spain.] Morgan was the son of a Welsh farmer. As a boy he had run away to Bristol and there indentured himself in return for transportation to Barbados. After the expiration of his term of servitude, he went to Jamaica and drifted into privateering. His good fortune was such that in a short time he became captain and part owner of his vessel, and acquired a repu-

tation among his fellows for daring and success. When Mansvelt was assembling the fleet intended for Curaçao, Morgan had just returned from a plundering expedition along the Mexican coast, and at Mansvelt's invitation joined the fleet as vice-admiral, taking part later in the seizure of Providence. In 1668 Morgan received a commission from Governor Modyford 'to draw together the English privateers and take prisoners of the Spanish nation,' the pretext being the ever-current rumors of an intended invasion of Jamaica by the Spaniards. According to Morgan's own report of his adventure, drawn up afterwards at Modyford's request, he and his fleet of ten sail and five hundred men were driven by storms upon the south keys of Cuba, and, being near starvation, landed to buy provisions. Meeting some French in like case, the English privateers joined them in a march across the island after the frightened inhabitants, who seem to have expected the descent. Reaching the north coast, the buccaneers attacked Puerto



SIR HENRY MORGAN

From Esquemeling's book, "The Bucaniers of America"

Principe, and, after an unusually spirited defense by the Spanish, took the town. Morgan's account emphasized the preparations he found in progress there for the conquest of Jamaica, and merely mentions that on the Spaniards' entreaty they forbore to fire the town or bring away prisoners, but on delivery of one thousand beeves released all. Esquemeling [a Dutchman who served with Morgan and to whom we are indebted for a fairly accurate account of buccaneering. His story was translated into English and French and forms the basis for Captain Charles Johnson's histories of pirates written in the eighteenth century], however, describes the way in which the captives were tormented to force them to reveal the whereabouts of the wealth of the town, and places the value of the booty at fifty thousand pieces of eight, which, he adds, was too small a sum to pay the buccaneers' debts at Jamaica, and therefore they were forced to attempt Porto Bello.

"Porto Bello was, next to Panama and Cartagena, the most important town in Spanish America, being the great market where European goods brought over by the fleet were exchanged for the products of the colonies. For the fortnight of the fair it was a great city, but during the rest of the year it was almost deserted, the climate making it

not a desirable place of residence. In size it was nothing more than a village; however, the warehouses where the colonial officials and merchants stored their goods made the town rich prize at any time, and its seizure would be an insult that Spain could not overlook as she had the impertinences of the privateers at sea. The French buccaneers refused to be party to the new enterprise, so the fleet that sailed for the isthmus was entirely English. Landing under cover of darkness they surprised the town at three o'clock in the morning of June 26, 1668, and, as Morgan explains, 'seeing that they could not refresh themselves in quiet,' they stormed and took two of the castles that guarded the entrance to the port, and the third surrendered. This left the town at the mercy of the buccaneers, and they remained in it, plundering and carousing, until early in August. The president of Panama sent a force against them, but the buccaneers were not too demoralized to beat back the Spaniards, and wrung from the wretched citizens the full ransom of one hundred thousand pieces of eight, which they demanded for the town and prisoners before setting sail. Then, according to Esquemeling, occurred an incident that calls to mind some of the adventures of Francis Drake: 'The President of Panama; by these transactions, was brought into an extrem admiration, considering that four hundred men had been able to take such a great City, with so many strong Castles. . . . This astonishment was so great, that it occasion'd him, for to be satisfied herein, to send a Messenger unto Captain Morgan, desiring him to send him some small pattern of those Arms wherewith he had taken with such violence so great a City. Captain Morgan received this Messenger very kindly, and treated him with great civility. Which being done, he gave him a Pistol and a few small Bullets of lead, to carry back unto the President his Master, telling him withal, He desired him to accept that slender pattern of the Arms wherewith he had taken Puerto Velo, and keep them for a twelve month; after which time, he promised to come to Panama and fetch them away. The Governour of Panama returned the Present very soon unto Captain Morgan, giving him thanks for the favour of lending him such Weapons as he needed not, and withal sent him a Ring of Gold, with this Message, That he desired him not to give himself the labour of coming to Panama, as he had done to Puerto Velo; for he did certifie unto him, he should not speed so well as he had done here.'—*Ibid.*, pp. 532-535.—See also COSTA RICA: 1666-1727.

Between the period of the partially legalized privateers of the type of Sir Henry Morgan, and that of the notorious Blackbeard there existed a transition stage represented by men like Captain Kyd. The last pirates acquired the name of "marooners" from their practice of leaving their victims on desert islands.

BUCENTAUR, a state galley carrying the doge of Venice in the annual celebration, on Ascension day, of the wedding of the Adriatic with Venice. See VENICE: 14th century.

BUCHANAN, Franklin (1800-1874), American admiral in command of a Confederate force in Mobile Bay. See U. S. A.: 1864 (August: Alabama).

BUCHANAN, Sir George William (b. 1854), British ambassador at Petrograd, 1910-1918, reporting on the situation in Russia preceding the World War and later the mobilization of troops and meeting of the Ministers; appointed ambassador to Rome, 1910. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 23; 33.

BUCHANAN, George (1506-1582), Scotch historian and scholar. See **HISTORY**: 23.

BUCHANAN, James (1701-1868), fifteenth president of the United States. Private in the War of 1812; member of Congress, 1821-1831; supported Jackson for president in 1828; ambassador to Russia, 1831-1833; United States senator from Pennsylvania, 1834-1845; secretary of state under President Polk, 1845-1849; minister to Great Britain, 1853-1856; president, 1857-1861.—See also **U. S. A.**: 1852; Seventeenth presidential election; 1856: Eighteenth presidential election; 1860 (December): President Buchanan's surrender.

Troubles with Mormons in Utah. See **UTAH**: 1857-1859.

BUCHANAN, William I. (d. 1909), American delegate to Second and Third International Conferences of American Republics. See **AMERICAN REPUBLICS**, **INTERNATIONAL UNION OF**: 1901-1902; 1906.

Diplomatic service in Venezuela. See **VENEZUELA**: 1907-1909.

Commissioner plenipotentiary to the Second Peace Conference. See **HAGUE CONFERENCE**: 1907.

BUCHAREST, or **Bukharest**, in Rumanian Bucuresci ("city of delight") the important commercial center and capital of Rumania. It is situated in a swampy plain on the banks of the Dimbovitza, a fact which explains the disastrous plagues which visited Bucharest periodically. The most serious plagues occurred in the years 1718, 1738, 1793 and in 1813 when 70,000 inhabitants died in six weeks. In 1866 the sanitary conditions of the city became improved with the installation of a sewerage and a pure water system. Bucharest is one of Europe's important educational centers. The city possesses schools for the study of sciences, commerce and art, training colleges for surgeons and engineers, a university which was founded in 1864, and colleges for the study of theology, philosophy, literature, law, medicine and pharmacy. These schools and colleges encourage scholastic endeavor by requiring students to pay only for their board. Bucharest, during the World War, fell into the hands of the Germans on December 6, 1916. See **RUMANIA**: 1916; **WORLD WAR**: 1916: V. **Balkan theater**: c, 5; c, 6, iv.

BUCHAREST, Treaty of (1812). See **SERBIA**: 1804-1817; **TURKEY**: 1789-1812.

BUCHAREST, Treaty of (1913), terminating the second Balkan war, signed Aug. 10, 1913. See **BALKAN STATES**: 1913; **BULGARIA**: 1913: **Second Balkan War**; **RUMANIA**: 1912-1913; **SERBIA**: 1909-1913.

BUCHAREST, Treaty of (1918). By the middle of January, 1917, the Austro-German forces under Mackensen and Falkenhayn had conquered most of Rumania. The following treaty was imposed upon that country and signed on May 7, 1918:

"CLAUSE 1.—RE-ESTABLISHMENT OF PEACE AND FRIENDSHIP.

"Article 1.—Germany, Austria-Hungaria, Bulgaria and Turkey, on the one hand, and Rumania on the other, declare the state of war ended and that the contracting parties are determined henceforth to live together in peace and friendship.

"Article 2.—Diplomatic and Consular relations between the contracting parties will be resumed immediately after the ratification of the peace treaty. The admission of Consuls will be reserved for a future agreement.

"CLAUSE 2.—DEMOBILIZATION OF THE RUMANIAN FORCES.

"Article 3.—The demobilization of the Rumanian Army, which is now proceeding, will immediately after peace is signed be carried out according to the prescriptions contained in Articles 4 and 7.

"Article 4.—The regular military bureau, the supreme military authorities and all the military institutions will remain in existence as provided by the last peace budget. The demobilization of divisions Eleven to Fifteen will be continued as stipulated in the treaty of Focsani signed on March 8 last. Of the Rumanian divisions One to Ten, the two infantry divisions now employed in Bessarabia, including the Jaeger battalions which are the remnants of dissolved Jaeger divisions, and including two cavalry divisions of the Rumanian Army, will remain on a war footing until the danger arising from the military preparations now being carried on in the Ukraine by the Central Powers ceases to exist.

"The remaining eight divisions, including the staff, shall be maintained in Moldavia at the reduced peace strength. Each division will be composed of four infantry regiments, two cavalry regiments, two field artillery regiments and one battalion of pioneers, together with the necessary technical and transport troops. The total number of the infantry of the eight divisions shall not exceed 20,000 men; the total number of cavalry shall not exceed 3,200; the entire artillery of the Rumanian Army, apart from the mobile divisions, shall not exceed 9,000 men. The divisions remaining mobilized in Bessarabia must, in case of demobilization, be reduced to the same peace standard as the eight divisions mentioned in Article 4.

"All other Rumanian troops which did not exist in peace time will, at the end of their term of active military service, remain as in peace time. Reservists shall not be called up for training until a general peace has been concluded.

"Article 5.—Guns, machine guns, small arms, horses and cars and ammunition, which are available owing to the reduction or the dissolution of the Rumanian units, shall be given into the custody of the Supreme Command of the Allied (Teutonic) Forces in Rumania until the conclusion of a general peace. They shall be guarded and superintended by Rumanian troops under supervision of the Allied command. The amount of ammunition to be left to the Rumania army in Moldavia is 250 rounds for each rifle, 2,500 for each machine gun and 150 for each gun. The Rumanian army is entitled to exchange unserviceable material at the depots of the occupied region, in agreement with the Allied Supreme Command, and to demand from the depots the equivalent of the ammunition spent. The divisions in Rumania which remain mobilized will receive their ammunition requirements on a war basis.

"Article 6.—The demobilized Rumanian troops to remain in Moldavia until the evacuation of the occupied Rumanian regions. Excepted from this provision are military bureaus and men mentioned in Article 5, who are required for the supervision of the arms and material laid down in these regions. The men and reserve officers who have been demobilized can return to the occupied regions. Active and formerly active officers require, in order to return to these regions, permission of the chief army command of the allied forces.

"Article 7.—A General Staff officer of the allied powers, with staff, will be attached to the Rumanian Commander in Chief in Moldavia, and a Rumanian General Staff officer, with staff, will be at-

tached as liaison officer to the chief command of the allied forces in the occupied Rumanian districts.

"Article 8.—The Rumanian naval forces will be left to their full complement and equipment, in so far as their crews, in accordance with Article 9, are not to be limited until affairs in Bessarabia are cleared, whereupon these forces are to be brought to the usual peace standard. Excepted herefrom are river forces required for the purposes of river police and naval forces on the Black Sea, employed for the protection of maritime traffic and the restoration of mine-free fairways. Immediately after the signing of the peace treaty these river forces will, on a basis of special arrangement, be placed at the disposal of the authorities intrusted with river policing. The Nautical Black Sea Commission will receive the right of disposing of the naval forces on the Black Sea, and a naval officer is to be attached to this commission in order to restore connection therewith.

"Article 9.—All men serving in the army and navy, who in peace time were employed in connection with harbors or shipping, shall, on demobilization, be the first to be dismissed in order that they may find employment in their former occupations.

"CLAUSE 3—CESSIONS OF TERRITORY OUTLINED IN ARTICLES 10, 11, AND 12.

"Article 10.—With regard to the Dobrudja, which, according to Paragraph 1 of the peace preliminaries, is to be added by Rumania, the following stipulations are laid down: (a) Rumania cedes again to Bulgaria, with frontier rectifications, Bulgaria territory that fell to her by virtue of the peace treaty concluded at Bucharest in 1913. . . . A commission composed of representatives of the allied powers shall shortly after the signature of the treaty lay down and demarcate on the spot the new frontier line in the Dobrudja. The Danube frontier between the regions ceded to Bulgaria and Rumania follows the river valley. Directly after the signature of the treaty further particulars shall be decided upon regarding the definition of the valley. Thus the demarcation shall take place in Autumn, 1918, at low water level.

"(b) Rumania cedes to the allied powers that portion of the Dobrudja up to the Danube north of the new frontier line described under Section A; that is to say, between the confluence of the stream and the Black Sea, to the St. George branch of the river. The Danube frontier between the territory ceded to the allied powers and Rumania will be formed by the river valley. The allied powers and Rumania will undertake to see that Rumania shall receive an assured trade route to the Black Sea, by way of Tchernavoda and Constantza (Kustendje)."

"Article 11 says that Rumania agrees that the frontiers shall undergo rectification in favor of Austria-Hungary as indicated on the map, and continues:

"Two mixed commissions, to be composed of equal numbers of representatives of the powers concerned are immediately after the ratification of the peace treaty to fix a new frontier line on the spot.

"Article 12.—Property in the ceded regions of Rumania passes without indemnification to the States which acquire these regions. Those States to which the ceded territories fall shall make agreements with Rumania on the following points: First, with regard to the allegiance of the Rumanian inhabitants of these regions and the manner in which they are to be accorded the right of option;

secondly, with regard to the property of communes split by the new frontier; thirdly and fourthly, with regard to administrative and juridical matters; fifthly, with regard to the effect of the changes of territory on dioceses."

CLAUSE 4 deals with war indemnities, of which Article 13 declares that the contracting parties mutually renounce indemnification of their war costs, and special arrangements are to be made for the settlement of damages caused by the war.

CLAUSE 5 relates to the evacuation of occupied territories, embodied in Articles 14 to 23, summed up as follows:

"The occupied Rumanian territories shall be evacuated at times to be later agreed upon. The strength of the army of occupation shall, apart from the formation employed in economic functions, not surpass six divisions. Until the ratification of the treaty the present occupation administration continues, but immediately after the signature of the treaty the Rumanian Government has the power to supplement the corps of officials by such appointments or dismissals as may seem good to it.

"Up to the time of evacuation, a civil official of the occupation administration shall always be attached to the Rumanian Ministry in order to facilitate so far as possible the transfer of the civil administration to the Rumanian authorities. The Rumanian authorities must follow the directions which the commanders of the army of occupation consider requisite in the interest of the security of the occupied territory, as well as the security, maintenance, and distribution of their troops.

"For the present, railways, posts and telegraphs will remain under military administration and will, in accordance with proper agreements, be at the disposal of the authorities and population. As a general rule, the Rumanian courts will resume jurisdiction in the occupied territories to their full extent. The allied powers will retain jurisdiction, as well as the power of police supervision, over those belonging to the army of occupation. Punishable acts against the army of occupation will be judged by its military tribunals, and also offenses against the orders of the occupation administration. Persons can only return to the occupied territories in proportion as the Rumanian Government provides for their security and maintenance.

"The army of occupation's right to requisition is restricted to corn, peas, beans, fodder, wool, cattle, and meat from the products of 1918, and, further, to timber, oil and oil products, always observing proper regard for an orderly plan of procuring these commodities as well as satisfying the home needs of Rumania.

"From the ratification of the treaty onwards the army of occupation shall be maintained at the expense of Rumania. A separate agreement will be made with regard to the details of the transfer of the civil administration, as well as with regard to the withdrawal of the regulations of the occupation administration. Money spent by the allied powers in the occupied territories on public works, including industrial undertakings, shall be made good on their transfer. Until the evacuation these undertakings shall remain under the military administration.

"CLAUSE 6—REGULATIONS REGARDING NAVIGATION ON THE DANUBE.

"Article 24—Rumania shall conclude a new Danube Navigation Act with Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey, regulating the legal

position on the Danube from the point where it becomes navigable, with due regard for the prescriptions subsequently set forth under Sections a to d, and on conditions that the prescriptions under Section b shall apply equally for all parties to the Danube act. Negotiations regarding the new Danube Navigation Act shall begin at Munich as soon as possible after the ratification of the treaty.

"The sections follow: (a) Under the name Danube Mouth Commission, the European Danube Commission shall, under conditions subsequently set forth, be maintained as a permanent institution, empowered with the privileges and obligations hitherto appertaining to it for the river from Braila downwards, inclusive of this port. The conditions referred to provide, among other things, that the commission shall henceforth only comprise representatives of States situated on the Danube or the European coasts of the Black Sea. The commission's authority extends from Braila downwards to the whole of the arms and mouth of the Danube and adjoining parts of the Black Sea.

"(b) Rumania guarantees to the ships of the other contracting parties free navigation on the Rumanian Danube, including the harbors. Rumania shall levy no toll on ships or rafts of the contracting parties and their cargoes merely for the navigation of the river. Neither shall Rumania, in the future, levy on the river any tolls, save those permitted by the new Danube Navigation Act."

The collapse of Bulgaria at the end of September and the consequent evacuation of Serbia by the Central Powers heartened the Rumanians. They ignored the above treaty and re-entered the war on the side of the Allies.—See also RUMANIA: 1916-1918.

BUCHNER, Edvard (1860-), German chemist, granted the Nobel prize in 1907. See NOBEL PRIZES: Chemistry: 1907.

BUCHNER, Max (1840-), governor of the Cameroons. See CAMEROONS: Occupation by Germany.

BUCK STOVE AND RANGE BOYCOTT (1906) see BOYCOTT: 1897-1920; and LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1881-1916.

BUCKHOLDT, Beukels, or Bockelszoon, Johann (1508-1535). Dutch Anabaptist fanatic. See ANABAPTISTS OF MÜNSTER.

BUCKINGHAM, George Villiers, 1st duke of (1592-1628), English politician and courtier. In 1617, became privy counselor; 1623, accompanied Charles I to Spain; 1624-1628, favorite minister of Charles I, who upheld his policies against popular disapproval. Assassinated by John Felton, 1628.—See ENGLAND: 1628.

BUCKINGHAM, William Alfred (1804-1875), Connecticut's civil war governor. See CONNECTICUT: 1861-1865.

BUCKINGHAM PALACE, the London residence of the English sovereign, situated at the western end of St. James's park. By an act of Parliament in 1775 it was presented to Queen Charlotte, from which it derives its name of the "Queen's house." George IV had it remodeled, and Queen Victoria, who occupied it in 1837, added the eastern façade and ball-room. Of especial note are the grand staircase, the throne-room, and the state ball-room. The picture gallery contains a number of old and modern masterpieces; and a priceless collection of French buhl and other furniture is also to be found there.—See also ST. JAMES, PALACE AND COURT OF.

BUCKLE, Henry Thomas (1821-1862), Eng-

lish historian, author of "History of Civilization." See HISTORY: 3; 33.

BUCKNER, Simon Bolivar (1823-1914), American soldier and politician. Served in the Mexican War under General Scott; served conspicuously in the Civil War as a general in the Confederate army; governor of Kentucky, 1887-1891; candidate for vice-president on National (sound money) Democratic ticket, with J. M. Palmer.

BUCKSHOT WAR, the name given to riots at Harrisburg, Pa., December, 1838, growing out of a contest over the election of certain members to the legislature from Philadelphia. The governor called out the militia, and General Patterson's order to his men provided for "thirteen rounds of buckshot cartridges," hence the name "Buckshot war."

BUCKTAILS, the name from 1818 to 1828 applied to the Tammany Society of New York City, the members of that organization wearing a buck's tail in the hat as a badge. They were opposed to Clinton's canal policy, and the name was finally applied to all anti-Clintonian Democrats. In 1828 they became the Democratic party of the state. See NEW YORK: 1817-1819.

BUCURESCI. See BUCHAREST.

BUZACZ, a town in eastern Galicia about seventy miles southeast of Lemberg; taken by the Russians in their 1916 offensive against the Austrians during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: III. Eastern front: a, 2.

BUDA, a city of Hungary, situated on the right bank of the Danube, southeast of Vienna. It was incorporated into a single municipality with O-Buda, Pest and Köbánya in 1872. See BUDAPEST.

BUDAPEST, the capital and largest city of Hungary. In 1872 it was incorporated as a single municipality, being a union of Buda with Pest and two other towns situated on both banks of the Danube, and joined by six bridges. In the second century the Romans founded a colony on the right bank of the river, remaining until 376. After this date the site was successively occupied by Huns, Ostrogoths, Avars, Slavs and Magyars, the last arriving at the end of the tenth century. Christianity was introduced soon after. (See HUNGARY: 896). In 1361 Buda became the capital of Hungary. The growth of Buda and Pest has been remarkable, owing to Pest becoming one of the world's greatest flour-milling centers, with other extensive industries and a large trade. In 1800 the joint population was but 55,000; in 1872, at the time of union, it was about 300,000; in 1921 it was about 1,000,000. As the capital of a greatly diminished Hungary, the commercial prosperity of the city will suffer to some extent, but it will retain its greatness as the center of Magyar culture.

Plan of the city. See CIVIC BEAUTY: Budapest. 1241.—Destruction of Pest by the Mongols. See MONGOLIA: 1229-1294.

1526.—Taken and plundered by the Turks. See HUNGARY: 1487-1526.

1529-1567.—Taken by the Turks.—Besieged by the Austrians.—Occupied by the sultan.—Becomes the seat of a pasha. See HUNGARY: 1526-1567.

1686.—Recovery from the Turks. See HUNGARY: 1683-1687.

1849.—Siege and capture by the Hungarians. See AUSTRIA: 1848-1849; HUNGARY: 1847-1849.

1896.—Celebration of millennium. See HUNGARY: 1806.

1919.—Occupied by Rumania. See HUNGARY: 1919-1920.

BUDDHA.—"Gautama, surnamed the Buddha, because he claimed to have attained *bodhi*, or supreme knowledge, the secret of existence, was the younger contemporary of Mahavira. His father, Suddhodhana, was a prince or nobleman in the small town of Kapilavastu, situated in the territory of the Sakya clan, which took rank among the Kshatriyas. Hence he is often called Sakya-muni, or the Sakya sage. The land of the Sakyas was the narrow strip of country between the Rapti river and the mountains, now mostly included in the Nepalese Tarai, and lying to the north of the Basti District. The legends dwell with much play of imagination on the manner in which the young prince became oppressed by sadness and lost all desire for the delights of a court. He became convinced that existence is misery, leading to old age, disease, and death, and sought an escape from the endless circle of rebirth. Sitting under a tree near Gaya, he tried to win salvation by the severest penance, but found no peace. At last he saw the light, put away penance as vanity, and, going to Benares, preached to a few disciples his three great principles that 'all the constituents of being are transitory, are misery, and are lacking in an ego, or permanent self (*atman*).' His philosophy was based on those doctrines, but as a moralist he taught a lofty system of practical ethics, impressing on men the necessity for personal striving after holiness, and laying special stress on the virtues of truthfulness, reverence to superiors, and respect for animal life. Like Mahavira, he wandered for the rest of his life with his disciples through Magadha and the neighbouring kingdoms, and, after a ministry of forty-five years, passed away at the age of eighty at Kusinagara, a small town probably situated near Tribeni Ghat, at the confluence of the Little Rapti with the Gandak. The date of his death is uncertain, but there is good reason for believing that the event happened in or about 487 B. C."—V. A. Smith, *Oxford student's history of India*, pp. 32, 33.

Compared to Christ as an historical figure. See **JESUS CHRIST:** Christ and Buddha.

Legend of Buddha's youth.—"The young prince [Gautama] shunned the sports of his playmates, and spent his time alone in nooks of the palace garden. When he reached manhood, however, he showed himself brave and skilful with his weapons. He won his wife by a contest at arms over all rival chiefs. For a time he forgot the religious thoughts of his boyhood in the enjoyment of the world. But in his drives through the city he was struck by the sights of old age, disease, and death which met his eye; and he envied the calm of a holy man, who seemed to have raised his soul above the changes and sorrows of his life. After ten years, his wife bore to him an only son; and Gautama, fearing lest this new tie should bind him too closely to the things of earth, retired about the age of thirty to a cave in the jungles. The story is told how he turned away from the door of his wife's lamp-lit chamber, denying himself even a parting caress of his new-born babe, lest he should wake the sleeping mother, and galloped off into the darkness. After a gloomy night ride, he sent back his one companion, the faithful charioteer, with his horse and jewels to his father. Having cut off his long warrior hair, and exchanged his princely raiment for the rags of a poor passer-by, he went on alone a homeless beggar. This giving up of princely pomp, and of loved wife and new-born son, is the Great Renunciation which forms a favourite theme of the Buddhist Scriptures."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, p. 74.

Legend of Buddha's forest life, aet. 29 to 35.—"For a time Gautama studied under two Brahman hermits, in Patna District. They taught him that the peace of the soul was to be reached only by mortifying the body. He then buried himself deeper in the jungles near Gaya, and during six years wasted himself by austerities in company with five disciples. The temple of Buddha-Gaya marks the site of his long penance. But instead of earning peace of mind by fasting and self-torture, he sank into a religious despair, during which the Buddhist Scriptures affirm that the enemy of mankind, Mara, wrestled with him in bodily shape. Torn with doubts as to whether all his penance availed anything, the haggard hermit fell senseless to the earth. When he recovered, the mental agony had passed. He felt that the path to salvation lay not in self-torture in mountain-jungles or caves, but in preaching a higher life to his fellowmen. He gave up penance. His five disciples, shocked by this, forsook him; and he was left alone in the forest. The Buddhist Scriptures depict him as sitting serene under a fig-tree, while demons whirled round him with flaming weapons. From this temptation in the wilderness he came forth with his doubts for ever laid at rest, seeing his way clear, and henceforth to be known as Buddha, literally 'The Enlightened.'—*Ibid.*, p. 75.

Public teaching of Buddha, aet. 35 to 80.—"Buddha began his public teaching in the Deer-Forest, near the great city of Benares. Unlike the Brahmans, he preached, not to one or two disciples of the sacred caste, but to the people. His first converts were common men, and among the earliest were women. After three months he had gathered around him sixty disciples, whom he sent forth to the neighbouring countries with these words: 'Go ye now, and preach the most excellent law.' Two-thirds of each year he spent as a wandering preacher. The remaining four months, or the rainy season, he abode at some fixed place, teaching the people who flocked around his little dwelling in the bamboo grove. His five old disciples, who had forsaken him in the time of his sore temptation in the wilderness, now came back to their master. Princes, merchants, artisans, Brahmans and hermits, husbandmen and serfs, noble ladies and repentant women who had sinned, were added to those who believed. Buddha preached throughout Behar, Oudh, and the adjacent districts in the North-Western Provinces. He had ridden forth from his father's palace as a brilliant young prince. He now [aet. 37] returned to it as a wandering preacher, in dingy yellow robes, with shaven head and the begging bowl in his hand. The old king heard him with reverence. The son, whom Buddha had left as a new-born babe, was converted to the faith; and his beloved wife, from the threshold of whose chamber he had ridden away into the darkness, became one of the first of Buddhist nuns."—*Ibid.*, pp. 75-76.—Narratives from this point are confusing and disconnected, and except for the account of the last few days of his life, it is not yet possible to glean from legend a clear, chronological biography of Buddha.—See also **MYTHOLOGY:** Eastern Asia: Indian and Chinese influences.

Legend of Buddha's death and last words.—"In foretelling his death, he [Buddha] said to his followers: 'Be earnest, be thoughtful, be holy, keep steadfast watch over your own hearts. He who holds fast to the law and discipline, and faints not, he shall cross the ocean of life and make an end of sorrow.' 'The world is fast bound in fetters,' he added; 'I now give it deliverance, as a physician who brings heavenly medicine. Keep

your mind on my teaching: all other things change, this changes not. No more shall I speak to you, I desire to depart. I desire the eternal rest (*Nirvāna*).’ He spent the night in preaching, and in comforting a weeping disciple. His latest words, according to one account, were, ‘Work out your salvation with diligence.’ He died calmly, at the age of eighty, under the shadow of a fig-tree, according to the commonly received tradition in 543 B. C.; or according to later criticism in 478 B. C.”—*Ibid.*, p. 76.—“Gotama died, full of years and

the Buddha’s death, by Vidudubha, King of Kosala.”—T. W. R. Davids, *Early Buddhism*, pp. 46, 47.—See also BUDDHISM: Buddha’s last discourse.

Discovery of his birthplace and his tomb, with personal relics.—“Mr. Vincent Smith, of the Bengal Civil Service, a learned antiquary, has published in the Allahabad ‘Pioneer’ a statement as to the nature and significance of recent discoveries [1808] of Buddhist antiquities in India. The first of these is the home of Gautama Buddha, who lived about 500 B. C., and who is known to have



BUDDHA AT KAMAKURA, JAPAN

held in high esteem by the clansmen, . . . at Kusinara, a site not yet identified, but probably in Nepal. After the cremation, carried out by the clansmen of the Mallas, in whose territory the town lay, the ashes are said to have been divided into eight portions. Of these six were given to the six clans in the neighbourhood, one being the Sakiyas, one was given to the King of Magadha, and one to a Brahmin in Vethadipa near by. Stupas or cairns are said to have been put up over all eight; but only one of these has as yet been rediscovered. This is the one put up by the Sakiyas in the new Kapilavastu, built after the destruction of the older town a few years before

been the son of the Raja of Kapilavastu, a small state in the Nepal Terai, bordering on the modern Oudh. The site of Kapilavastu has long been eagerly sought for, and it is only within the past three years that the accidental discovery of an inscribed pillar erected by the Emperor Asoka, in the third century B. C., fixed with certainty the site of the city. The ruins, which were lately visited by Mr. Smith, are, so far as is yet known, all of brick; they are for the most part buried in jungle, and are so extensive that many years would be required for their exploration. The city was destroyed during the lifetime of Gautama, and when the first of the famous Chinese pilgrims vis-

ited the place, in 410 A. D., it was a mass of desolate ruins, and there is no indication that it has since been occupied. This fact gives exceptional interest to the excavations now in progress, for they are bringing to light buildings more ancient than any previously known in India. More interesting even than Kapilavastu is the discovery of the Lumbini Garden, the traditional birthplace of Gautama. The sacred spot has been found marked by another of Asoka's pillars, on which the inscription is perfect. This is also in Nepalese territory, five miles from the British frontier. The pillar stands on the western edge of a mound of ruins, about a hundred yards in diameter, and on the south side of the mound is the tank in which the child's mother bathed after his birth. Another discovery which was made in a stupa, or brick tumulus, close to the British frontier, is that of relics of Buddha himself. These consist only of fragments of bone, which were deposited in a wooden vessel that stood on the bottom of a massive coffer, more than four feet long and two feet deep, cut out of a solid block of fine sandstone. This coffer was buried under eighteen feet of masonry, composed of huge bricks, each sixteen inches long. The wooden vessel was decayed, and with it was an exquisitely finished bowl of rock crystal, the largest yet discovered in India, and also five small vases of soapstone. All these vessels were partially filled, in honor of the relics, with a marvellous collection of gold stars, pearls, topazes, beryls, and other jewels, and of various objects delicately wrought in crystal, agate, and other substances. An inscription on the lid of one of the soapstone vases declares the relics to be those of Buddha himself, and the characters in which the inscription is written are substantially the same as those of the Asoka inscriptions, and indicate that the tumulus was constructed between 300 and 250 B. C.—*London Times*, May, 1898.—The relics discovered, as described above, were presented by the Indian government to the king of Siam, the only existing Buddhist monarch, with the proviso that he offer a portion of them to Buddhists of Ceylon and Burmah.

See also **BUDDHISM; BRAHMANISM: Essential features; RELIGION: B. C. 600.**

ALSO IN: P. Bigandet, *Life or legend of Gaudama* (tr. from the Burmese).—W. W. Rockhill, *Life of Buddha* (tr. from Tibetan texts).

BUDDHISM.—Buddha and his mission.—"The Brahmins had firmly established their power 600 years before Christ. But after that date a new religion arose in India, called Buddhism, from the name of its founder, Gautama Buddha. This new religion was a rival to Brahmanism (q. v.) during more than a thousand years. About the ninth century A. D. Buddhism was driven out of India. But it is still professed by 500 millions of people in Asia, and has more followers than any other religion in the world."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, p. 74.—"In early India, some 2,500 years ago, there was a general belief that there was an abiding principle, a self or soul, within man which persisted after death. The soul received rewards in heaven and rebirth on earth in ameliorated conditions of life, if the Karma, or action of previous existences, had been good. It was awarded penalties in hell and rebirth in degraded conditions of life if its actions had been evil. Therefore extreme asceticism came to be an ideal whereby man could free his Soul from both good and evil actions. In the midst of such beliefs the Buddha, or Enlightened One, was born about 560 B. C.—He held that the universe was a ceaseless ever-becoming, in which imper-

manence even the gods participated. In such a doctrine there could be no abiding principles such as God and the Soul, or Self. If this were so, it might be well asked why man should weary himself with good deeds or with asceticism. Actions can only lead to new existences, with their sufferings of birth, disease, sorrow, old age, and death. Were it not better to seclude oneself from the world and live a life of concentrated thought, wherein all attachment to fleeting pleasures of the senses might fade away and man gain a haven of rest in quietism? In Benares many seekers after truth abandoned their asceticism and flocked to hear the new solution of the here and hereafter as taught by Buddha. It is recorded that, at Buddha Gaya, one thousand Brahmins joined the middle path of monastic quietude. Throughout Bihar and Oudh the Buddha gathered in the people to listen to his teaching and to wonder at the yellow robes of his followers and at the wealth which was poured at their feet. The people had been accustomed to the proud reserve and vaunted divine knowledge of Brahman priests. They had given alms to Jain ascetics and half-crazed Yogis. Men had worshipped the Brahmins and their gods, they had lived in fear and trembling at the thought that their slightest neglect of reverence towards the Brahmins and their sacrifices might doom their souls to perpetual torments in hells or to rebirth in foul and unclean new forms of life. All these terrors of life were now to be swept away and nothing abiding left of mind or matter, or of God or soul. All humanity was to receive, irrespective of caste distinctions, knowledge of a saddened world wherein there was no hope. Love towards each other and mutual forbearance could alone give some momentary relief from sorrow in a life which had no more permanency than had a quickly passing shadow."—R. W. Frazer, *Indian thought past and present*, pp. 141-143.

"Whether the Buddha was really the son of a king or not, it may be regarded as certain that he did not belong to the caste of the Brahmins. There is equally little reason for doubting that he sought for peace first of all among the Brahmins, then in solitary penance,—yet in both instances in vain,—and attained it only by that contemplation absorbing the soul, which became the characteristic of his followers. His wandering life in the garb of a mendicant, his preaching that all who followed him in this might be delivered from sickness, pain, old age, and death, and should strive after *Nirvana* as the highest goal, the great impression which this doctrine made on men of all classes, if not through the whole of India, yet according to the oldest tradition, in particular districts, the opposition which he encountered from many, the loyal devotion of his disciple Ananda, the few details related of his death—all this cannot belong to the realm of fiction. And this suffices to show us in the Buddha a man, who, whatever may have been the value of his philosophy of life, out of genuine conviction and pity for his fellowmen, chose a life of self-denial and renunciation to realise a great idea and promote the universal salvation."—C. P. Tiele, *Outlines of the history of religion to the spread of the universal religions*, pp. 134, 135.

Buddha's last discourse.—Essentials of Buddhist doctrine.—"The summary of the main features of his system of beliefs which Gotama is said, in our earliest authorities, to have put before his five friends at Benares, gives us what those authorities held to be most important in his teaching. . . .

"Every word is important, and it is a great pity,

that, in popular works on Buddhism, the expressions have been usually further condensed (which they will not bear), or so altered as to misrepresent the meaning. The full text is as follows:—

“There are two extremes which he who has gone forth ought not to follow—habitual devotion on the one hand to the passions, to the pleasures of sensual things, a low and pagan way (of seeking satisfaction), ignoble, unprofitable, fit only for the worldly-minded; and habitual devotion, on the other hand, to self-mortification, which is painful, ignoble, unprofitable. There is a Middle Path discovered by the Tathâgata—a path which opens the eyes, and bestows understanding, which leads to peace, to insight, to the higher wisdom, to Nirvana. Verily! it is this Aryan Eightfold Path; that is to say Right Views, Right Aspirations, Right Speech, Right Conduct, Right Mode of Livelihood, Right Effort, Right Mindfulness, and Right Rapture.

“Now this is the Noble Truth as to suffering. Birth is attended with pain, decay is painful, disease is painful, death is painful. Union with the unpleasant is painful, painful is separation from the pleasant; and any craving unsatisfied, that, too, is painful. In brief, the five aggregates of clinging (that is, the conditions of individuality) are painful.

“Now this is the noble Truth as to the origin of suffering. Verily! it is the craving thirst that causes the renewal of becomings, that is accompanied by sensual delights, and seeks satisfaction, now here, now there—that is to say, the craving for the gratification of the senses, or the craving for a future life, or the craving for prosperity.

“Now this is the Noble Truth as to the passing away of pain. Verily! it is the passing away so that no passion remains, the giving up, the getting rid of, the emancipation from, the harbouring no longer of this craving thirst.

“Now this is the Noble Truth as to the way that leads to the passing away of pain. Verily! it is this Aryan Eightfold Path, that is to say, Right Views, Right Aspirations, Right Speech, Right Conduct, and Right Mode of Livelihood, Right Effort, Right Mindfulness, and Right Rapture.”

“A few words follow as to the threefold way in which the speaker claimed to have grasped each of these four truths. That is all. There is not a word about God or the soul, not a word about the Buddha or Buddhism. It seems simple, almost jejune; so thin and weak that one wonders how it can have formed the foundation for a system so mighty in its historical results. But the simple words are pregnant with meaning. Their implications were clear enough to the hearers to whom they were addressed. They were not intended, however, to answer the questionings of a twentieth-century European student, and are liable now to be misunderstood.”—T. W. R. Davids, *Early Buddhism*, pp. 48-53.

“The Buddha essays in these Four Noble Truths no metaphysical speculations over the why or the wherefore of the universe. A fivefold craving after form, sensations, perceptions, conformations, and consciousness is all that Buddha's simple teachings set before his disciples. The Four Noble Truths held in themselves a code of ethics whereby all people, irrespective of caste or religious belief, could become free in this world from the pains and sorrows of life. [See ERRORS: India.] It was ignorance of the path to the cessation of suffering that the Buddha spent forty-five years of his lifetime in efforts to eradicate. To obtain freedom from desire and actions which attached themselves to desires, Buddha preached no doctrine of ex-

treme asceticism so common in India from the earliest times. Monastic middle-life was ordained for those who sought freedom from ignorance, but who might find the allurements of the world too strong for a life of contemplation. By a life of intense concentration of thought and self-culture each man could find for himself the truth of Buddha's contention that when ignorance ceased actions would lose their potency by non-attachment to outside objects and pleasures. For those Buddhists who remained in the world, as lay members of the order, there was given a moral code by the observance of which they rose above the trammels of caste, above priestly superstitions. Further, the lower classes of the people, in accepting Buddhism, gained the proud position of belonging to a saintly, dignified, and widely revered order. The natural disposition of the lay members to store up merit by charity and good deeds was met to the full in the ample opportunities they had of giving of their alms for the support of the wandering Buddhist monks. Buddhism set before the people ideals of charity, chastity, and self-repression—ideals ever revered in the best of Indian belief and in the best of Indian literature. . . . To the simple teachings of the Buddha after ages added learned discussions on every conceivable cosmological, psychological, and even ontological problem that perplexed the thought of their times; the piety, or vanity, of these ages ascribed all their wordy disquisitions to the Buddha, and laid them as tributes of reverence at his feet. The Buddha had ever consistently refused to be drawn by his disciples into any definite statements or metaphysical discussions regarding the nature of the Atman, or Soul, or even respecting the question of the existence or non-existence of a future life after death. It is even suggested that he was not responsible for the first announcement of the principle underlying the grouping of the Four Noble Truths, for ‘those Four Noble Truths are nothing more than the four cardinal principles of Indian medical science applied to the spiritual healing of mankind.’ The Wheel of Life gives the Buddhist conception of life as ever becoming, ever passing on like the rim of a moving wheel. The Four Noble Truths had taught that all the suffering and Sorrow of the world arose from the Desire or Thirst for pleasures, existence, and prosperity. The Wheel of Life, or Chain of Causation, as it has been called, gives twelve divisions of life, or causes of existence (nidanas). Here Desire arises from Ignorance, which produces Karma, or deeds, necessitating a new existence for their reward or punishment. In this new life seven stages of early development of life pass till Desire arises, which leads, through self-assertion, to married life, to family cares, thence to old age and death, ending again in Ignorance necessitating new existences. Thus, ‘Not to know suffering, not to know the cause of suffering, not to know the cessation of suffering, not to know the Path which leads to the cessation of suffering, this is called Ignorance.’”—R. W. Frazer, *Indian thought past and present*, pp. 157-160.

“Buddhism, though it is a reaction against the Brahmanic hierarchy, is, in fact, an outgrowth of Brahmanism. It rests upon the so-called dogma of the transmigration of the soul, and the Buddhist, like the Brahman, seeks for deliverance from the endless succession of re-births. But it pronounces the Brahmanic penances and abstinence inadequate to accomplish this, and aims at attaining, not union with the universal spirit, but Nirvana, non-existence. Without denying the existence of the devas, at any rate at first, it places

each Buddha, as the Brahmins ranked every ascetic, above them, but it goes a step further, and makes even the supreme Brahma subordinate to a perfect saint. It differed from Brahmanism, as primitive Christianity differed from the Jewish hierarchy, by rejecting outward works or theological knowledge as marks of holiness, and seeking it in gentleness, in purity of heart and life, in mercy and self-denying love for a neighbour. Above all, it is distinguished by its relation to castes. The Buddha comes neither to oppose them, nor to level everything. On the other hand, he adopts the doctrine that men are born in lower or higher castes, determined by their sins or good works in a former existence, but he teaches, at the same time, that, by a life of purity and love, by becoming a spiritual man, every one may attain at once the highest salvation. Caste makes no difference to him; he looks for the man, even in the Chandala; the miseries of existence beset all alike, and his law is a law of grace for all. The Buddhist teaching is, therefore, quite popular in its character, its instrument is preaching rather than instruction, it is not esoteric like the Brahmanic, or intended only for individuals. And while the piety of the Brahman aimed at selfishly securing his own redemption, the Buddhist cannot attain salvation without regard to the well-being of all his fellow creatures. The ideal of the first is a hermit striving to save others. Buddhism, in fact, rejected the authority of the veda, the whole dogmatic system of the Brahmins, their worship, penance, and hierarchy, and simply substituted for them a higher moral teaching. It was a purely ethical revolution; but it would certainly have succumbed beneath this one-sided tendency, had it not in the course of time taken up into itself, under another shape, much of what it had first opposed."—C. P. Tiele. *Outlines of the history of religion to the spread of the universal religion*, pp. 135-136.—See also BRAHMANISM.

Law of Karma.—"The secret of Buddha's success was, that he brought spiritual deliverance to the people. He preached that salvation was equally open to all men, and that it must be earned, not by propitiating imaginary deities, but by our own conduct. He thus did away with sacrifices, and with the priestly claims of the Brahmins as mediators between God and man. He taught that the state of a man in this life, in all previous and in all future lives, is the result of his own acts (*Karma*). What a man sows, that he must reap. As no evil remains without punishment, and no good deed without reward, it follows that neither priest nor God can prevent each act from bringing about its own consequences. Misery or happiness in this life is the unavoidable result of our conduct in a past life; and our actions here will determine our happiness or misery in the life to come. When any creature dies, he is born again in some higher or lower state of existence, according to his merit or demerit. His merit or demerit consists of the sum total of his actions in all previous lives. A system like this, in which our whole well-being—past, present, and to come—depends on ourselves, leaves little room for a personal God."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, p. 77.

Nirvana.—"Referring to the books, however, we receive definite information as to the early and late belief of northern Buddhists on this subject of Nirvana. It is spoken of as a deliverance consequent on destruction. So Buddha says: 'After my Nirvana, *wo-mie-tu-heu*, that is, after my body has been destroyed, and in consequence deliverance obtained. But what is the 'deliverance'?

The oft-repeated answer is—a deliverance from 'birth and death' (*sing sse*). The truth is, so it would seem at least, that sorrow was regarded as inseparable from organised life, or from life as a separate item in any condition. And, therefore, without defining it, the primitive belief was that the supreme happiness was exemption from rebirth. Does not this contain in it the germ of the later Pantheism or spiritualism into which the system grew? For, if there is to be no birth, we must go back to the condition before birth began; that is, as it seems, to the condition of the 'Eternal One.' Whether this word Nirvana has not some reference to that condition of a non-breathing life, that is, of the Creator ere he began his creative work (as we speak) is not satisfactorily answered. It has been propounded as a possible explanation of the word, and if it could be borne out, the idea, at any rate, of Nirvana would be brought to a determinate issue. For if, as the Buddhists say, we are possessed of the one nature of Buddha, and if by recovering this we reach our goal of perfection, then this perfection consists in going back to that nature ere it became deluded and darkened by ignorance. At least, the definition of destruction as a part of the formula for Nirvana alludes to the destruction of every part of the being called 'man.' Beyond this, however, we find in the developed form of the doctrine the positive assertion that Nirvana consists in joy, permanence, personality, and purity. 'It may be compared,' Buddha is supposed to say, 'to the absence of something different from itself. In the midst of sorrow there is no Nirvana, and in Nirvana there is no sorrow. So we may justly define Nirvana as that sort of existence which consists in the absence of something essentially different from itself.' Again, in another place, Buddha says: 'I do not affirm that the six organs of sense, &c., are permanent, but what I state is that *that* is permanent, full of joy, personal, and pure which is left after the organs of sense and the objects of sense are destroyed. When the world, weary of sorrow, turns away and separates itself from the cause of all this sorrow, then by this rejection of it there remains that which I call the "true self," and it is of this I speak when I say it is permanent, full of joy, personal, and pure.' So in the later speculation this thought is repeatedly brought out, that Nirvana is a positive condition of unfettered bliss."—S. Beal, *Buddhism in China*, pp. 198-199.

Early spread of the teachings.—Work of Asoka.—Persecutions and struggles.—"On the death of Buddha in 543 B. C., [latest authorities accept 488 B. C.] five hundred of his disciples met in a vast cave near Patna, to gather together his sayings. This was the first Council. They chanted the lessons of their master in three great divisions,—the words of Buddha to his disciples; his code of discipline; and his system of doctrine. These became the Three Collections of Buddha's teaching; and the word for a Buddhist Council means literally 'a singing together.' A century afterwards, a Second Council, of seven hundred, was held in 443 B. C., to settle disputes between the more and the less strict followers of Buddhism.

"During the next two hundred years Buddhism spread over Northern India. About 257 B. C., Asoka, the King of Magadha or Behar, became a zealous convert to the faith. He was grandson of Chandra Gupta, whom we shall afterwards hear of in Alexander's camp. Asoka is said to have supported 64,000 Buddhist priests; he founded many religious houses; and his kingdom is called the Land of the Monasteries (Vihara or Behar) to this day. Asoka did for Buddhism what the Em-

peror Constantine afterwards effected for Christianity—he made it a State religion. This he accomplished by five means,—(1) by a Council to settle the faith; (2) by Edicts setting forth its principles; (3) by a State Department to watch over its purity; (4) by Missionaries to spread its doctrines; and (5) by an Authoritative Revision or Canon of the Buddhist Scriptures. In 244 B. C., Asoka convened at Patna the Third Buddhist Council, of one thousand elders. Evil men, taking on them the yellow robe of the Buddhist order, had given forth their own opinions as the teaching of Buddha. Such heresies were now corrected; and the Buddhism of Southern Asia practically dates from Asoka's Council. In a number of edicts, both before and after that Council, he published throughout his empire the grand principles of the faith. Forty of these royal sermons are still found graven upon pillars, caves, and rocks throughout India. Asoka also founded a State department, with a Minister of Justice and Religion at its head, to watch over the purity, and to direct the spread, of the faith. Wells were to be dug and trees planted along the roads for the wearied wayfarers. Hospitals were established for man and beast. Officers were appointed to watch over family life and the morals of the people, and to promote instruction among the women as well as the youth. Asoka thought it his duty to convert all mankind to Buddhism. His rock inscriptions record how he sent forth missionaries 'to the utmost limits of the barbarian countries,' to 'intermingle among all unbelievers' for the spread of religion. They were to mix equally with soldiers, Brahmans, and beggars, with the dreaded and the despised, both within the kingdom 'and in foreign countries, teaching better things.' But conversion was to be effected by persuasion, not by the sword. Buddhism was at once the most intensely missionary religion in the world, and the most tolerant. Asoka, however, not only laboured to spread his religion—he also took steps to keep its doctrines pure. He collected the Buddhist sacred books into an authoritative version, in the Magadhi language of his central kingdom in Behar,—a version which for two thousand years has formed the Southern Canon of the Buddhist Scriptures."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, pp. 78-79.—See also INDIA: B. C. 600-327, 312.—"Mahendra, the king's own son, went to Ceylon [see CEYLON], and there founded the Southern Buddhist church, which was destined to remain so much purer than the Northern, and was at a later date to carry Buddhism to Burma and Siam. . . . Under King Pushpamitra, the founder of a new dynasty, a violent persecution was commenced, at the instigation of the Brahmans. . . . The struggle lasted long, and the Brahmans and the Buddhists gained by turns the upper hand. Till the fourth century A. D., the latter seem to have been in the majority. But in the two following centuries, they rapidly declined. . . . It is commonly supposed that the Buddhists were the victims in India of bloody persecutions and were exterminated with violence, but of this supposed fact no satisfactory proofs are forthcoming. On the contrary, Buddhism appears to have pined away slowly. It continued to exist for some centuries in some of the remoter districts. In Kashmir it held its ground at all events till 1102, and in the modern Bengal certainly down to 1036, while it has continued in Nepal till the present day. The majority of believers who remained faithful fled to foreign lands, amongst others to Java, and spread their faith there. Others passed into the sect of the Jainas which was not exposed to per-

secution."—C. P. Tiele, *Outlines of the history of religion to the spread of the universal religion*, pp. 138-140.

ALSO IN: H. Hackmann, *Buddhism as a religion*, pp. 41-44.

Later history.—**Spread of Buddhism.**—"During the last thousand years Buddhism has been a banished religion from its native Indian home. But it has won greater triumphs in its exile than it could have ever achieved in the land of its birth. It created a literature and a religion for nearly one-half of the human race; and it is supposed, by its influence on early Christianity, to have affected the beliefs of a large part of the other half. Five hundred millions of men, or forty per cent. of the inhabitants of the world, still follow the teaching of Buddha. Afghanistan, Nepal, Eastern Turkistan, Tibet, Mongolia, Manchuria, China, Japan, the Eastern Archipelago, Siam, Burma, Ceylon and India, at one time or another marked the magnificent circle of its conquests. Its shrines and monasteries stretched from what are now provinces of the Russian empire, to Japan and the islands of the Malay Sea. During twenty-four centuries, Buddhism has encountered and outlived a series of rival faiths. At this day it forms, with Christianity and Islam, one of the three great religions of the world; and the most numerously followed of the three. . . . Buddhism is still the religion of Burma, and has there over nine millions of followers, or nine-tenths of the population. The Buddhist monasteries have from ancient times been schools for the young as well as religious houses for the monks; and they now form the basis of the British system of Public Instruction throughout Burma. In all the rest of British India there are only about 227,000 pure Buddhists, chiefly in the Bengal Districts adjacent to Burma, and in the remote valleys of the Himalayan ranges. From time to time Buddhism seems to take a new start in Lower Bengal, and Buddhist journals are published in Calcutta and elsewhere. But the noblest survivals of Buddhism in India are to be found not among any peculiar body, but in the religion of the whole Hindu people; in that principle of the brotherhood of man, with the re-assertion of which each new revival of Hinduism starts; in the asylum which the great Hindu sect of Vaishnavs affords to women who have fallen victims to caste rules, to the widow and the outcast; in that gentleness and charity to all men, which take the place of a poor-law in India, and give a high significance to the half-satirical epithet of the 'mild' Hindu."—W. W. Hunter, *Brief history of the Indian peoples*, pp. 82-84.

Different forms of Buddhism.—"In the study of Buddhism, the distinction between the northern and southern form should be always kept in view. It is to Burnouf that we owe the first clear separation of these two chief parties into which the Buddhists are divided. The priests of Ceylon, Birman, and Siam have their sacred books in the Pali language, which is later in age than the Sanscrit. The monks of Nepaul, Tibet, China, and the other northern countries where this religion is professed, either preserve the books of their religion in Sanscrit, or have translations made immediately from Sanscrit (q. v.). Sanscrit is the mother of Pali, and was spoken quite late in some of the mountainous kingdoms of Northern India. Another great distinction is in the books themselves. The fundamental books of both the great Buddhist parties appear to be the same, but the northern Buddhists have added many important works professing to consist of the sayings of Buddha, yet in reality fictitious. They belong to the

school called the Great Development School, which is so denominated to distinguish it from the Lesser Development School, common to the north and the south. In additions made by the northern Buddhists are included the fiction of the Western Paradise and the fable of Amitabha and Kwan-yin, the Goddess of Mercy. These personages are exclusively northern, and are entirely unknown to the south of Nepal. In the south the Hindoo traditions in respect to cosmogony and mythology are adhered to more rigidly; while in the north a completely new and far more extensive universe, with divinities to correspond, is represented to exist in the books, and is believed to exist by the people."—J. Edkins, *Religion in China*, pp. 8, 9.

Tolerant spirit of Buddhism.—"Wherever Buddhism has penetrated, it has abolished human sacrifice, which still prevails in portions of India never yet subjected to its influence. It has constantly discouraged capital punishment; and in many parts of Asia it has succeeded, at various times and for longer or shorter periods, in setting the death penalty aside. 'Buddhism has been violently persecuted at various times and in various countries. It appears never to have dreamed of revenge.' It has been faithful to its principle that truth is not to be imposed by violence; that opinion must be free. Its rejection of bloodshed has been absolute. Beside the history of its peaceful progress, the records of Islam and Christianity are black with tyranny and hate. If it has not prevented civil wars in a colossal empire like China, we must remember that its essential ideas have been a constant restraint on them, and probably contributed, as much as anything, to that social order and national unity through nearly four thousand years, which has been in many respects the most marvellous fact in the political history of mankind. Buddhism reached the conception that all religions have been apprehensions, with greater or less distinctness, of one eternal faith; so that it has felt a kindly yearning towards all of them, sought to find their common good elements, and to give each a place in the theory of its *dharm*a or Law. It assigns one of its highest heavens to the virtuous of other religions. It knows no heathen hated of God, only a common humanity seeking for eternal life. 'When Sakyamuni came to earth,' say the Lamaists, 'he found that all peoples were not equally capable of receiving his whole law. He therefore gave to each what truths it was able to apprehend, and so spread his blessing over all. And of all these, not one that follows its own light, shall be lost.' . . . Towards Christians Buddhism has always shown this broad hospitality. It was among the Mongolian tribes of Central Asia that they found readiest access; with Tschingis-Khan and his successors, who gloried in acknowledging one God, and the many ways in which men might serve Him. Marco Polo records the declaration of Kublai-Khan, that he 'reverenced the four great Prophets,—Jesus, Mahomet, Moses, and Buddha.'"—S. Johnson, *Oriental religions and their relation to universal religion*, pp. 749-751.—See also BUDDHA; BURMA: Religion; CASTE SYSTEM OF INDIA; CHINA: Religion of the people; JAINISM; JAPAN: Religions; LAMAS, LAMAISM; MONGOLIA: 1750-1911; MYTHOLOGY: Eastern Asia: Indian and Chinese influences; RELIGION: B. C. 600.

BUDDHIST SCULPTURE. See SCULPTURE: India, China and Japan.

BUDDHIST TEMPLES (in the United States).—"The influx into this country of numbers of Chinese and Japanese, even for temporary residence has been attended naturally by the establish-

ment of their prevailing forms of religious worship, and their temples or shrines are to be found in many cities. Almost all are Buddhist, though a few Confucian Assemblies appear to have been formed and a single Shinto temple has been included with the Japanese Buddhist temples. . . . Chinese places of worship were established in the United States as early as 1852. . . . At the time of the San Francisco earthquake in 1906, there were not far from 100 places of worship in more than 25 cities scattered over 12 states of the Union. Of the number in California, 40 or 50 were destroyed, but only a few have been replaced. Since the revolution of 1911 in China, the custom of worship has to a considerable degree been discontinued among the Chinese and this has been furthered by the lack of any distinct ecclesiastical organization."—United States Census, *Religious Bodies* 1916, pt. 2, pp. 182-183.—"Japanese Buddhist work in the United States is, on the other hand, in a flourishing condition. The center of administration is in Kyoto, Japan, with a branch office, the 'Buddhist Mission in America' at San Francisco. It is estimated that there are 11 organized churches and 83 meeting places on the Pacific coast. Statistics give the number of members as 5,639, an increase of 78.2 per cent over 1906."—*Ibid.*, p. 185.

BUDGET, "the annual financial statement which the Chancellor of the Exchequer makes in the House of Commons in a Committee of ways and means. In making this statement the minister gives a view of the general financial policy of the government, and at the same time presents an estimate of the probable income and expenditure for the following twelve months, and a statement of what taxes it is intended to reduce or abolish, or what new ones it may be necessary to impose.—To open the budget, to lay before the legislative body the financial estimates and plans of the executive govt."—*Imperial dictionary of the English language*.—See also CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER.—Mr. Dowell in his "History of taxation," v. 1, ch. 5, states that the phrase "opening the budget" came into use in England during the reign of George III, and that it bore a reference to the bougette, or little bag, in which the chancellor of the exchequer kept his papers. The French, he adds, adopted the term about 1814. The following, however, is in disagreement with Mr. Dowell's explanation: "In the reign of George II. the word was used with conscious allusion to the celebrated pamphlet which ridiculed Sir R. Walpole as a conjuror opening his budget or 'bag of tricks.' Afterwards, it must, for a time, have been current as slang; but, as it supplied a want, it was soon taken up into the ordinary vocabulary."—*Athenaeum*, Feb. 14. 1891, p. 213.—Russia published her first budget in 1866, and both Egypt and Turkey began to use the budget system in the latter half of the nineteenth century. The fiscal year, however, is not uniform. Germany, Denmark and England begin their fiscal year, April 1 (before 1832 England began Jan. 1); France, Belgium and Austria, January 1; United States, Canada, Italy and Spain, July 1. The budget has had a place of considerable historical importance in English parliamentary history, and frequent contests have been fought around it. Disraeli introduced a budget in 1852 and was defeated. In 1859 a change of administration delayed the budget. In 1860, due to the ratification of a commercial treaty with France a budget was introduced on February 10. In 1880 two budgets were brought in, one by Disraeli in March and another by Gladstone in June. In 1909 a budget contest of great impor-

tance took place. "The Lords encouraged by their easy successes in blocking the Commons blithely took another step forward, a step that, as events were to prove, was to precede a resounding fall. The Lords in 1909 rejected the budget . . . In 1909 Lloyd George, Chancellor of the exchequer, introduced the budget. He announced correctly that two new lines of heavy expenditure, the payment of old age pensions and the rapid enlargement of the navy necessitated new and additional taxation. The new taxes which he proposed would bear mainly on the wealthy classes. . . . This budget aroused the most vehement opposition of the class of landowners, capitalists, bankers, persons of large property interests, etc. . . . The budget passed the House of Commons by a large majority. It then went to the House of Lords. For a long time it had not been supposed that the Lords had any right to reject money bills, as they were a hereditary and not a representative body. . . . After a few days debate they rejected the budget by a vote of 350 to 75 (November 30, 1909). At once this precipitated an exciting and momentous political and constitutional struggle. [See also ENGLAND: 1909 (April-December); 1910]. . . . The question of the budget and the question of the proper position and the future of the upper chamber were thus linked together."—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe (1870-1919)*, pp. 158, 159, 160.—After two bitterly fought elections and the formation of a new cabinet, the House of Lords was materially restricted in its activities by the Parliament Act of 1911.—See also ENGLAND: 1914-1918: Taxation policy.

In June, 1921, a bill was passed by the Congress of the United States adopting a budget system. See U. S. A.: 1921 (June); also 1922 (June).

Essentials.—"It is a remarkable fact that great as is the amount of study that has for years been given to the question of the budget in foreign countries, and extensively as the question has been discussed in recent years in this country, no general agreement appears to have been reached as to the precise meaning which should be attached to the term 'budget.' To some of the numerous writers on the subject a budget is a mere statement of estimated revenues and expenditures. Others going to the opposite pole make it synonymous with a revenue and appropriation act. The former conception is most commonly found in American commentators, while the latter, springing naturally from the close relation between the estimates and the legislative acts under European parliamentary systems, is to be found most clearly in European writers, particularly the French. Thus, M. Leroy Beaulieu writes: 'A budget is a statement of the estimated receipts and expenses during a fixed period; it is a comparative table giving the amounts of the receipts to be realized and of the expenses to be incurred; it is, furthermore, an authorization or a command given by the proper authorities to incur the expenses and to collect the revenues.' 'The budget of the state,' says René Stourm, 'is a document containing a preliminary approved plan of public revenues and expenditures.' 'The budget in modern states,' according to M. G. Jéze, 'is a forecast and an estimate of all the public receipts and expenses and, for certain expenses and receipts, an authorization to incur them and to collect them.'"—W. F. Willoughby, *Problem of the national budget*, pp. 2-3.

For a more detailed analysis of the operations involved in the administration of the financial affairs of a government, consult W. F. Willoughby, W. W. Willoughby and S. M. Lindsay, *System of financial administration of Great Britain*, ch. 1

(*Studies in Administration, Institute for Government Research, 1917*).

"As used by the writer throughout the following pages the term corresponds to neither of these conceptions. Were the budget a mere estimate of revenues and expenditures it would be palpably absurd to characterize the simple and relatively unimportant matter of the preparation of such an estimate as the master problem of our public administration. On the other hand, not only does the concept of the budget, as hereafter developed, not include the formal statutory authorization for the collection and expenditure of money, but it is believed that serious consequences result from confounding the budget with the act of revenue and appropriation and attempting to provide for both estimates and statute in the same document. What then is a budget, as the term is here used? On analysis, the administration of the financial affairs of a government will be found to involve a continuous chain of operations, the several links of which are (1) estimates of revenue and expenditure needs; (2) revenue and expenditure acts; (3) accounts; (4) audit; and (5) reports. An estimate is first made of the expenditures that will be required for the due conduct of governmental affairs during a fixed period (this period being almost universally fixed at one year), together with a statement as to the manner in which it is proposed that the money to meet these expenditures shall be raised. On the basis of this estimate, revenue and appropriation acts are passed giving legal authority for taking the action determined upon. Following this the accounting department of the government opens up revenue and appropriation accounts corresponding to the items of the revenue and appropriation acts. The data recorded in these accounts are then subjected to examination and scrutiny by the auditing department for the purpose of ensuring that they are accurately made, and that they correspond to the real facts and represent a full compliance with all provisions of law. The information furnished by these accounts is then summarized for the period to which they relate and is given publicity in the form of reports. Finally, on the basis of the data contained in these reports, new estimates for the next year are made and the circuit is begun again. In this chain of operations the budget finds its place as the instrument through which these several operations are correlated, compared one with the other, and brought under examination at one and the same time. It should be at once a report, an estimate and a proposal. It is the document through which the chief executive, as the authority responsible for the actual conduct of governmental affairs, comes before the fund-raising and fund-granting authority and makes full report regarding the manner in which he and his subordinates have administered affairs during the last completed year; in which he exhibits the present condition of the public treasury; and, on the basis of such information, sets forth his program of work for the year to come and the manner in which he proposes that such work shall be financed. . . . It is obviously imperative that the appropriating authorities, in considering the problem of financing the government, shall know the total revenues that are available. Furthermore, the work of making provision for the financial needs of a government involves the consideration of relative as well as of absolute values. The problem presented is that of allotting or apportioning funds, the total amount of which is more or less fixed, to purposes in proportion to their relative importance or immediate urgency. To do this effectively it is nec-

essary that the whole problem of financing the government should be considered at one time. It is thus of the essence of correct budgetary practice that the general budget of a government should bring together in one all-comprehensive showing a complete statement of all government revenues and expenditures, but it does not follow that use may not be made of special or subordinate budgets for particular services whose operations it is desirable to segregate from those of the government generally considered. . . .

"In the first place, the budget proper should be accompanied by a balance sheet showing the resources and liabilities of the national treasury at the beginning and close of the last completed official year. . . . Lastly, these financial statements should be accompanied by the administrative reports of the chief executive, the heads of departments and other officers in charge of the several services of the government. The writer is aware that this proposition—that the annual reports of administrative officers should be made an integral part of the budgetary statement—is a novel one. At least, he has not seen the suggestion that this be done. A moment's reflection, however, will show that this is a desirable and logical requirement. We have already taken pains to point out that the budget is as much a reporting as an estimating operation. The financial statements contained in the budget proper give, and can give, but the bare figures showing the financial results of these operations. In order that their significance may be seen it is essential that they should be accompanied by statements showing the results in terms of work accomplished, the necessity or utility of such work, the problems that have had to be met, the methods that have been or will have to be employed, etc. The administrative reports thus furnish the means through which the figures contained in the budgetary statements may be understood. Without them it is difficult, if not impossible, for intelligent consideration to be given to them. To recapitulate: As an aid to the understanding of the facts contained in it, the budget proper should be accompanied by supporting documents which, together with the budget proper, constitute what may be designated a budgetary statement, in order to distinguish it from a budget as the term is more usually employed. Of these, the following are the most important: (1) A balance sheet showing the resources and liabilities of the government at the beginning and close of the year reported upon; (2) summary and analytical tables serving to bring out the important features of the showing made from the various viewpoints from which it is desirable to have the revenue and expenditures of a government considered; (3) the report of the chief executive in the form of a general budgetary message, and (4) the administrative reports of the heads of the several administrative departments and services."—*Ibid.*, pp. 3-9.

Government use.—In its Treasury, presided over by the Chancellor of the Exchequer [the English] government has an organ of precisely this character [the treasury as an organ of general administration]. This department, notwithstanding its name, has nothing to do with the actual administration of the financial affairs of the government; all that work is done by the so-called revenue departments, the customs and excise services, the post office, the commissioners of the public debt, etc. Its sole functions are the directing, supervising, and controlling of the manner in which work is done by these services and the so-called spending departments which are charged with the expenditure of

the funds voted, and preparing the budget for submission to Parliament. This department also furnishes the organ through which flexibility in the expenditure of appropriations is secured, as upon it falls the duty of passing upon all requests for the transfer of funds from one appropriation head to another. Finally, it acts as a general bureau of administration since in it is vested large authority in the furnishing of quarters, and other elements entering into the question of the cost and efficiency with which governmental operations are conducted. This is a phase of its duties which is of great importance, but it is one the consideration of which would lead us too far from the particular topic which we now have under consideration. Though the British Treasury offers the best example of a service of general overhead administration possessed by any government, certain of our states [United States] have created excellent organs of this character. Reference is made specifically to the California State Board of Public Affairs established in 1913, and the Illinois Department of Finance established in 1917."—*Ibid.*, 30-31, 36-37.

System of transfers between appropriation heads.—The best example of an appropriation system making large use of the principle of transfers between appropriation heads is that of Great Britain. "It is a matter of no little interest to note that this important feature of the English budgetary system has been adopted by the government of Porto Rico. Under its budgetary system economies effected in the expenditure of appropriations for subheads are available for transfers to other subheads within the same department upon the approval being obtained of the Executive Council, the latter body thus performing, in this respect, the function of the Treasury in the governmental system of Great Britain. The writer, who served for six years as Treasurer of the Island and as a member of the Executive Council, can bear witness to the excellent results flowing from this system. The system under which transfers may be made from one appropriation head to another upon the approval of some authority being had has also been adopted by certain of the states. [See also PORTO RICO: 1898-1899 (October-November).] The New Jersey budget act of 1916 thus provides that 'in order that some degree of flexibility in appropriations may be had, any department or other state agency receiving an appropriation by any future act of the legislature may apply to the State House Commission for leave to transfer a part of any item granted to such department or agency to any other item in such appropriation.' The Tennessee budget act of 1917 contains a similar provision, the approving authority here being the State Budget Commission. Substantially the same system has, as we have seen, been employed by Ohio since 1914. See 'The Movement for Budgetary Reform in the State,' Studies in Administration, Institute for Government Research, 1918. . . . In this system a clear distinction is drawn between appropriation heads proper or 'votes,' subheads, or 'appropriation accounts,' and items under the subheads, in respect to the extent to which the sums carried must be rigidly devoted to the service or purpose indicated. An appropriation proper, which is technically known as a 'vote,' consists of the total sum appropriated for some important branch of the government service or category of work. In the civil branches of the government, the assignment of funds so made is final and cannot be departed from unless the approval of Parliament is first obtained. In the military

and naval branches, however, transfers from one 'vote' to another within the same department may be effected upon the approval of the Treasury being received. It is clearly recognized, however, that resort to this power should not be had except for the purpose of meeting emergencies, and all changes that are made must be specially reported to Parliament for its formal approval. The total carried by each 'vote' is itemized under headings known as Appropriation Accounts to indicate the sums assigned to subdivisions of the services to which the vote relates or to special categories of expenditures. In respect to these, the law authorizes transfers to be made from one to the other within the same vote upon the approval of the Treasury being obtained. The law, however, requires that the account, audit and report of expenditures shall be made according to these subheads, so that Parliament may be placed in possession of full information regarding the extent to which this faculty of 'virement,' as it is called, is used. A double check thus exists upon an improper use or abuse of this power—the requirement that the approval of the Treasury, an organ whose primary function is the protection of the public treasury, must be obtained, and the necessity for reporting all such action to Parliament. The sums appropriated under the several 'appropriation counts' are not further itemized in the appropriation act. It should be noted, however, that in the estimates such a further itemization is presented together with a similar itemization of the manner in which the sums, if any, voted for the corresponding subheads were expended in the preceding year. Parliament can thus see the extent to which past practice has been departed from in the estimates for the year in question. There can be no question about the effectiveness of this system. It should be noted, however, that its successful working depends upon two things: One, the existence of a strong independent organ whose function it is to see that the faculty of making transfers is not abused; and the other, the requirement that a detailed account of expenditures and of all transfers shall be kept and reported to Parliament for its information. Without these two requirements it is certain that the whole system would break down. A fuller account of the English system is to be found in 'The System of Financial Administration of Great Britain,' prepared by the writer in collaboration with W. W. Willoughby and S. M. Lindsay for the Institute for Government Research.—*Ibid.*, pp. 48, 49, 50.

Allotment system.—"The allotment system . . . is, as . . . urged for adoption by the United States, that appropriations should be made under a relatively few heads corresponding to the main divisions of government, that is, the departments and their distinct services; that, immediately upon the passage of the appropriation acts and before the beginning of the year to which they relate, the departments and bureaus proceed to make an allotment of these lump sums to specific subdivisions of the services to which they relate or to particular categories of work or expenditures; that each subdivision to which a specific allotment has been made in turn make a further allotment of the sum granted to it; that these allotments in all cases be formally made in writing, with the result that if these several allotments are assembled, there will be brought into existence an appropriation document differing in no essential feature from, and representing as detailed an assignment of funds as that made by an appropriation act made by Congress; that allotment accounts be opened up in the

accounting offices of the services and departments, and, as far as may be deemed desirable, in the accounting offices of the Treasury Department, corresponding to the appropriation accounts now maintained by the latter department; that changes in the allotment of funds as thus made be made only by formal action in writing on the part of the allotting authority; that the financial reports of the several services clearly set forth the allotment scheme as originally established, all changes subsequently authorized, and the expenditures actually made under each allotment head; and, finally, that a consolidated report of expenditures of the government be made to Congress in accordance with this scheme of accounts. At least one state, Minnesota, has adopted substantially this system. Its budget act, passed in 1915, thus provides that: 'It shall be the duty of each disbursing officer or board, within thirty days after the passage of any appropriation by the state legislature to allot within each appropriation to be expended under his or its direction the amounts, if any, for the several purposes set forth in the "budget" submitted to the legislature, not inconsistent with the terms of the appropriation act. Subject to the restrictions of the appropriation act, allotments may, in case of necessity, be altered by the officer or board charged with the disbursement thereof. All such allotments and any changes thereof shall, as soon as made, be filed with the State Auditor.' (See '*The Movement for Budgetary Reform in the States, Studies in Administration, Institute for Government Research, 1918.*') The writer is aware that this scheme does not possess the same degree of control that is present in the English system, due to the existence in the latter of the requirement that the approval of an organ independent of the spending department must be had as to important changes in the assignment of funds as first made. Until Congress is willing to erect the Treasury Department into such an organ or to create an organ having that special function this defect cannot be remedied. Under this scheme responsibility for the allotment of funds is not only definitely located but located in that authority which is best qualified to perform it. Furthermore, the approval of a superior authority to all changes in suballotments, as originally made and approved, must always be had. Finally, the requirement that the making of allotments and of changes in allotments shall be a formal act, that accounts shall be kept so as to show all allotment transactions, and that full report shall be made to Congress, establishes the maximum of control consistent with flexibility in the expenditure of funds that it is possible to secure under our governmental system as at present organized."—*Ibid.*, pp. 50-52.

Illinois budget system.—"I submitted our first budget to the legislature with some trepidation. I had been freely told that the legislature would not accept it. Other states had had such experience. But the legislature did pass it, substantially in the form in which it was submitted. The results that followed adoption of the administrative code and the budget system are such that no one in Illinois, I am sure, would think of returning to the old methods. The administration of government has become vastly more efficient, and naturally, more economical. The State tax rate for State purposes, even in a period of private and public extravagance, has been reduced one-third within two years. In 1917 the State tax rate was 90 cents; in 1918 we were able to reduce it to 75 cents. In 1919, the rate was fixed at 60 cents. Turning to Federal conditions, it is apparent that what we have undertaken to do in Illinois is ex-

actly what must be done at Washington, if the enormous increase in appropriations is to be checked. Machinery must be set up for a proper budgetary system. The Secretary of the Treasury should be given authority to supervise expenditures, and to make a budget along the lines we have followed in Illinois. Some progress is being made in this direction, both Senate and House have committees at work on the problem. In 1916 we had about 30,000 civil service employees in the executive branch of the government at Washington. So the chairman of the Civil Service Commission testified before the appropriations committee recently. This was a year before the war. During the war the number of employees was necessarily increased. But on October 31, last, a year after the signing of the armistice, there were in these same departments in the District of Columbia, 102,000 employees. I am not charging any one personally with the responsibility for this condition. But what a beautiful illustration it is of the difficulty of getting rid of a public office that has been once created. If there were an officer of government whose duty it was to scrutinize the expenditure of public money this official would speedily find a large number of these 102,000 positions unnecessary. The chairman of the house committee on appropriations said the other day that there are forty-two organizations in Washington, each with its overhead expenses, having to do with the administration of public health. There are eight departments, each with large overhead organizations, engaged in engineering work. There are twelve different organizations for road construction work; sixteen engaged in water power development. These are but a few of the many instances of duplication of work. With a real budget made up by a courageous man who insists that the public when it spends a dollar shall receive a dollar's worth of service, this deplorable and enormous waste would begin to disappear. With the Treasury Department transformed into a real department of finance, with powers of general supervision over the finances of the government, together with budgetary powers, these bureau, divisions and subdivisions of government would require their abolition. Therefore, the creation of machinery for a budget in the Treasury Department, with real power given to the Secretary of the Treasury over the budget, is the first step toward a logical reorganization of the Federal Government to make it conform to business lines. How important it is in these extravagant days that we should begin to apply some of the principles of modern business to the greatest business of all—the business of our government. We are famous the world over for the triumphs and achievements of individuals in private enterprise. It is about time that we gave some attention to the public business."—F. D. Lowden, *Current Opinion*, May, 1920.

See also MARYLAND: 1916-1918; NEW YORK CITY: 1921: City budget; RUSSIA: 1917-1920: Bolshevik finances; RUSSIA, SOVIET CONSTITUTION OF; VIRGINIA: 1918; U. S. A.: 1921 (June); 1922 (July).

ALSO IN: C. W. Collins, *The coming of the budget system* (*South Atlantic Quarterly*, Oct., 1916).—C. W. Collins, *Governmental thrift through a national budget* (*Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, Jan., 1920).—H. S. Chase, *Executive budget in relation to governmental accounting* (1917, *La Salle extension university*).—E. A. Fitzpatrick, *Budget making in a democracy*.—H. G. Villard and W. W. Willoughby, *Canadian budgetary system* (1918).—W. F. Wil-

loughby, *Movement for budgetary reform in the United States* (1919).—F. A. Cleveland and A. E. Buck, *Budget and responsible government* (1920).—L. H. Gulick, *Municipal budget standards* (*American City*, Sept., 1920).—H. C. Adams, *Finance*.—*Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science: National conference on war economy*, July, 1918.—A. E. Buck, *Budget in the model state constitution* (*National Municipal Review*, July, 1921).—A. E. Buck, *Budget Making: A handbook on the forms and procedure of budget making with special reference to states*.

BUDINI, a nomadic tribe which Herodotus describes as anciently inhabiting a region between the Ural mountains and the Caspian sea.—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 17.

BUEA, a trading post of the Cameroons occupied by the British under Dobell during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: a.

BUELL, Don Carlos (1818-1898), American Civil War general serving on the Union side. See U. S. A.: 1861 (July-November); 1862 (January-February: Kentucky-Tennessee); (February-April: Tennessee); (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

BUENA VISTA, Battle of (1847). See MEXICO: 1846-1847.

BUENOS AIRES (area 117,807 sq. m.), the largest and most important province of Argentina, lies west of the La Plata and Atlantic ocean and is separated from Patagonia by the Rio Negro. It is also the most populous, even excluding the federal district. For judicial purposes the province is divided into four districts and for administrative ones into 100. The executive power resides in the governor and vice-governor and the legislative power in a congress. The early history of the province was a struggle for supremacy over the other provinces. In 1820 it became a province of the confederation and in 1880 following an unsuccessful revolt against the federal government, the city of Buenos Aires was federalized and La Plata became the capital of the province. See ARGENTINA.

BUENOS AIRES.—"The city of Buenos Aires (the capital of Argentina and the metropolis of the southern half of the world) is situated on the right bank of the estuary of La Plata. The river is here of great width and the opposite bank is never visible, but though La Plata and the Parana are a magnificent waterway, the harbour has never been very satisfactory, and it is difficult to find channels for vessels drawing 25 feet. The vessels of the Royal Mail Steam Packet used to land their passengers at La Plata, while to this day those of the Pacific Mail Steam Navigation Company only touch at Montevideo and send on their passengers to Buenos Aires by a smaller vessel."—W. A. Hirst, *Argentina*, p. 143.—See also ARGENTINA: Geographic description; LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

Population.—Remarkable growth of the city.—"The growth of Buenos Aires for the first two centuries was very slow, but during the past 60 years it has been remarkable. In 1852 the population was but 76,000; in 1864, it had reached 140,000; by 1887 it had grown to 404,000; by 1900 to 800,000; by 1909 to 1,231,698; and on December 31, 1913, it was 1,484,010. The cosmopolitan character of the city is indicated by the census of 1909, which showed that of the population of that enumeration (1,231,698) 561,985 were of foreign birth. Of these the Italian numbered 277,041; Spaniards, 174,291; Uruguayans, 26,784; French, 25,751; Germans, 7,444; and English,

7,113. The chief factors which have caused this rapid increase in population are (1) the constant influx of immigrants from other countries; (2) the high birth rate that prevails in the city; (3) the very low death rate."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union* (Mar., 1917, p. 283).—The estimated population in 1919 was 1,649,977.

Description of government.—"The municipal government of Buenos Aires is composed of two branches, the legislative and executive. The former is known as the 'concejo deliberante,' corresponding to what is generally called the 'city council' in the United States, and consists of 22 councilors elected by the taxpayers for a period of four years, half of the council retiring by rotation every two years. The members of the council serve gratuitously, and to be eligible to a seat in this important body a citizen must be over 25 years of age, be a registered voter, able to read and write, must have paid into the municipal treasury a direct tax or license for some industrial or commercial business to the amount of not less than 500 pesos paper (about \$212.50 U. S. currency), or be a practitioner of one of the learned professions, and must have been a resident for not less than one year. In the case of a foreigner additional requirements provide that he must know Spanish, have paid not less than 1,000 pesos (\$425 U. S. currency), and have been a resident for not less than five years. To be a qualified voter the citizen must be of lawful age, know how to read and write, have personally presented himself for registration, have paid not less than 100 pesos (\$42.50 U. S. currency) in taxes or license fees, or be a practitioner of one of the learned professions, and have resided in the city for not less than one year prior to his registration. In case he is a foreigner he must have been a resident for not less than two years, and must have paid not less than 200 pesos (\$85 U. S. currency) in taxes or license, or be a practitioner of one of the learned professions. The council meets on January 1 each year and appoints its own president and two vice presidents; it holds two sessions yearly of three months each. The head of the executive branch is the 'intendente municipal,' or mayor, who is appointed by the President of the Republic, subject to the approval of the Senate. He holds office for three years and is eligible for reappointment. The administrative functions of the council relate to finance, public works, public health, and public morality. In its jurisdiction over the financial matters of the city the council determines the taxes to be levied and fixes fines up to 500 pesos for infractions of law. To meet special expenditures the council, with the approval of two-thirds of its members, may contract a loan so long as its indebtedness does not exceed 20 per cent of the assessed valuation of the city's property. Should a loan exceeding that amount be required, the sanction of the National Congress must be obtained. In regard to public works, the council is responsible for the construction of streets, aqueducts, bridges, sewerage systems, parks, and open spaces, and the care and preservation of all municipal works. Under the heading of safety, health, and public morality such matters as lighting, street cleaning, disinfection, approval of plans for the construction of private as well as public buildings, stands for public vehicles, use of streets for tramways and railroads, are included. After an ordinance has been passed by the council it is submitted to the intendente for his approval. Should this not be forthcoming, it is referred back to the council within a period of five working days for reconsideration. Should that body confirm its

previous action, it becomes the duty of the intendente to proclaim it as a municipal ordinance. In case of neglect of duty, malfeasance in office, or other improper conduct on the part of the intendente, the council, by a two-thirds majority, may bring about his dismissal from office. Buenos Aires, in addition to being a municipality, is also the capital of the Argentine Republic, and as such has an intimate connection with the Federal Government. Through the intendente matters pertaining to the welfare of the municipality are presented to the National Congress whenever necessary, and he likewise, as the representative of the National Government is empowered to present to the municipality matters affecting it that have originated in Congress. Other manifestations of this dual character of the city are to be found in the matter of the police and fire departments, which are under the control of the Federal Government, which also meets the expenses of these departments. Certain branches of the educational system, and also the sanitary regulations of the city, carried out by means of a national department of hygiene and a municipal department of public service—the *Asistencia Publica*—are partly national in character."—*Ibid.*, pp. 286-289.

1535-1542.—First and second attempts at founding Buenos Aires unsuccessful.—"Charles V. (of Spain) had too many anxious concerns in Europe to take an active part in organising expeditions to the New World, and he found it convenient to commit the task to wealthy nobles. Pedro de Mendoza obtained a grant of the whole country from the River Plate to the Straits of Magellan, with a salary of 2,000 ducats a year as Governor. . . . In return, he engaged to take out an adequate force and to open up a land route from the Atlantic to the Pacific. In August, 1534, he set sail from Cadiz with eleven ships and 800 men. . . . The fleet entered the River Plate in January, 1535, and Mendoza landed on the right bank and founded the city of Buenos Aires, 'so named in regard of the freshness of the air, and the healthfulness of his men, during their abode there.' . . . the difficulties were insuperable; the Indians were implacably hostile and cut off all foraging parties; the Spaniards had come with inadequate provisions and were frequently in danger of starvation. Many died of their privations, and the site of Buenos Aires was abandoned within a year of its foundation. . . . The estuary of the Plate was subject to sudden storms, and Mendoza, having lost eight ships and being thoroughly wearied by his misfortunes, decided to return home. On the voyage he fell ill and died, and of his large force not more than one hundred and fifty survived their privations and dangers. . . . As successor to Mendoza the Spanish Government appointed Cabeza de Vaca, an experienced adventurer, who sailed from Spain in 1540 with four hundred men. He landed at Santa Catherina in Brazil, and thence made a most adventurous march to Asuncion. . . . He refounded Buenos Aires towards the end of 1542; but the time was not yet ripe for the planting of colonies, and not many months later the city was abandoned for the second time."—*Ibid.*, pp. 26-27.—See also PARAGUAY: 1515-1557.

1580-1650.—Successful settlement.—"The real foundation of the city was effected on June 11, 1580, when Don Juan de Garay reestablished the colony, bringing the settlers with him from Paraguay. The horses that had been abandoned by the first settlers some 40 years before Garay and his companions undertook this second venture had multiplied remarkably in their wild state, thus

demonstrating the existence of rich natural pastures in the vicinity. Assured that in such a region starvation need not be feared, Garay decided to repeople the city. He gave it the name of La Trinidad, and the port he called the Port of Santa Maria de Buenos Aires. The land was systematically divided into lots in the city, the environs being laid off into market gardens and tillage and stock farms; these, after adequate sites for churches, parks and plazas were reserved, were distributed among the settlers. The city plan extended for 16 squares from north to south and nine squares from east to west; beyond this plat came the farms and gardens, bounded on the south by the Riachuelo and on the north by the Rio de la Plata, and farther up by the Parana, where were laid out some of the principal stock farms, all having depth of 1 league. The Querandis again threatened to become troublesome, but before they had time to organize a combination with other tribes in the neighborhood for the purpose of attacking the whites Garay boldly organized a raid on their encampments on the banks of the Riachuelo, some 4 leagues above the city, and the Spaniards killed so many of the natives upon this occasion that this particular portion of the river became known as the Rio de la Mantanza (River of the Massacre). The settlers, however, continued to prosper, and before the close of the sixteenth century Vera y Aragon, while governor, introduced into the colony a number of cattle and sheep imported from Peru. These animals, like the horses, multiplied with extraordinary rapidity, owing to the favorable climate and fine natural pasturage, and thus was laid the foundation of the future pastoral wealth of the great Argentine Republic.—*Bulletin of the Pan-American Union, Mar., 1917, pp. 279-280.*—During the seventeenth century the city grew very slowly due to the short-sighted, selfish colonial policy of the Spanish home government which placed innumerable trade restrictions on it. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1715.—Opened to the English for slave-trade. See ARGENTINA: 1580-1777.

1776.—Viceroyalty of Rio de la Plata.—In 1776 a viceroyalty was formed from the Rio de la Plata provinces with Buenos Aires as the capital.

1778.—Commercial restrictions relaxed.—Under the old system all intercourse with foreign countries except Great Britain and Portugal had been prohibited. Under the new regulations nine ports in Spain and twenty-four in the colonies were declared ports of entry and trade between them was permitted though under many restrictions. Buenos Aires was made one of these ports.

1806.—Buenos Aires captured by the English, retaken by Liniers (1807).—The English hearing from an American sea-captain that the people of Buenos Aires were oppressed by the Spanish government and would welcome the English as liberators, resolved to make an attempt in that quarter. They were further emboldened by the fact that the Spanish had allied themselves to the French in the Napoleonic struggle. After a feeble resistance, the city surrendered and the viceroy fled. The people, learning that they could not depend upon the Spanish royalists, found in the French officer, Jacques de Liniers, a leader. He attacked the English force in 1807 and regained the city. Reinforcements arriving, the English tried to retake the city, but were unsuccessful, losing seventy officers and 1,130 men, and having 1,500 men taken prisoners. Flushed by his success, Liniers the next day sent a flag of truce to the English proposing to surrender all his prisoners if the English would evacuate the province, adding that he could not

be responsible for the safety of the prisoners if the attack were renewed. The terms of surrender were accepted.—See also ARGENTINA: 1806-1820.

1810.—Provisional junta formed. See ARGENTINA: 1806-1820.

1811.—Defense of Paraguay. See PARAGUAY: 1608-1873.

1816.—City, the capital of the Republic of the United Provinces of the river Plata. See ARGENTINA: 1806-1820; 1819-1874.

1817-1818.—Freedom from Spain. See CHILE: 1810-1818.

1821.—University of Buenos Aires founded. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

1851-1859.—Secession of the city.—After the struggle between the dictator Rosas and Urquiza in 1851, Buenos Aires seceded from the republic and till 1859 formed, with the surrounding province, a separate state. See ARGENTINA: 1819-1874.

1880.—Buenos Aires, the capital of Argentina.—By a decree of 1880 Buenos Aires came under the jurisdiction of the national government, was divided from the province bearing its name and definitely made the capital of Argentina.

1892.—Drainage system taken over by the government.—Until 1873 when public sewers were put in by English engineers, sanitary conditions in Buenos Aires were indescribably bad. Cholera and yellow fever epidemics between 1867-1871 carried off more than 40,000 victims. When the drainage system was completed in 1892 it was taken over by the government. The cost of the two systems was more than £6,000,000, but they are operated at a profit and Buenos Aires has a water supply and drainage system which compares favorably with that of any other great city.

1905.—Revolutionary movement suppressed. See ARGENTINA: 1905.

1909.—Assassination of Colonel Falcon. See ARGENTINA: 1909.

1910.—Harbor improvement.—The location of city, owing to the shallowness of the river, demanded the construction of an extensive harbor.

"The premier port of the Argentine, and we might add of South America, is Buenos Ayres, which in extent and connections rivals the finest ports of Europe. . . .

"It consists of two harbours, of which one, situated at the mouth of a little river called Riachuelo, is frequented principally by steamers of light draught and sailing-ships; the other is known as the Port of the Capital, or more commonly Port Madero, from the name of the contractor responsible for the harbour works. The port contains, altogether, four basins and 6½ miles of quays, four of which are situated on the flank of the city. [These docks are able to accommodate about 20,000,000 tons of shipping.] Along these quays are disposed immense warehouses, able to contain 20 millions of tons of merchandise, as well as great flourmills and grain-elevators, with a capacity of more than 200,000 tons, which cost more than £1,000,000 sterling.

"This harbour has cost in all some £7,000,000, and every year a sum of nearly 3 millions of paper piastres, or £200,000, is spent upon the work of maintaining the channel of approach at a proper depth. At the season when the traffic is densest, the port holds as many as 1,400 steamers and sailing-vessels, loading and unloading. It is evident that, with the constant increase of commercial activity, further enlargements will soon be necessary. The Government is at the present moment considering a gigantic scheme of improvement, with a view to which several groups of European contractors have already submitted estimates."

A. B. Martinez and M. Lewandowski, *Argentine in the twentieth century*, pp. 83-84.

1910.—Fourth International American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

BUERO, Juan A., Uruguayan representative at the Peace conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BUFFALO, a city in the state of New York, situated at the eastern extremity of Lake Erie.

Area.—Population.—Industries and commerce.—“Out of small beginnings has come the City of Buffalo of to-day, a great municipality surrounded by highly developed smaller cities, as well as by villages and towns. . . . In place of the muddy roads of earlier days Buffalo now has more than 600 miles of paved streets; instead of the two or three churches of 1820, it has 260 churches, representing the widest freedom of religious thought and belief. The city is located at an elevation of from 580 to 690 feet above the level of the sea. Seventeen different railroads, thirteen of them trunk lines, enter the city. It has seven interurban traction lines, and issues annually building permits of a value in excess of \$10,000,000. It has 66 public schools; three colleges and the University of Buffalo. It has more than 40 parochial schools and several private schools. It has nineteen hospitals and six English daily newspapers.”—D. J. Sweeney, *History of Buffalo and Erie County*, 1914-1919.—According to the preliminary counts of the census of 1920, the population of Buffalo has grown to 505,875. Its area approximates 26,880 acres. “Buffalo is the second largest and important city of the state. It . . . carries an extensive lake trade in iron ore, grain and manufactured products. Buffalo is a well-known live-stock and horse market. It is also a leading wholesale and distributing point for manufactured and agricultural products. The capital investment in manufactures in 1914 amounted to \$243,311,000, while the value of manufactured products for the same year was \$251,103,000.”—*Moody's Analyses of investments* (1919), p. 516.

Aboriginal occupants of the site.—The first inhabitants on and around the site of the city of Buffalo, first mentioned by Champlain during his visit to the Hurons in 1615, were the Attiugandaronk, or Neutral Nation, also called Kah-Rwas (Hurons). They were exterminated by the Iroquois before 1651, and no Indians lived there until the Senecas came. “On Buffalo Creek, some three or four miles from its mouth, the first Seneca Indian villages were established during the Revolutionary War, refugees settling there in 1779-1780, after Sullivan's raid had destroyed their old homes in the Genesee Valley. In earlier epochs the Eries had their home in this region, but, as a nation, they were wiped out of existence in the disastrous campaign with the Senecas in a bloody and decisive battle which took place near the head of Honeoye Lake. In the neighborhood of these villages was built a council house, in which councils of national importance were held and treaties of commensurate significance made. Associated with it are the names of Young King, Farmer's Brother, Red Jacket, and other Indian celebrities.”—D. J. Sweeney, *History of Buffalo and Erie County*, p. 13.—The first white settler was Cornelius Winney, an Indian trader, who, approximately in 1788-1789, built a cabin near the mouth of the creek. (See NEW YORK STATE: 1786-1799.) On his Indian campaign in 1764, Colonel Bradstreet had built Fort Erie across the river.

1781-1832.—Founding and naming of the city.—The city of Buffalo was founded in 1803 by

Joseph Ellicott, agent of the Holland Land Company, which had bought a tract of land (the Holland Purchase), including the site of Buffalo. The latter formed part of the grant of James I to the Plymouth Company in 1625 and that of Charles II to the duke of York in 1664. At the foot of Lake Erie and the head of Niagara river, Joseph Ellicott laid out a town on the style of Washington and named it New Amsterdam. By this name it was known until 1810 when the town of Buffalo was incorporated. As a city it was incorporated in 1832. The name of Buffalo dates from 1781 when an English family heard the Indians call the creek by a name which in English means “Buffalo.” In 1784, in the treaty of Fort Stanwix concluded between the English and the Iroquois, the site is referred to as the “village of Buffalo.”—See also NEW YORK STATE: 1786-1799.

1812-1813.—Destruction by British and Indians in the War of 1812. See U. S. A.: 1812 (September-November); 1813 (December).

1848.—National Free-soil Convention. See U. S. A.: 1848: Free-soil Convention at Buffalo.

1854.—International convention of the Y. M. C. A. delegates. See Y. M. C. A.: 1854-1881.

1866.—Fenian invasion of Canada. See CANADA: 1866-1871.

1877.—Charity organization society established. See CHARITIES: United States: 1877-1908.

1896.—First reception of electric power from Niagara Falls. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Electric power: 1896-1921.

1901.—Pan-American exposition.—The Columbian exposition was a “World's Fair”; that at Buffalo was “Pan-American,”—an exhibition, that is, of the arts, the industries, and all the achievements in civilization of the peoples of the western hemisphere, from Bering strait to cape Horn. Very nearly every country in North, South and Central America took a warmly interested part in the preparations for the exposition, and many erected special buildings for their exhibits. The states of the union were likewise active, and few of them were unrepresented in the numerous buildings on the grounds. Cuba, Porto Rico, and the West Indies generally, as well as Hawaii and the Philippine islands, in their new character as dependencies of the United States, were brought importantly into the scheme.

The enterprise received official endorsement from the Federal government when Congress in July, 1898, by resolution declared that “A Pan-American Exposition will undoubtedly be of vast benefit to the commercial interests of the countries of North, South and Central America, and it merits the approval of Congress, and of the people of the United States.” In March, 1899, Congress appropriated \$500,000 for this purpose.

The grounds of the exposition were in the northern part of the city of Buffalo, taking in a portion of its most beautiful public park. They extended about one mile in length, from north to south, and about half a mile in width, containing 350 acres. A general plan of landscape and building architecture, with which every detail of form and color should be made to harmonize, was worked out at the beginning by a board of the leading architects of the United States, and was adhered to with beautifully harmonious effects.

In one of the circular announcements of the exposition it was said: “In planning the Exposition the management early decided upon giving to electricity special homage. The progress of the electrical science has been so marked in recent years as to excite the wonderment of the scientific world. Buffalo is, perhaps, more than any other city on

the globe, interested in this science, owing to the nearness of Niagara Falls, where the greatest electric power plants known to this class of engineering have been installed. In fact the electrical displays here contemplated would be impossible except where a large volume of power is available, such as Buffalo receives from the great falls of Niagara. . . . The Pan-American Exposition will far surpass former enterprises of this kind in six important features: First, the electrical effects; second, the hydraulic and fountain effects; third, the horticultural, floral and garden effects; fourth, the original sculptural ornamentation; fifth, the color decorations; sixth, the court settings. Particular attention has been given by the designers in the arrangement of its court settings, to provide unusually large vistas, both for the purpose of providing a memorable picture and for the utility reason of accommodating large crowds of people."

The Pan-American exposition was under the management of a strong company of professional and business men in Buffalo, with Mr. John G. Milburn for its president. The director-general was Hon. William I. Buchanan, former United States minister to the Argentine Republic.

The Pan-American exposition at Buffalo opened on May 1. The following characterization of the exposition by a visitor is supplementary:

"They have staged electricity at Buffalo this summer, and they call it the Pan-American Exposition. It took a rectangle of 350 acres for the stage, and over \$10,000,000 for the settings. The result, baldly stated, is the most glorious night scene the world has ever had the fortune to witness. The staging of Niagara is the one unforgettable thing about the affair. The Pan-American is, however, much more than this. . . .

"It may be well to say that the original generic scheme for the exposition, that of joining the three Americas in a unified attempt to show one another their trade resources, seems to be in results far less prominent than was hoped at first. For one reason or another,—I have heard European influences in South America given as a chief cause,—the Latin Americas did not co-operate as was expected. The great trade idea upon which the Pan-American was originally based gradually faded, and gave place to the idea of an electrical beatification—for which the spectator will perhaps be thankful. There are exhibits, to be sure, from most of the South American countries, but the United States occupies industrially foreground, background, and middle distance. The other countries fill in the odd corners. The ardent patriot will see no lack of proportion in this; and as there is a hint of Mexico and the Argentine, and very creditable exhibits by Chile and Honduras, we have enough of the sister continent to justify the name. Most of the southern republics are represented in one way or another. It is hard, however, to explain the insufficiency of Canada's exhibit. It is upon much too small a scale to do credit to her great resources. It is worthy of note that when the other countries realized the importance and beauty of the Pan-American, they set about vigorously to retrieve themselves.

"So the staging of electricity was undertaken. There was Buffalo to start with, and Buffalo is backed in the great race of American cities by the power of Niagara and the commerce of the Lakes. It is delightfully accessible and pleasing. Here was the psychological place. It was also the psychological moment,—a period of general prosperity, a time when America had set about her great task of making commercial vassals of the Old World countries. The psychological idea came with elec-

tricity, and under this happy triad of influences conspiring for success the work was begun.

"The managers took a big rectangle of unused land to the north of a beautiful park, and welded with it the most attractive portion of that park for their groundwork. Then they chartered an effect. They put millions into an attempt to please, and did more, for they have both pleased and startled,—an effect peculiarly delightful to Americans."—E. R. White, *Aspects of the Pan-American exposition* (*Atlantic Monthly*, July, 1901).

The Pan-American exposition may be said to have been paralyzed in the first week of its fifth month by the wanton murder of President McKinley, while it entertained him as its guest. See **McKINLEY, WILLIAM**: 1901.

1912-1919.—**Exhibits.**—**Fine arts.**—In 1912, a child welfare exhibit took place. It had a special department for infants, which demonstrated the complete proper care of the infant, beginning before birth and continuing during the first two years of life. The leading idea was "it is not the babies who are born, but the babies saved that count." In 1919, the Albright art gallery of Buffalo held its thirteenth annual exhibition of American paintings. Groups of paintings by Whistler, Sargent, Tarbell, and Redfield were exhibited. The same year the Buffalo fine arts academy received a gift of \$100,000 from Colonel Charles Clifton.

1913-1921.—**Adoption of the commission form of government.**—**First election.**—**Work accomplished.**—**Failure of attempt to obtain repeal of charter.** See **COMMISSION GOVERNMENT IN AMERICAN CITIES**: 1013-1021.

BUFFER STATE, a small state between two larger ones diminishing the chance of hostilities between them—or, on the other hand, bearing the brunt of their opposing forces. Belgium and Luxemburg occupy such a position in western Europe, and Persia and Afghanistan in Asia.

BUFFON, George Louis Leclerc, Comte de (1707-1788), French naturalist, the author of "L'histoire naturelle" and "Discours sur le style," etc. He devoted most of his time to the study of the physical sciences, mathematics, physics and agriculture, and was elected member of the French Academy of Sciences in 1730. See **FRENCH LITERATURE**: 1750-1785; **EVOLUTION**: Classification of theories.

BUFORD, Abraham (d. 1833), American colonel opposing the British forces in South Carolina. See **U. S. A.**: 1780 (February-August).

BUFORD, John (1826-1863), American Civil War general, fighting on the Union side. See **KANSAS**: 1855: Buford expedition.

BUFORD, The, or "Soviet Ark," a steamship carrying Russian communists deported from the United States in 1919. See **U. S. A.**: 1919 (September-December).

BUG, a river about 450 miles in length rising in eastern Galicia; flows north past Brest-Litovsk, then turns west and empties into the Vistula below Warsaw; its banks were the scene of Russo-German conflict in the World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: III. Eastern front: a, 6; g, 3; g, 7.

BUG BIBLE. See **BIBLE**, **ENGLISH**: Curious misprints in old Bibles.

BUGAEV, B. (1880-), Russian novelist. See **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1905-1921.

BUGEAUD DE LA PICONNERIE, Thomas Robert (1784-1849), duc d'Isly, marshal of France; 1806, commissioned in the army, and rose rapidly through the various Napoleonic campaigns; 1815-1830, active in agricultural pursuits; 1830-1831, July Revolution brought him to the fore, made *maréchal de camp*; opponent of democracy; mem-

ber of the chamber of deputies, 1831, 1834, 1837, 1839; subjugated Algeria, 1836, and signed a treaty with Abd-el-Kader, 1837; appointed governor of Algeria; made marshal of France, 1842; created duke of Isly after his victory of 1844; commanded army of the Alps, 1848-1849.—See also BARBARY STATES: 1830-1846; FRANCE: 1842-1848.

BUGIA. See BOUGIE.

BUGULMA, a town in Russia, 130 miles southwest of Ufa. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: c, 3.

BUKHAREST See BUCHAREST

BUKHARI (Mohammed ibn Isma'il al-Bukhari) (810-872), Arabic historian, the acknowledged authority on traditions from Mohammed. See HISTORY: 21

BUKOVINA, a province of Rumania. Capital, Czernowitz. It is bounded by Galicia on the north, by Bessarabia and Moldavia on the east and south, and by Transylvania and Galicia on the west. It has an area of 4,035 square miles. The leading peoples are Ruthenian and Rumanian. (See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities; WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans, d.) Its early history is obscure. In 1777, Austria acquired it from Turkey, and it became a crownland in 1849

During the World War of 1914-1918, it was twice conquered and lost again by the Russians. The treaty of St. Germain on December 7, 1919, between Austria and the Allies ceded most of Bukovina to Rumania. The northern portion was left to the Ruthenians and placed under Polish suzerainty. As a step towards the centralization of Greater Rumania, the national council of Bukovina was dissolved, and the province divided into departments with prefects nominated directly from Bucharest.—See also ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF; WORLD WAR: 1914: II. Eastern front: d, 3; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; i, 9; 1916: III. Eastern front: a; a, 2; a, 3.

BULAIR, a town on the isthmus connecting Gallipoli with the mainland of Thrace. The Germans and Turks expected the Allies to attempt a landing there, but the latter landed at other points.

Battle of Bulair (1913). See TURKEY: 1912-1913.

BULFIN, Sir Edward Stanislaus (1862-), British general commanding a division of the British Expeditionary Forces in France during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: s, 2; s, 5.

BULGARIA

Geographic description.—Bulgaria is a kingdom of southeastern Europe, situated in the northeast of the Balkan peninsula, and on the Black sea. "The kingdom of Bulgaria forms a part of the mountainous Balkan peninsula. The physiography of the country presents a combination of mountain chains encircling broad and fertile mountain valleys. The average elevation of the kingdom is 1,411 feet above sea-level. The character of the country is determined by the mountain systems. Structurally four well defined sections may be noted: the Danubian table-land in the north, the long chain of the Balkan mountains extending west-east the entire length of the country, the high and elevated mass of the Rilo-Rhodope mountains in the south, and the elevated plains between these two great parallel mountain systems. . . . The peculiar manner in which Bulgaria is broken up into mountain ranges makes it impossible for the streams to mingle, hence there are no consequential rivers in the country. . . . There are no lakes in Bulgaria, although on the higher slopes of the Rilo and Rhodope mountains there are more than 100 small lakelets very similar to the 'sea eyes' in the Carpathian mountains. There are more than 200 hot and mineral springs in the country. The climate of Bulgaria is relatively severe as compared with other parts of Europe in the same latitude, due in the main to the general physiography of the Balkan peninsula. North of the Balkan mountains the plain is exposed to the bitter north winds, and the thermometer sometimes falls as low as twenty-four degrees below zero (Fahrenheit). But the summer heat is less intense because the same range shuts out the hot winds from the south. The Sofia tablelands, although covered with snow in the winter, has a more equable climate than most other parts of the kingdom. The air is bracing, the summer nights are cool, and the maximum temperature is seldom higher than eighty-six degrees or the minimum lower than two degrees. The eastern part of the country, however, suffers from both extremes of heat and cold. The Black Sea sometimes freezes over at Varna, and the eastern coastal plain is exposed to violent winds. The sheltered plain of the Maritza has a comparatively mild

winter, although the summers are hot. January is the coldest month in Bulgaria, and July is the hottest month."—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, pp. 1-10.—See also BALKAN STATES: Geographical position.

Area and population.—The estimated area of Bulgaria in 1920 was 42,000 square miles, and the estimated population 5,000,000. As a result of the treaty of Bucharest in 1913 Bulgaria lost about 273,000 in population with the Dobrudja to Rumania, but gained through cessions from Turkey an added population of about 364,000.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map.

Resources.—**Railroads.**—Bulgaria abounds in natural resources, containing as it does two of the most fertile valleys in the Balkans,—the Danube and the Maritza. In the north it contains extensive forest lands and a great variety of ores; in the south it is the European center for rose-cultivation. While it is primarily an agricultural country with abundant crops, the methods of cultivation are very primitive. The chief products are cereals, grapes, tobacco, fruit and attar of roses. Bulgaria lies on the highroad between Europe and Asia and all the shortest routes must pass through it. Sophia, the capital, is connected by rail with the chief centers of the continent. In 1916 Bulgaria (including Eastern Rumelia) had 1,675 miles of railway belonging to the state and 149 miles belonging to private companies; total 1,824.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map; CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Bulgaria.

Education.—Bulgaria has a University at Sofia with faculties of medicine, law, physics, mathematics, philology and history. Of the three grades of gymnasias there were in 1920 altogether 476 national and 47 private schools, besides 3601 national and 1382 private, elementary schools, 35 institutions for special training, and three institutes for defective children. Education is free and compulsory in the elementary grades between the ages of seven and fourteen. About sixty per cent of the people are literate. For education the state grants a yearly subvention which provides for half the cost (two thirds in the case of the elementary schools) the remainder being provided in the towns

by the municipalities and in the villages by the communal authorities.

Language. See PHILLOGY: 22.

Earliest inhabitants of Bulgaria.—Ancient Thracian-Illyrians.—Reign of Philip of Macedon.—Country brought under Roman influence.—Coming of the Goths and Huns.—“The country that they (the Bulgars) occupy today was inhabited at the dawn of the Christian era by ancient Thracian-Illyrian tribes. They were an agricultural people, governed by democratic local institutions, without national leaders or central organization, the political unit being the tribe. Herodotus wrote concerning them that ‘if they were only ruled by one man, and could only agree among themselves, they would become the greatest of all nations.’ . . . Philip of Macedon brought the warring tribes of the Balkans under his control and federated them into the Macedonian empire. But the union was short-lived; and upon the death of Alexander the Great they ‘returned to the congenial business of flying at one another’s throats.’ For a century the Thracian and Illyrian warriors struggled with the Roman conquerors but the country was finally brought under Roman influence. Shortly after the Roman conquest, hordes of wild and uncouth warriors began to pour into the peninsula. The Goths first ravaged the country; the terrible Huns followed; and in many parts of the Balkans the entire native population perished at the hands of these barbarians.”—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, p. 13.—See BALKAN STATES: Races existing; and Map showing distribution of nationalities; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 3d century.

7th century.—Arrival of the Bulgars in the Balkan peninsula.—“The progress of the Bulgars towards the Balkan peninsula is involved in obscurity. They are first mentioned by name in classical and Armenian sources in 482 as living on steppes to the north of the Black sea amongst other Asiatic tribes, and it has been assumed by some that at the end of the 5th and throughout the 6th century they were associated first with the Huns and later with the Avars and Slavs in the various incursions into and invasions of the eastern empire. [See AVARS: 7th century; SLAVS: Origin.] The Bulgars, like the Huns and Avars who preceded them and like the Magyars and the Turks who followed them, were a tribe from eastern Asia, of the stock known as Mongol or Tartar. The tendency of all these people was to move westwards from Asia into Europe, and this they did at considerable and irregular intervals . . . roughly from the 4th to the 14th centuries. . . . At one time the Bulgars settled in large numbers on the Volga near its confluence with the Kama, and it is presumed that they were well established there in the 5th century. They formed a community of considerable strength and importance, known as Great or White Bulgaria. The Bulgars fused with the later Tartar immigrants from Asia and were consolidated with the powerful kingdom of Kazan. The basins of the rivers Volga and Don and the steppes of eastern Russia proved too confined a space for the legitimate development of Bulgarian energy, and expansion to the west was decided on. A large number of Bulgars therefore detached themselves and began to move south-westward. During the 6th century they seem to have been settled in the country to the north of the Black sea, forming a colony known as Black Bulgaria. During the last quarter of the 6th and the first of the 7th century the various branches of the Bulgar nation, stretching from the Volga to the Danube, were consolidated and kept in control by their prince Kubrat, who fought in be-

half of the Greeks against the Avars. . . . The power of the Bulgars grew as that of the Avars declined, but on the death of Kubrat, in 638, his realm was divided amongst his sons. One of these established himself in Pannonia, where he joined with what was left of the Avars, and there the Bulgars maintained themselves till they were obliterated by the irruption of the Magyars in 893. Another son, Asparukh, settled in Bessarabia, in 640 and some years later passed southward. . . . His successor finally overcame the Greeks . . . captured Varna and definitely established himself between the Danube and the Balkan range in the year 679. From that year the Danube ceased to be the frontier of the eastern empire. The numbers of the Bulgars who settled south of the Danube are not known, but what happened to them is notorious. The well known process, by which the Franks in Gaul were absorbed by the far more numerous indigenous population which they had conquered, was repeated, and the Bulgars became fused with the Slavs. So complete was the fusion, and so preponderating the influence of the subject nationality, that beyond a few personal names no traces of the language of the Bulgars have survived. Modern Bulgarian, except for the Turkish, is purely Slavonic. Not so the Bulgarian nationality; as is so often the case with mongrel products, this race, compared with the Serbs, who are purely Slav, has shown considerably greater virility, cohesion and driving power.”—N. Forbes, *Balkans, a history*, p. 26.—See also DANUBE: B. C. 5th century-A. D. 15th century.

ALSO IN: W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, p. 13.—R. N. Seton-Watson, *Rise of nationality in the Balkans*, pp. 70-71.

8th-9th centuries.—Early Bulgarian rulers.—Conversion of Bulgaria to Christianity.—“One of the earliest Bulgar rulers, concerning whom we have authentic information, is Krum, who, to borrow Gibbon’s phrase, ‘could boast the honour of having slain in battle one of the successors of Augustus and Constantine.’ He captured Sofia, the present capital of the country, in the year 800, and occupied large parts of what are to-day the kingdoms of Servia and Rumania. [See SOFIA.] The Byzantine emperor, in an attempt to drive Krum out of the Balkans, was himself killed and the entire imperial army was annihilated. The victorious Bulgars then marched into Thrace and laid siege to Constantinople. The Byzantine rulers made terms with Krum, offering him a large yearly tribute, quantities of fine clothing, and a fixed number of Greek maidens. Krum conquered the Struma valley, and when he died his rule extended from Adrianople to the Carpathian mountains. The next Bulgarian ruler concerning whom we have reliable information was Omortag. He made an expedition against the Franks, his neighbours on the northwest, and conquered the Drave and the Save river valleys. An inscription on a pillar in the recently destroyed Church of the Forty Martyrs at Tirnovo tells of his execution of Christian missionaries and of his fruitless efforts to prevent the adoption of Christianity by his people. The Christian religion had been spread throughout Bulgaria by the large number of captives, many of whom were priests and bishops, that Omortag and his successors had brought from the Byzantine empire. Bulgaria was, moreover, surrounded by nations that had been converted by the teachings of the two great Slavic missionaries and scholars, Kyril [Cyril] and Method; hence Prince Boris (852-884), for purely political reasons, decided to adopt the religion that had been proscribed by his predecessors. By a formal edict the Christian re-

ligion was adopted in Bulgaria in 964 and Prince Boris was baptized by the Byzantine emperor Michael III. . . . Boris retired to a monastery in 888. He was succeeded first by his son Vladimir and later by his son Simeon."—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, pp. 14-16.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 9th century: Bulgarian church.

ALSO IN: N. Forbes, *Balkans*, pp. 26-27.

861-1014.—Conquest of Albania. See ALBANIA: Medieval period.

9th-10th centuries.—Occupation of Macedonia. See MACEDONIA: 9th and 10th centuries.

9th-10th centuries.—Origin of alphabet. See SLAVS: 9th-10th centuries.

10th-11th centuries.—First Bulgarian kingdom and its overthrow by Basil II.—"The glory of the Bulgarians was confined to a narrow scope both of time and place. In the 9th and 10th centuries they reigned to the south of the Danube, but the more powerful nations that had followed their emigration repelled all return to the north and all progress to the west. . . . In the beginning of the 11th century, the Second Basil [Byzantine or Greek Emperor, 976-1025] who was born in the purple, deserved the appellation of conqueror of the Bulgarians [subdued by his predecessor, John Zimisce, but still rebellious]. His avarice was in some measure gratified by a treasure of 400,000 pounds sterling (10,000 pounds' weight of gold) which he found in the palace of Lychnidus. His cruelty inflicted a cool and exquisite vengeance on 15,000 captives who had been guilty of the defence of their country. They were deprived of sight, but to one of each hundred a single eye was left, that he might conduct his blind country to the presence of their king. Their king is said to have expired of grief and horror; the nation was awed by this terrible example; the Bulgarians were swept away from their settlements, and circumscribed within a narrow province; the surviving chiefs bequeathed to their children the advice of patience and the duty of revenge."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 55.—See also CONSTANTINOPLE: 907-1043; ACIRIDA, KINGDOM OF.

ALSO IN: G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire, from 716 to 1007*, bk. 2, ch. 2.

1096.—Hostilities with the first Crusaders. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099.

12th century.—Second Bulgarian or Wallachian kingdom.—"The reign of Isaac II. [Byzantine or Greek Emperor, 1185-1195] is filled with a series of revolts, caused by his incapable administration and financial rapacity. The most important of these was the great rebellion of the Wallachian and Bulgarian population which occupied the country between Mount Hæmus and the Danube. The immense population of this extensive country now separated itself finally from the government of the Eastern Empire, and its political destinies ceased to be united with those of the Greeks. A new European monarchy, called the Wallachian, or Second Bulgarian kingdom, was formed, which for some time acted an important part in the affairs of the Byzantine Empire, and contributed powerfully to the depression of the Greek race. The sudden importance assumed by the Wallachian population in this revolution, and the great extent of country then occupied by a people who had previously acted no prominent part in the political events of the East, render it necessary to give some account of their previous history. Four different countries are spoken of under the name of Wallachia by the Byzantine writers: Great Wallachia, which was the country round the plain of Thessaly, particularly the southern and south-west-

ern part. White Wallachia, or the modern Bulgaria, which formed the Wallachio-Bulgarian kingdom that revolted from Isaac II.; Black Wallachia, Mavro-Wallachia, or Karabogdon, which is Moldavia; and Hungarovallachia, or the Wallachia of the present day, comprising a part of Transylvania. . . . The question remains undecided whether these Wallachians are the lineal descendants of the Thracian race, who, Strabo tells us, extended as far south as Thessaly, and as far north as to the borders of Pannonia; for of the Thracian language we know nothing"—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires, from 716 to 1453*, bk. 3, ch. 3, sect. 1.—"Whether they were of Slavic origin or of Gaelic or Welsh origin, whether they were the aboriginal inhabitants of the country who had come under the influence of the elder Rome, and had acquired so many Latin words as to overlay their language and to retain little more than the grammatical forms and mould of their own language, or whether they were the descendants of the Latin colonists of Dacia with a large mixture of other peoples, are all questions which have been much controverted. It is remarkable that while no people living on the south of the Balkans appear to be mentioned as Wallachs until the tenth century, when Anna Comnena mentions a village called Ezeban, near Mount Kissavo, occupied by them, almost suddenly we hear of them as a great nation to the south of the Balkans. They spoke a language which differed little from Latin. Thessaly during the twelfth century is usually called Great Wallachia. . . . Besides the Wallachs in Thessaly, whose descendants are now called Kutzo-Wallachs, there were the Wallachs in Dacia, the ancestors of the present Roumanians, and Mavro-Wallachs in Dalmatia. Indeed, according to the Hungarian and Byzantine writers, there were during the twelfth century a series of Wallachian peoples, extending from the Theiss to the Dniester. . . . The word Wallach is used by the Byzantine writers as equivalent to shepherd, and it may be that the common use of a dialect of Latin by all the Wallachs is the only bond of union among the peoples bearing that name. They were all occasionally spoken of by the Byzantine writers as descendants of the Romans."—E. Pears, *Fall of Constantinople*, ch. 3.—"The classical type of feature, so often met with among Roumanian peasants, pleads strongly for the theory of Roman extraction, and . . . the Roumanians . . . often remind me of a type of face chiefly to be seen on cameo ornaments, or ancient signet rings. Take at random a score of individuals from any Roumanian village, and, like a handful of antique gems which have been strewn broadcast over the land, you will there surely find a good choice of classical profiles worthy to be immortalized on agate, onyx, or jasper. An air of plaintive melancholy generally characterizes the Roumanian peasant; it is the melancholy of a long-subjected and oppressed race. . . . Perhaps no other race possesses in such marked degree the blind and immovable sense of nationality which characterizes the Roumanians. They hardly ever mingle with the surrounding races, far less adopt manners and customs foreign to their own. This singular tenacity of the Roumanians to their own dress, manners and customs is probably due to the influence of their religion [the Greek church], which teaches that any divergence from their own established rules is sinful."—E. Gérard, *Transylvania peoples (Contemporary Review, Mar., 1887)*.—See also RUMANIA: B. C. 5th century to 1241.

1203.—Extent of territory. See CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands after 1204.

1258-1872.—Serbian ascendancy.—Subjection to Hungary.—Turkish conquest and rule.—Greek domination in ecclesiastical affairs.—Establishment of Independent church.—“From 1258 onwards Bulgaria may be said to have continued flickering until its final extinction as a state in 1303, but during this period it never had any voice in controlling the destinies of the Balkan peninsula. Owing to the fact that no ruler emerged capable of keeping the distracted country in order, there was a regular *chassé-croisé* of rival princelets, an unceasing tale of political marriages and murders, conspiracies and revolts of feudal nobles all over the country, and perpetual ebb and flow of the boundaries of the warring principalities which tore the fabric of Bulgaria to pieces amongst them. From the point of view of foreign politics this period is characterized generally by the profit of the surrounding states, who enjoyed a sort of rotativist supremacy. It is especially remarkable for the complete ascendancy which Serbia gained in the Balkan peninsula. A Serb, Constantine, grandson of Stephen Nemanja, occupied the Bulgarian throne from 1258 to 1277, and married the granddaughter of John Asen II. After the fall of the Latin Empire of Constantinople in 1261, the Hungarians already masters of Transylvania, combined with the Greeks against Constantine; the latter called the Tartars of southern Russia, at this time at the height of their power, to his help and was victorious, but as a result of his diplomacy the Tartars henceforward played an important part in the Bulgarian welter. Then Constantine married, as his second wife, the daughter of the Greek emperor, and thus again gave Constantinople a voice in his country's affairs. Constantine was followed by a series of upstart rulers, whose activities were cut short by the victories of King Uros II of Serbia (1282-1321), who conquered all Macedonia and wrested it from the Bulgars. In 1285 the Tartars of the Golden Horde swept over Hungary and Bulgaria, but it was from the south that the clouds were rolling up which not much later were to burst over the peninsula. In 1308 the Turks appeared on the Sea of Marmora, and in 1326 established themselves at Brussa. From 1295 to 1322 Bulgaria was presided over by a nobleman of Vidin, Svetoslav, who, unmolested by the Greeks, grown thoughtful in view of the approach of the Turks, was able to maintain rather more order than his subjects were accustomed to. After his death in 1322 chaos again supervened. One of his successors had married the daughter of Uros II of Serbia, but suddenly made an alliance with the Greeks against his brother-in-law Stephen Uros III and despatched his wife to her home. During the war which ensued the unwonted allies were utterly routed by the Serbs at Kustendil in Macedonia in 1330. From 1331 to 1365 Bulgaria was under one John Alexander, a noble of Tartar origin, whose sister became the wife of Serbia's greatest ruler, Stephen Dushan; John Alexander, moreover, recognized Stephen as his suzerain, and from thenceforward Bulgaria was a vassal-state of Serbia. Meanwhile the Turkish storm was gathering fast; Suleiman crossed the Hellespont in 1356, and Murad I made Adrianople his capital in 1361. After the death of John Alexander in 1365 the Hungarians invaded northern Bulgaria [see HUNGARY: 1301-1442], and his successor invoked the help of the Turks against them and also against the Greeks. This was the beginning of the end. The Serbs, during an absence of the Sultan in Asia, undertook an offensive, but were defeated by the Turks near Adrianople in 1371, who captured Sofia in 1382. After this the Serbs formed

a huge southern Slav alliance, in which the Bulgarians refused to join, but, after a temporary success against the Turks in 1387, they were vanquished by them as the result of treachery at the famous battle of Kosovo in 1389. Meanwhile the Turks occupied Nikopolis on the Danube in 1388 and destroyed the Bulgarian capital Tirnovo in 1383, exiling the Patriarch Euthymus to Macedonia. [See TURKEY: 1360-1389.] Thus the state of Bulgaria passed into the hands of the Turks, and its church into those of the Greeks. Many Bulgars adopted Islam, and their descendants are the Pomaks [see also POMAKS] or Bulgarian Mohammedans of the present day. With the subjection of Rumania in 1304 and the defeat of an improvised anti-Turkish crusade from western Europe under Sigismund, King of Hungary, at Nikopolis in 1396 the Turkish conquest was complete, though the battle of Varna was not fought till 1444, nor Constantinople entered until 1453.

From 1303 until 1877 Bulgaria may truthfully be said to have had no history, but nevertheless it could scarcely have been called happy. National life was completely paralysed, and what stood in those days for national consciousness was obliterated. . . . To the races they conquered the Turks offered two alternatives—serfdom or Turkdom; those who could not bring themselves to accept either of these had either to emigrate or take to brigandage and outlawry in the mountains. The Turks literally overlaid the European nationalities of the Balkan peninsula for five hundred years. . . . Of all the Balkan peoples the Bulgarians were the most completely crushed and effaced. . . . Bulgaria was simply annihilated, and its population, already far from homogeneous, was still further varied by numerous Turkish and other Tartar colonies. . . . Bulgaria was the last Balkan state to emancipate itself; it is the least trammelled by prejudices and by what are considered national predilections and racial affinities, while its heterogeneous composition makes it vigorous and enterprising. The treatment of the Christians by the Turks was by no means always the same; generally speaking, it grew worse as the power of the Sultan grew less. During the fifteenth century they were allowed to practice their religion and all their vocations in comparative liberty and peace. But from the sixteenth century onwards the control of the Sultan declined, power became decentralized, the Ottoman Empire grew ever more anarchic and the rule of the provincial governors more despotic. But the Mohammedan conquerors were not the only enemies and oppressors of the Bulgars. The rôle played by the Greeks in Bulgaria during the Turkish dominion was almost as important as that of the Turks themselves. The contempt of the Turks for the Christians, and especially for their religion, was so great that they prudently left the management of it to them, knowing that it would keep them occupied in mutual altercation. From 1303 till 1767 the Bulgarians were under the Greco-Bulgarian Patriarchate of Ohrida, an organization in which all posts, from the highest to the lowest, had to be bought from the Turkish administration at exorbitant and ever-rising prices; the Phanariote Greeks (so called because they originated in the Phanar [lighthouse] quarter at Constantinople) were the only ones who could afford those of the higher posts, with the result that the Church was controlled from Constantinople. In 1767 the independent patriarchates were abolished, and from that date the religious control of the Greeks was as complete as the political control of the Turks. The Greeks did all they could to obliterate the last traces of

Bulgarian nationality which had survived in the Church, and this explains a fact which must never be forgotten, which had its origin in the remotest past, but grew more pronounced at this period, that the individual hatred of Greeks and Bulgars of each other has always been far more intense than their collective hatred of the Turks. . . . Serbia was partially free by 1826, and Greece achieved complete independence in 1830, when the Russian troops, in order to coerce the Turks, occupied part of Bulgaria and advanced as far as Adrianople. Bulgaria, being nearer to and more easily repressed by Constantinople, had to wait, and tentative revolts made about this time were put down with much . . . bloodshed and were followed by wholesale emigrations of Bulgars into Bessarabia and importations of Tartars and Kurds into the vacated districts. . . . During the first half of the nineteenth century there took place a considerable intellectual renaissance in Bulgaria, a movement fostered by wealthy Bulgarian merchants of Bucarest and Odessa. In 1820 a history of Bulgaria was published by a native of that country in Moscow; in 1835 the first school was established in Bulgaria and many others soon followed. It must be remembered that not only was nothing known at that time about Bulgaria and its inhabitants in other countries, but the Bulgars had themselves to be taught who they were. The Bulgarian people in Bulgaria consisted entirely of peasants; there was no Bulgarian upper or middle or 'intelligent' or professional class; those enlightened Bulgars who existed were domiciled in other countries; the Church was in the hands of the Greeks, who vied with the Turks in suppressing Bulgarian nationality. The two committees of Odessa and Bucarest which promoted the enlightenment and emancipation of Bulgaria were dissimilar in composition and in aim; the members of the former were more intent on educational and religious reform, and aimed at the gradual and peaceful regeneration of their country by these means; the latter wished to effect the immediate political emancipation of Bulgaria by violent and, if necessary, warlike means. It was the ecclesiastical question which was solved first. In 1856 the Porte had promised religious reforms tending to the appointment of Bulgarian bishops and the recognition of the Bulgarian language in church and school. But these not being carried through, the Bulgarians took the matter into their own hands, and in 1860 refused any longer to recognize the Patriarch of Constantinople."—N. Forbes, *Balkans*, pp. 44-52.

"On Easter day, 1860, the Bulgarians resident in Constantinople summoned sufficient courage to commit a daring act, and declared the secession of the Bulgarian Church from the control of the Greek patriarchate. So terrified were these ecclesiastical rebels by their own daring that a large number of Bulgarians actually contemplated union with the Roman Church. It was soon evident, however, that they could not carry the mass of their people with them. Already the Pope had named an archbishop from the united Bulgarian Church, but his life was not safe from the moment he began his activities and he finally fled. So extensive were these disturbances that on February 28, 1870, the Porte intervened and founded the Bulgarian exarchate, whose high priest was to be chosen by the people and confirmed by the Sultan. Ecclesiastical was to be followed by civil and political independence."—W. M. Sloane, *Balkans, a laboratory of history*, p. 127.—"The first outstanding event in the recent rise of the Bulgarian race was the acquisition of spiritual independence in

1869-70. Hitherto they, in common with nearly all the Slavs, had belonged to the Greek Church, and had recognized the supremacy of its patriarch at Constantinople, but, as the national idea progressed, the Bulgarians sought to have their own Church. It was in vain that the Greeks protested against this schismatic attempt. The western Powers and Russia favored it; the Porte also was not loth to see the Christians further divided. Early in the year 1870, the Bulgarian Church came into existence, with an Exarch of its own at Constantinople who has survived the numerous attempts of the Greeks to ban him as a schismatic from the Universal Church. The Bulgarians therefore took rank with the other peoples of the Peninsula as a religious entity, the Roumanian and Servian Churches having been constituted early in the century."—J. H. Rose, *Development of the European nations*, pp. 300-301.

1875-1878.—Breaking of the Turkish yoke.—Turkish atrocities.—Russo-Turkish war.—"After the Crimean war many thousands of Moslem Tartars and Circassians from the Crimea were settled on lands belonging to Bulgarian peasants who were not duly compensated for the expropriation of their property. The new settlers were lawless and were the cause of renewed discontent among the Bulgarian peasants with the Turkish government. The discontent of the people found expression in the revolutionary committees organized in Rumania during the dozen years that preceded the Russo-Turkish war. The refusal of the sultan of Turkey to recognize Prince Charles as the rightful ruler of the principalities of Moldavia and Wallachia facilitated the activities of revolutionary bands of Bulgarian emigrants that crossed the Danube and tried to induce the Bulgarian peasants to revolt against the Turkish government. Such agitation with the avowed object of complete emancipation and independence from Turkish rule, gradually extended throughout Bulgaria. Many of the agitators were arrested and executed or sent to prisons in Asia Minor, but their places were quickly filled. The severities practised by the Turks in the suppression of revolutionary movements did not in the least lessen the enthusiasm and spirit of emulation of the members of the revolutionary bands. The year 1876 marks the beginning of the end of Turkish rule. The activities of the patriots in agitating for governmental reforms in their country led the Turks to retaliate with the most oppressive measures. Whole villages were slaughtered; and the Ottoman government justified the actions of its savage soldiers and the brutal bashibozouks on the pretext that they were simply putting down rebellion and restoring peace by armed force."—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, pp. 36-38.

ALSO IN: C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe*, pp. 230-232.

The Constantinople correspondent of the London *Daily News* gave the estimates of Bulgarians slain as varying from 18,000 to 30,000, and the number of villages destroyed at about a hundred. That there was much truth in the statements of the newspaper correspondents was demonstrated beyond possibility of denial as soon as Sir Henry Elliot's despatches were made public. "I am satisfied," wrote Sir Henry Elliot, "that, while great atrocities have been committed, both by Turks upon Christians and Christians upon Turks, the former have been by far the greatest, although the Christians were undoubtedly the first to commence them." Meanwhile, the *Daily News* had resolved on sending out a special commissioner to make an investigation independent of official re-

ports. Mr. J. A. MacGahan, an American, who had been one of that journal's correspondents during the Franco-German War, started in company with Mr. Eugene Schuyler, the great authority on the Central Asian question. They arrived at Philippopolis on the 25th of July. The first of MacGahan's letters was dated July 28. Perhaps the passage which was most frequently in men's mouths at the time was that in which he described the appearance of the mountain village of Batak. "We entered the town. On every side were skulls and skeletons charred among the ruins, or lying entire where they fell in their clothing. There were skeletons of girls and women, with long brown hair hanging to their skulls. We approached the church. There these remains were more frequent, until the ground was literally covered by skeletons, skulls, and putrefying bodies in clothing. Between the church and school there were heaps. The stench was fearful. We entered the churchyard. The sight was more dreadful. The whole churchyard, for three feet deep, was festering with dead bodies, partly covered; hands, legs, arms, and heads projecting in ghastly confusion. I saw many little hands, heads, and feet of children three years of age, and girls with heads covered with beautiful hair. The church was still worse. The floor was covered with rotting bodies quite uncovered. I never imagined anything so fearful. . . . The town had 9,000 inhabitants. There now remain 1,200. Many who had escaped had returned recently, weeping and moaning over their ruined homes. Their sorrowful wailing could be heard half a mile off. Some were digging out the skeletons of loved ones. A woman was sitting moaning over three small skulls, with hair clinging to them, which she had in her lap. The man who did this, Achmed Agra, has been promoted, and is still governor of the district." An exceeding bitter cry of horror and disgust arose throughout the country on the receipt of this terrible news. . . . Mr. Schuyler wrote: "In many cases they surrendered their arms on the first demand. No Turkish women or children were killed in cold blood. No Mussulman women were violated. No Mussulmans were tortured. No purely Turkish village was attacked or burnt. No Mosque was desecrated or destroyed. The Bashi-Bazouks, on the other hand, had burnt about 65 villages, and killed at least 15,000 Bulgarians."—See also TURKEY: 1877-1878, and 1878.

1878.—Treaty of Berlin.—Division and semi-independence of Bulgaria.—It was these terrible massacres of Christian villages in Bulgaria that precipitated the Russo-Turkish war of 1877-1878. Adrianople fell on January 16 and the Russian army marched on towards Constantinople. In a panic of fear the Turks sued for peace. The treaty of San Stefano, dictated by Russia and concluded March 3, 1878, was a severe humiliation for Turkey. The first twelve articles of the treaty of San Stefano related to Bulgaria, and by them Russia had made Bulgaria an autonomous principality tributary to Turkey with wide boundaries reaching from the Danube to the Aegean. Great Britain backed by Austria-Hungary (both of whom had Balkan interests) raised such opposition to the treaty of San Stefano that it was revised by the treaty of Berlin. By this treaty the enlarged state of Bulgaria was cut up. Bulgaria north of the Balkans was created an autonomous principality tributary to Turkey, with a prince elected by the people, confirmed by Turkey with the consent of the Powers. Eastern Rumelia in the South Balkans was separated from Bulgaria and administered by a Christian governor.—See also BALKAN STATES:

1878; TURKEY: 1878; WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: d, 1.

1878-1891.—National progress. See BALKAN STATES: 1878-1891.

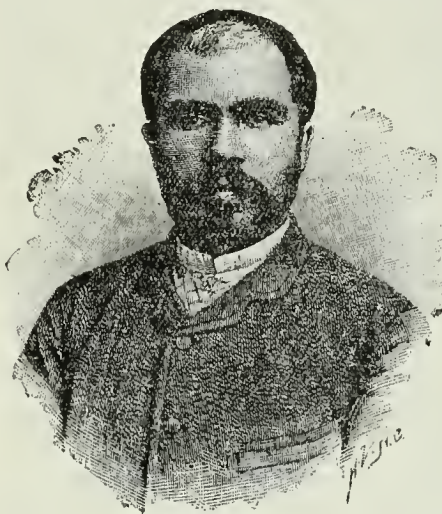
1879.—Alexander appointed Prince of Bulgaria.—Prince Alexander of Battenberg was appointed Prince of Bulgaria, and under him a constitution was adopted and a parliament established.

1885-1886.—Reunion of the two Bulgarias.—Hostility of Russia.—Victorious war with Serbia.—Abduction and abdication of Prince Alexander.—"The Berlin Treaty, by cutting Bulgaria into three pieces, contrary to the desire of her inhabitants, and with utter disregard of both geographical and ethnical fitness, had prepared the ground from which a crop of never-ending agitation was inevitably bound to spring—a crop which the Treaty of San Stefano would have ended in preventing. On either side of the Balkans, both in Bulgaria and in Roumelia, the same desire for union existed. Both parties were agreed as to this, and only differed as to the means by which the end should be attained. The Liberals were of opinion that the course of events ought to be awaited; the unionists, on the other hand, maintained that they should be challenged. It was a few individuals belonging to the latter party and acting with M. Karaveloff, the head of the Bulgarian Cabinet, who prepared and successfully carried out the revolution of September 18, 1885. So unanimously was this movement supported by the whole population, including even the Mussulmans, that it was accomplished and the union proclaimed without the least resistance being encountered, and without the shedding of one drop of blood! Prince Alexander was in no way made aware of what was in preparation; but he knew very well that it would be his duty to place himself at the head of any national movement, and in a proclamation dated the 10th of September, and addressed from Tirnova, the ancient capital, he recommended union and assumed the title of Prince of North and South Bulgaria. [See also THRACE: 1878-1913.] The Porte protested in a circular, dated the 23rd of September, and called upon the Powers who had signed the Treaty of Berlin, to enforce the observance of its stipulations. On the 13th of October, the Powers collectively declare 'that they condemn this violation of the Treaty, and are sure that the Sultan will do all that he can, consistently with his sovereign rights, before resorting to the force which he has at his disposal.' From the moment when there was opposition to the use of force, which even the Porte did not seem in a hurry to employ, the union of the two Bulgarias necessarily became an accomplished fact. . . . Whilst England and Austria both accepted the union of the two Bulgarias as being rendered necessary by the position of affairs, whilst even the Porte (although protesting) was resigned, the Emperor of Russia displayed a passionate hostility to it, not at all in accord with the feelings of the Russian nation. . . . In Russia they had reckoned upon all the liberties guaranteed by the Constitution of Tirnova becoming so many causes of disorder and anarchy, instead of which the Bulgarians were growing accustomed to freedom. Schools were being endowed, the country was progressing in every way, and thus the Bulgarians were becoming less and less fitted for transformation into Russian subjects. Their lot was a preferable one, by far, to that of the people of Russia—henceforth they would refuse to accept the Russian yoke! . . . If, then, Russia wanted to maintain her high-handed policy in Bulgaria, she must oppose the union and hinder

the consolidation of Bulgarian nationality by every means in her power; this she has done without scruple of any sort or kind, as will be shown by a brief epitome of what has happened. [See also SERBIA: 1875-1878.] . . . Serbia, hoping to extend her territory in the direction of Tru and Widdin, and, pleading regard for the Treaty of Berlin and the theory of the balance of power, attacks Bulgaria. On November 14th [17th to 19th?] 1885, Prince Alexander defends the Slivnitza positions [in a three days' battle] with admirable courage and strategic skill. The Roumelian militia, coming in by forced marches of unheard-of length, perform prodigies of valour in the field. Within eight days, i. e., from the 20th to the 28th of November, the Serbian army, far greater in numbers, is driven back into its own territory; the Dragoman Pass is crossed; Pirot is taken by assault; and Prince Alexander is marching on Nisch, when his victorious progress is arrested by the Austrian Minister, under threats of an armed intervention on the part of that country! On December 21st, an armistice is concluded, afterwards made into a treaty of peace, and signed at Bucharest on March 3rd by M. Miyatovitch on behalf of Serbia, by M. Guechoff on behalf of Bulgaria, and by Madjid Pascha for the Sultan. Prince Alexander did all he could to bring about a reconciliation with the Czar and even went so far as to attribute to Russian instructors all the merit of the victories he had just won. The Czar would not yield. Then the Prince turned to the Sultan, and with him succeeded in coming to a direct understanding. The Prince was to be nominated Governor-General of Roumelia; a mixed Commission was to meet and modify the Roumelian statutes; more than this, the Porte was bound to place troops at his disposal, in the event of his being attacked. . . . From that date the Czar swore that he would cause Prince Alexander's downfall. It was said that Prince Alexander of Battenberg had changed into a sword the sceptre which Russia had given him and was going to turn it against his benefactor. Nothing could be more untrue. Up to the very last moment, he did everything he could to disarm the anger of the Czar, but what was wanted from him was this—that he should make Bulgaria an obedient satellite of Russia, and rather than consent to do so he left Sofia. The story of the Prince's dethronement by Russian influence, or, as Lord Salisbury said, by Russian gold, is well known. A handful of malcontent officers, a few cadets of the Ecole Militaire, and some of Zankoff's adherents, banding themselves together, broke into the palace during the night of the 21st of August, seized the Prince, and had him carried off, without escort, to Rahova on the Danube, from thence to Reni in Bessarabia, where he was handed over to the Russians! The conspirators endeavoured to form a government, but the whole country rose against them, in spite of the support openly given them by M. Bogdanoff, the Russian diplomatic agent. On the 3rd of September, a few days after these occurrences, Prince Alexander returned to his capital, welcomed home by the acclamations of the whole people; but in answer to a respectful, not to say too humble, telegram in which he offered to replace his Crown in the hands of the Czar, that potentate replied that he ceased to have any relations with Bulgaria as long as Prince Alexander remained there. Owing to advice which came, no doubt, from Berlin, Prince Alexander decided to abdicate; he did so because of the demands of the Czar and in the interests of Bulgaria."—E. de Laveleye, *Balkan peninsula, Introduction*.—See also WORLD WAR: Causes: Indirect: d:2.

ALSO IN: A. Von Huhn, *Struggle of the Bulgarians*.—J. G. C. Minchin, *Growth of freedom in the Balkan peninsula*.—A. Koch, *Prince Alexander of Battenberg*.

1887-1894.—Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha chosen to succeed Alexander.—Stambolov made prime minister.—His fall from power in 1894.—After the abdication of Alexander, Sept. 8, 1886, a regency was formed and for ten months Bulgarian envoys scoured the capitals of Europe searching for a ruler. The post had been offered to and refused by several possible candidates when it was finally accepted by Prince Ferdinand of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, son of the late Prince August and Princess Clementine, daughter of Louis Philippe, the last king of France. Ferdinand was then 26, a lieutenant in an Austrian Hussar regiment. He was unanimously elected by the Bulgarian National Assembly, July 7, 1887. In choosing the Prince the Bulgarians defied the Russian Tsar who promptly declared that Ferdi-



STEPHAN STAMBOLOV

nand was a usurper. One of his first acts was to appoint Stambolov as his prime minister, the strongest man produced by modern Bulgaria. It was he who, more than any other man, had made Bulgaria what she was—maintained her independence, and crushed, with a relentless hand, the machinations of Russian agitators who flooded the country. "He succeeded in keeping Bulgaria self-dependent. During the earlier years of his rule Ferdinand relied upon him, and, indeed, owed to him his continuance on the throne. He won the pretentious title of 'the Bulgarian Bismarck.' His methods resembled those of his Teutonic prototype in more than one respect. For seven years he was practically dictator of Bulgaria. Russian plots continued. He repressed them pitilessly. His one fundamental principle was Bulgaria for the Bulgarians. His rule was one of terror, of suppression of liberties, of unscrupulousness, directed to patriotic ends. His object was to rid Bulgaria of Russian, as of Turkish, control. Bulgaria under him increased in wealth and population. The army received a modern equipment, universal military service was instituted, commerce was encouraged, railroads were built, popular education begun, and the capital, Sofia, a dirty, wretched Turkish village, made over into one of the at-

tractive capitals of Europe. But Stamboloff made a multitude of enemies, and as a result he fell from power in 1894."—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe*, p. 238.—From the accession of Prince Ferdinand till 1894 the history of Bulgaria was little more than the life of Stambolov, who ruled the country and the Prince as well. But Prince Ferdinand awaited his time and matured his plans. On May 31, 1894, when the news came out that Stambolov had been relieved of his office, Europe experienced a shock of surprise almost as great as when Bismarck had been dismissed. From that day Prince Ferdinand seized the reins and held them with a firm grip until his abdication, Oct. 4, 1918.

1895-1896.—Assassination of Stambolov.—Influence of Russia in Bulgaria.—Prince Boris baptised into the Orthodox Greek Church.—On the 15th of July, 1895, Stambolov was attacked by four assassins in the streets of Sofia, and received wounds from which he died three days afterwards. He had been the soul of Bulgarian nationalism in his refusal to be subservient to Russia; with Stambolov dead, and Prince Ferdinand anxious to patch up his quarrel with the tsar, the Bulgarian government was able to sue for Russia's friendship with complete success. The increasing influence of Russia in Bulgaria was manifested unmistakably on February 14, 1896, when Prince Boris, the infant son and heir of the reigning Prince Ferdinand, was solemnly baptised into the Orthodox Greek Church, the tsar of Russia, represented by proxy at the ceremony, acting as sponsor. This is understood to have been done in opposition to the most earnest remonstrances of the mother of the child, who is an ardent Roman Catholic, the father being nominally the same.

ALSO IN: *Balkan question*, edited by L. Villari, pp. 65-70.

1899.—First Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1899: Constitution.

20th century.—Anarchism.—Interest in Macedonia.—Unsettled conditions. See BALKAN STATES: 1899-1901; MACEDONIA: 20th century.

1900.—Influence of Robert College.—"She (Bulgaria) possessed a double advantage over the other minor states of the Balkans. The founders of the new Bulgaria had been educated in large numbers at Robert College, the American institution of learning at Constantinople, where they had been taught at least the principles of common honesty in public finance, the practise of which had kept her, in marked contrast to both Servia and Greece, mistress of her own purse and independent of foreign financial control. While taxation was not unduly heavy, its proceeds were honestly used to create an efficient army, to improve all the means of transportation throughout the kingdom and to a certain extent, in the up-building of an educational system."—W. M. Sloane, *Balkans, a laboratory of history*, p. 150.

1905.—Commercial treaty with Serbia. See JUGO-SLAVIA: 1865-1917.

1907.—Second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907.—Critical relations with Serbia.—Capitulations abolished. See WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 8.

1908-1909.—Independence from Turkey declared and won.—"In the late summer and fall of 1908, a combination of events was readily turned to account at Sofia and made to furnish the desired occasion for putting an end to the theoretical vassalage of the Bulgarian principality. The Young Turk Revolution came on in July, and the restoration of constitutional government in Turkey caused

some doubt among the Bulgarians as to the effect of this movement upon the acquired status of their country."—W. S. Murray, *Making of the Balkan states*, p. 180.—Bulgaria had been hoping for many years that her own orderly and progressive government, which had contrasted so strongly with the evil of Turkish rule, would entitle her to consideration, and perhaps to an accession of territory, when the time arrived for a definite settlement of the Macedonian question. The reforms introduced or foreshadowed by the Young Turk party threatened to deprive her of any pretext for future intervention. There was therefore nothing to be gained by further acquiescence in the conditions laid down by the Treaty of Berlin in 1878. "Early in September [1908] the Sultan's Foreign Minister, Tewfik Pasha, created a stir by omitting to invite the Bulgarian representative at the Porte, M. Gueshoff, to a dinner in honor of the Constantinople diplomats. This omission being quite unusual, a protest followed, and the Porte explained that only representatives of sovereign states had been invited. Although the Turkish authorities proffered other amends for the neglect, M. Gueshoff was not invited, and his government recalled him from the Turkish capital. Some days following this incident a strike was declared on the Eastern Roumelian section of the Oriental Railway, and the Bulgarian government sent troops and employees to look after the operation of the line. Three days later (September 21) the strike was terminated, but Bulgaria continued her military occupation. When the southern province became practically united with the principality of Bulgaria in 1886 no new arrangement was made affecting Turkey's ownership of the railway in Eastern Roumelia; consequently, by the terms of the treaty of Berlin, Bulgaria possessed no proprietary rights in that part of the line. Subjects of Germany and Austria-Hungary being among the principal shareholders in the company that had been operating the line under a lease from Turkey, these two countries, together with Turkey, made strong protests against the continued Bulgarian occupation of the road. Bulgaria contended that her interests rendered it necessary that she should control that section of the railway, and suggested the possibility of some arrangement with the company. This question, however, was soon merged with others of even more serious moment. Two days after the termination of the strike, Prince Ferdinand was received at Budapest by Emperor Francis Joseph, and the prince is said to have been apprised at this time of the Austro-Hungarian plans for the annexation in the near future (December 2) of Bosnia and Herzegovina. There seems to be some reason for believing that this information hastened the action of Prince Ferdinand. However that may be, he surprised Europe somewhat by issuing a declaration from Tirnovo, October 5th, proclaiming the independence of Bulgaria. In the rather brief declaration read by Prince Ferdinand at the old capital, he pointed out that 'practically independent', the nation was impeded by certain illusions and formal limitations which resulted in a coldness of relations between Bulgaria and Turkey. 'Turkey and Bulgaria,' he continued, 'free and entirely independent of each other, may exist under conditions that will allow them to strengthen their friendly relations and to devote themselves to peaceable internal development.' In this declaration he forestalled any question relating to the territory of Eastern Roumelia (Southern Bulgaria) by proclaiming 'Bulgaria, united since September, 1885, as an independent kingdom.' . . . The Turkish authorities

took rather a calm view of the Bulgarian declaration. A general recognition of the independence of the principality appears to have been, almost from the first, a foregone conclusion. Because of the Eastern Roumelian annual tribute due to Turkey, and the Porte's ownership of the railroad through that province, however, there was a necessity for a settlement between the principality and Turkey on the basis of compensation from Bulgaria. Happily, the government at Sofia was ready to discuss the question of compensation to Turkey. Before the end of the month, England, France and Russia joined (October 27) in a communication, which was approved by Italy and Germany, advising Bulgaria to undertake direct negotiations with the Porte. The Sofia government promptly acted on this advice, and sent a representative, M. Dimitroff, to Constantinople. Within another month, the negotiations at the Turkish capital had resulted in an agreement on the principles that were to form the basis of a settlement. The chief difficulty proved now to be the difference of opinion between the two parties respecting the amount of total indemnity due to Turkey. After several weeks, Bulgaria offered to pay about \$16,400,000; but in the fore part of February, 1909, the Turkish government declined to accept that amount, and demanded a lump sum of \$24,000,000. Bulgaria complained, as she had done before, of Turkey's uncompromising attitude, and refused to pay any more than she had already offered. The efforts of the treaty powers to bring about some compromise utterly failed, for a time, and both Turkey and Bulgaria renewed their warlike demonstrations. After about a fortnight, however, the Russian government hit upon a plan for relieving the tension, and made a definite financial proposition to both governments. Turkey was bound by treaty to pay an annual war indemnity to Russia (on account of Russo-Turkish War, 1877-1878) of about \$1,600,000 without interest. Russia now proposed to relieve Turkey of the obligation to make these yearly payments until the total sum remitted should amount to \$24,000,000—Turkey's claim against Bulgaria. Then, as an offset to this, Russia proposed to accept from Bulgaria in annual installments with interest, a sum aggregating \$16,400,000—the amount of Bulgaria's offer to Turkey. Turkey accepted Russia's proposal, and an agreement to that effect was signed by the Constantinople and St. Petersburg governments, on March 16th. [1909] Bulgaria likewise agreed to the proposition and signed protocols accordingly on April 10th, with Russia and Turkey. The signing of these international documents settled all the claims at issue between the parties. King Ferdinand was the recipient of personal congratulations from European rulers; and within a few days the governments of the great powers formally recognized Bulgaria as an independent kingdom."—W. S. Murray, *Making of the Balkan states*, pp. 180-183.

1908-1913.—Relations with Rumania. See RUMANIA: 1912-1913.

1908-1914.—Fundamental provisions of the constitution.—Unique electoral law.—Main political parties.—Bulgarian constitution was voted by the assembly of Notables on April 29, 1879, at Tirnovo, revised by the grand Sobranje on May 27, 1893, and modified by the proclamation of the Bulgarian kingdom on October 5, 1908. "The fundamental principles of the Bulgarian constitution are (1) separation of governmental authorities into legislative, executive, and judicial; (2) perfect equality of citizens as regards civil and political rights; (3) inviolability of person, residence, property, and correspondence; (4) liberty of conscience, press,

and public meetings; (5) direct and secret universal manhood suffrage; and (6) local self-government. The constitution consists of one hundred sixty-nine clauses, grouped into twenty-two chapters. It follows in the main the constitution of Belgium. Bulgaria is a constitutional monarchy. Heredity descends in the direct male line. The king must profess the national Orthodox faith, only the first and second rulers being released from this obligation. Legislative power is vested in the king in conjunction with the national assembly (sobranje). The king of Bulgaria possesses larger powers than those exercised by most of the constitutional sovereigns of Europe. He appoints and dismisses the members of the ministry but he cannot retain permanently a cabinet which is not in harmony with the national assembly. He is the supreme head of the army, supervises the executive power, and represents the nation in its foreign relations. The executive power is vested in a ministry of ten members, representing the following portfolios: Foreign Affairs and Public Worship, Interior and Public Health, Public Instruction, Finance, Justice, War, Commerce and Industry, Agriculture, Public Works and Communications, and Railways, Posts, and Telegraph. The cabinet is responsible only to the king. The national assembly is composed of two hundred forty-five members elected by manhood suffrage in the proportion of one to twenty thousand of the population of the country. Candidates to the national assembly must be thirty years old and able to read and write. The compensation to members of the assembly from the city where it holds its sessions is three dollars a day; to the other members four dollars a day, including holidays and Sundays. Travelling expenses are also paid. The following classes of male citizens are ineligible to membership in the national assembly; all those engaged in actual military service; members of the clergy; individuals having contracts with the government and those having pecuniary interest in such contracts; and all public officials (members of the cabinet excepted), mayors and assistant mayors, and other persons occupying public posts. The electoral law of Bulgaria is unique. It provides for the representation of minorities in the national assembly, which makes the assembly truly representative of the political sentiments of the nation. The country is divided into electoral districts, but a candidate may stand for election in any one district in the kingdom, upon the petition of ten voters in that district. The ballots are on coloured papers, each party having its own colour, and the party colours are duly registered. The ballots contain the names of the candidates of a particular party. There are, however, black spaces on the ticket, so that a voter may cross out the names of such candidates on the ticket of his party for whom he may not care to vote, and may add names from the tickets of other parties. These coloured ballots are placed in envelopes and deposited in the election box. Bulgarians claim that their system makes easier the counting of the votes and more difficult efforts to tamper with the results. The new election law of 1912 (amending article 120 of the election law of 1911) provides that within five days from the date of the election the district electoral colleges shall in public session tabulate the votes cast in their respective electoral districts. This tabulation shall include (1) the number of all voters registered in the district, (2) the number of votes actually cast at this particular election, (3) the number of valid ballots, (4) the number of spoiled or void ballots, (5) the number of votes cast for the ticket of each polit-

ical party, and (6) the number of votes received by each individual candidate. Upon the basis of the results, the respective electoral colleges determine the election of the candidates to the national assembly in the following manner: The total number of valid ballots cast is divided by the number of representatives to be sent from the respective electoral districts, plus one. If, for example, a given electoral district has a population of 425,000 inhabitants, it will be entitled to send twenty-one representatives to the national assembly, the basis of representation being one assemblyman for twenty thousand of the population. The electoral divisor being obtained by dividing the number of representatives from the district plus one by the total number of votes cast. Each party ticket sends as many of its candidates to the national assembly as that divisor is contained times in the total number of votes cast for that particular party's ticket. If, after such distribution, one or more representatives should remain unallotted, then the first undistributed representative is given to the party receiving the highest average number of votes. In the same way any other undistributed representatives that may remain are apportioned. In case two tickets should have the same number of votes, the choice is determined by lot. . . . The duration of the national assembly is four years. It may be dissolved at any time by the king, but new elections must take place within two months from the date of dissolution. All legislative and financial matters must first be discussed and voted by the *sobranje* and sanctioned by the king. Through his ministers the king may initiate legislative measures, and he may issue regulations having the obligatory force of laws whenever the state is threatened with immediate internal or external danger. Such measures, however, must be adopted by the cabinet since they entail the collective responsibility of all the ministers; and they must be approved by the national assembly at its earliest session.

"The national assembly chooses its own officers, consisting of a president, two vice-presidents, and secretaries. Debates and voting are public, but the chamber may decide to sit with closed doors. Any member of the assembly has the right to introduce bills if he is supported by one-fourth the members present. Bulgarian citizens have the right to petition the national assembly. The national assembly consists of only one chamber. There is, however, a grand national assembly that meets by special convocation to decide on matters touching the revision of the constitution, acquisition of territory, election of a ruler, appointment of a regency, and authorization of the sovereign to accept the government of another state. Its members are elected in precisely the same way as the members of the national assembly, save that the electoral unit for twenty thousand inhabitants is two instead of one. The state budget must be submitted annually for the approval of the national assembly, but it may not strike out or modify any feature of the budget without explaining the reasons which have determined its action. State loans may be contracted only with the consent of the *sobranje*. . . . Local government in Bulgaria is under the control of the ministry of the interior. The kingdom is divided into administrative departments. At the head of each department there is a prefect appointed by royal decree upon the recommendation of the minister of the interior. He is the representative of the central government, and as such represents the executive authority of the kingdom. He is entrusted with the control of the towns and villages in his department. . . .

Town government is the smallest unit in the administrative organization of the country. Every Bulgarian subject must belong to a commune and figure in its registers, the laws of the country not tolerating the state of vagrancy. This law has had the effect of forcing upon the gypsies settled abodes. The administrative bodies in the cities, towns, and rural communities are the municipal councils. The members of the municipal councils are elected by universal suffrage in the same way and subject to the same regulations as the members of the national assembly. All members of the commune who are at least thirty years of age and can read and write are eligible to membership in the municipal council. Those electors who have completed a secondary school course may be elected at the age of twenty-five. . . . The judiciary power of Bulgaria is vested in law courts and magistrates who act in the name of the king. The civil and penal codes of the country are largely based on Ottoman law. The lowest civil and criminal court is that of the justice of the peace. . . . The supreme court, or court of cassation, has its seat at Sofia. It has the power to reverse the judgments of all the other courts of the land on points of law or procedure. It is composed of a president judge, two vice-president, and nine other judges. . . . In addition to the law courts, there are in the kingdom certain special tribunals. Matters touching marriage, divorce, and inheritance are under the direction of the Orthodox, the Mohammedan, the Jewish, and other religious organizations. There are consular courts that deal with all civil and commercial disputes arising between foreign subjects and not involving landed property in Bulgaria. Military courts pass upon all criminal cases involving persons in active service in the army. In spite of the fact that Bulgaria officials received their political education in the two worst schools of political pedagogy in Europe—Turkey and Russia—it is the opinion of competent foreign critics that the country has been better governed than any of the other Balkan states. Frequent newspaper charges of graft and corruption of public officials carry little weight when one recalls the violence of the Sofia press and its rancorous abuse of political opponents. The officials who administer the affairs of state have sometimes blundered and blundered grievously; but when one recalls the difficulties which they have had to face during the brief period of national existence, the marvel is that they have done so well in governmental matters. Mr. William Miller, an English writer, well voices the sentiments of the author in the statement: "With all their faults, and in spite of all their trials and temptations, the peasant statesmen have achieved great triumphs during the comparatively brief period of their country's existence as a practically independent state." —W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, pp. 192-205.

"Following the alienation of Prince Alexander from Russia in 1885, Dragan Zankoff, hitherto a leader in the liberal party, turned against the prince and cast his lot with Russia. This was the origin of the liberal Russophil or Zankovist party, which is to-day represented by Danef and Ludskanoff under the name of the progressive liberal party. The traitorous conduct of Petko Karaveloff during the *coup d'état* of 1886, and the regency that followed caused the breach with Stamboloff and the formation of a new liberal party that is represented to-day by the democratic party under the leadership of Malinoff and Takeff. When Dr. Radoslavoff . . . [afterwards] prime minister, became active in Bulgarian politics, differences be-

tween the other liberal leaders and himself caused a division in the party into liberals (Radoslavist) and national liberals (Stambolovists), the latter now led by Dr. Ghuenadieff. Tontcheff later withdrew from the Radoslavist party and established the young liberal party. Recently the more radical members of the old Karavelist (democratic) party, together with men from other parties, have formed a party called the radical democratic. It will thus be seen that most of the political parties in Bulgaria are the result of splits in the liberal party. There are two sections of the socialist party in Bulgaria—the broad socialist party (shiroki), led by Sakuzoff, and the strict party (tessni), under the leadership of Blagoeff. The most recent political party is the agrarian, organized in consequence of an agitation among the peasant farmers, and under the leadership of Stamboliski and Dragieff.”

—*Ibid.*, p. 206.

1909-1913.—Formation of the Balkan league. See SERBIA: 1909-1913.

1912.—Serbo-Bulgarian pact.—“The Serbo-Bulgarian pact, in the shape of a treaty of alliance and a secret annex, was signed on March 14, 1912 (N. S.), as a conclusion of a series of negotiations following the outbreak of the Turco-Italian war. The treaty, which is published together with other documents by M. Guechoff, former Bulgarian Premier, in his book on the Balkan league, was defensive in character. It definitely guaranteed the support of each party to the other in the event of an attack by one or more states or in the event of any Great Power attempting to invade or annex any part of the then Turkey in Europe in a manner contrary to the vital interests of either party, and it bound the two countries not to conclude peace independently. The secret annex, which turned out to be more important than the actual treaty, foresaw the probability that internal or external difficulties in Turkey itself might render the maintenance of the *status quo* impossible and fixed the terms upon which action might then be taken. In addition it definitely decided the future distribution of any areas acquired either as a result of the defensive treaty or of what may be called the offensive annex. While all territorial gains were to constitute common property, Serbia recognized the right of Bulgaria to the territory east of the Rhodope Mountains and the Struma River, while Bulgaria recognized a similar right of Serbia to the territory north and west of the Shar Dagh. With regard to the area lying between these two boundaries, if the two parties became convinced that the formation of an autonomous province was impossible, then Serbia undertook to ask for nothing beyond a line drawn from Mount Golem on the northeast to Lake Okhrida on the southwest. Bulgaria promised to accept this line if His Majesty the Czar, who was to be requested to arbitrate, decided in its favor. While tentative negotiations between Bulgaria and Greece had taken place as early as May, 1911, these, as also the subsequent conversations, failed to materialize until after the signature of the Serbo-Bulgarian treaty. However, in May, 1912, the Hellenic Government agreed to the Bulgarian proposals, and a definite treaty was signed at Sofia on the 29th of that month. That treaty guaranteed to each of its signatories the support of the other in case of war with Turkey but it is important to remember that it made no arrangement whatever as to the future distribution of the territories to be acquired in a common war. With regard to Montenegro's position, an oral understanding was concluded between that country and Bulgaria in September, 1912.”—*Geographical*

Review, July, 1918, pp. 21, 24.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913.

ALSO IN: V. Savic, *Reconstruction of southeastern Europe*, pp. 179-180.

1912.—First Balkan War.—States involved.—“In August, 1912, the twenty-fifth anniversary of King Ferdinand's arrival in Bulgaria was celebrated with much rejoicing at the ancient capital of Tirnovo, and was marred only by the news of the terrible massacre of Bulgars by Turks at Kochana in Macedonia; this event, however, opportune though mournful, tended considerably to increase the volume of the wave of patriotism which swept through the country. Later in the same month Count Berchtold startled Europe with his ‘progressive decentralization’ scheme of reform for Macedonia. The manner in which this event led to the final arrangements for the declaration of war on Turkey by the four Balkan States is given in full elsewhere. [See TURKEY: 1912-1913.] . . . The Bulgarian army was fully prepared for the fray, and the autumn manoeuvres had permitted the concentration unobserved of a considerable portion of it, ready to strike when the time came. Mobilization was ordered on September 30, 1912. On October 8 Montenegro declared war on Turkey. On October 13, Bulgaria, with the other Balkan States, replied to the remonstrances of Russia and Austria by declaring that its patience was at length exhausted, and that the sword alone was able to enforce proper treatment of the Christian populations in European Turkey. On October 17, Turkey, encouraged by the sudden and unexpected conclusion of peace with Italy after the Libyan war, declared war on Bulgaria and Serbia, and on October 18 King Ferdinand addressed a sentimental exhortation to his people to liberate their fellow-countrymen who were still groaning under the Crescent.”—N. Forbes, *Balkans*, p. 73.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1912: First Balkan war.

1913.—Conference of London.—Treaty.—Indignation of Bulgaria.—“The Conference of London, which took place during the spring of that year [1913], fixed the new Turco-Bulgarian boundary by drawing the famous Enos-Midia line, running between these two places situated on the shores respectively of the Ægean and the Black Sea. This delimitation would have given Bulgaria possession of Adrianople. But meanwhile Greece and especially Serbia, which latter country had been compelled to withdraw from the Adriatic coast by Austria, and was further precluded from ever returning there by the creation of the independent state of Albania, determined to retain possession of all that part of Macedonia, including the whole valley of the Vardar with its important railway, which they had conquered, and thus secure their common frontier. In May, 1913, a military convention was concluded between them, and the Balkan League, the relations between the members of which had been becoming more strained ever since January, finally dissolved. Bulgaria, outraged by this callous disregard of the agreements as to the partition of Macedonia signed a year previously by itself and its ex-allies, did not wait for the result of the arbitration which was actually proceeding in Russia, but in an access of indignation rushed to arms.”—N. Forbes, *Balkans*, pp. 73-74.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1912: Balkan league; and 1912-1913; GREECE: 1912; SALONIKA: 1912-1913.

ALSO IN: J. G. Schurman, *Balkan wars*.

1913.—Second Balkan War.—Treaty of Bucharest.—Treaty of Constantinople.—“This second Balkan war, begun by Bulgaria during the night of June 30, 1913, by a sudden attack on the Serbian army in Macedonia, resulted in its undoing. In

order to defeat the Serbs and Greeks the south-eastern and northern frontiers were denuded of troops. But the totally unforeseen happened. The Serbs were victorious, defeating the Bulgars in Macedonia; the Turks, seeing Thrace empty of Bulgarian troops, re-occupied Adrianople, and the Rumanian army, determined to see fair play before it was too late, invaded Bulgaria from the north and marched on Sofia. By the end of July the campaign was over and Bulgaria had to submit to fate. By the terms of the Treaty of Bucarest, which was concluded on August 10, 1913, Bulgaria obtained a considerable part of Thrace and eastern Macedonia, including a portion of the Ægean coast with the seaport of Dedeağach, but it was forced to 'compensate' Rumania with a slice of its richest province (the districts of Dobrich and Silistria in north-eastern Bulgaria), and it lost central Macedonia, a great part of which it would certainly have been awarded by Russia's arbitration. On September 22, 1913, the Treaty of Constantinople was signed by Bulgaria and Turkey; by its terms Turkey retained possession of Adrianople and of a far larger part of Thrace than its series of ignominious defeats in the autumn of 1912 entitled it to."—N. Forbes, *Balkans*, pp. 76-77.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1913; RUMANIA: 1912-1913; SALONIKA: 1913; SERBIA: 1909-1913.

ALSO IN: W. E. B. Allen, *Turks in Europe*, pp. 227-228.—C. D. Hazen, *Fifty years of Europe*, pp. 312-313.—J. G. Schurman, *Balkan wars*.

1913.—Attempted conversion of the Pomaks.—"In the spring of 1913, after the Turks had lost this region [Rhodope mountains] in the Balkan war, Orthodox priests visited the Pomak villages and forcibly 'converted' the inhabitants to the religion of the national church. After the recent war among the allies, upon the strong representation of the Moslem inhabitants of Bulgaria and Turkey, the Bulgarian government was compelled to repudiate the action of the Orthodox priests, and to forbid any further attempts by force to reconvert the Pomaks to the faith of the national church. This stupid blunder is responsible for the charge of intolerance against the Bulgarians. Rather it should be credited to the clerical Russophil Gueshoff-Daneff ministries and to certain leading ecclesiastics in the Bulgarian Orthodox church. Liberal-minded Bulgars denounced the efforts to forcibly reconvert the Pomaks to the faith of the national church as an outrage on humanity and a grave political error. Witness this published protest from the pen of Anton Strashimiroff, one of the leading Bulgarian men of letters: "Those who stand for the thought and the honour of our country ought to know that our authorities have, in the countries on the frontier inhabited by the Pomaks and recently liberated, acted in a way which is a disgrace to their country and to humanity. One aim alone was kept in sight—that of personal enrichment. Conversion was only a pretext. It did not save the poor Pomaks from atrocious treatment except where the priests with whom they had to deal were conscientious men. Such cases, however, were rare. The ecclesiastical mission was beneath criticism. High rewards were paid, but the priests sent to carry out this task in the Pomak villages were drunkards and criminals who could not be kept in Bulgaria. The behaviour of the police was monstrous. In Bulgaria no one has and no one can have any idea of the atrocities committed by prefects, heads of police, and priests."—W. S. Monroe, *Bulgaria and her people*, p. 213-217.

1913-1914.—Invasion of Albania. See ALBANIA: 1908-1914.

1914.—World War.—Importance of Bulgaria's

geographical position.—"The enormous war importance of Bulgaria was bound up largely with her geographical position. As a result of the Balkan campaigns she became the only state with a frontier contiguous to that of Turkey in Europe and, therefore, the sole country which could attack or through which a land attack could be made upon the European dominions of the Sultan. Equally well, it was by way of Bulgaria alone that officers, technical experts, and supplies could be sent, as they were sent, from Central Europe to Constantinople. Owing to her central, or interior, position the value of Bulgaria was, therefore, out of all proportion even to the high fighting efficiency of her military machine. The position was important to both groups of Powers, but it was Germany who, realizing the necessity of preparing the way for action from the first, left no stone unturned to develop an already advantageous situation in order at least to maintain the neutrality and, if possible, to secure the support of Bulgaria and in the end wrung from Turkey concessions of the greatest value to the Government of King Ferdinand."—*Geographical Review*, July, 1918.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1914.—"It was already apparent to the Bulgarian government that the offer of Macedonia, if made by the Entente, would not be concurred in by the parties most vitally concerned, Serbia and Greece, and could not be carried out by a France and Great Britain impotent to defeat the Turks, or by a Russia incapable of defending Warsaw. On the other hand, the Central Empires promised Bulgaria not only larger Serbian spoils than the Entente had ever contemplated but also a rectification of her Turkish boundary, a liberal financial loan, and immediate military aid by veterans of Mackensen's and Hindenburg's Drives. Ferdinand and Radoslavoff hesitated no longer. On September 6, 1915, they signed at Sofia a secret convention with representatives of the Dual Monarchy, providing for a joint attack upon Serbia and for the territorial rewards to Bulgaria. Bulgaria, in accordance with the secret convention, speedily concluded arrangements with German bankers for an advance of fifty million dollars, of which about half was to be paid forthwith in cash and the remainder applied to outstanding obligations. Likewise, in September, a treaty was signed with the Ottoman Empire, whereby Bulgaria was to receive the corner of European Turkey marked off by the line of the Maritza and Tunja rivers, including the railway station at Karagatch though not Adrianople, and in return was to maintain 'armed neutrality.'"—C. J. Hayes, *Brief history of the great war*, p. 125.—The Bulgarian army was immediately mobilized, ostensibly to maintain the promised "armed neutrality." On Sept. 27, 1915, Serbia informed the British government that it would be wise to attack Bulgaria at once. The next day Sir Edward Grey made the following Statement in the House of Commons: "My official information from the Bulgarian Government is that they have taken up a position of armed neutrality to defend their rights and independence, and that they have no aggressive intentions whatever against Bulgaria's neighbours. It would, perhaps, be well that I should, with the leave of the House, explain quite shortly our view of the Balkan situation. Not only is there no hostility in this country to Bulgaria, but there is traditionally a warm feeling of sympathy for the Bulgarian people. As long, therefore, as Bulgaria does not side with the enemies of Great Britain and her Allies there can be no question of British influence or forces being used in a sense hostile to Bulgarian interests; and, as long as the Bulgarian attitude is

unaggressive, there should be no disturbance of friendly relations. If, on the other hand, the Bulgarian mobilization were to result in Bulgaria assuming an aggressive attitude on the side of our enemies, we are prepared to give to our friends in the Balkans all the support in our power in the manner that would be most welcome to them, in concert with our Allies, without reserve and without qualification. . . . Our policy has been to secure agreement between the Balkan States, which would assure to each of them not only independence, but a brilliant future, based as a general principle on the territorial and political union of kindred nationalities. To secure this agreement we have recognized that the legitimate aspirations of all Balkan States must find satisfaction. The policy of Germany, on the other hand, has been to create for her own purposes disunion and war between the Balkan States. She first made use of Austria-Hungary to precipitate a European war, with the result that that Empire is now completely subordinated to Germany and dependent upon her. Turkey, whose interests would have been preserved by remaining neutral, was gratuitously forced by Germany into this war, and, having been used, is now being subordinated and made dependent upon Germany, in order to realize the German aspiration of German influence from Berlin to Bagdad."—*Nelson's history of the war*, v. xi, pp. 18-19.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 2.

1914.—Internment of Macedonians and Serbians.—Atrocities against Serbians. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: b.

1914-1915.—Attitude of Bulgaria.—"From the moment of the outbreak of the war, and particularly during this second stage in Balkan developments, that is the stage intervening between the entries of Turkey and of Bulgaria, the key to the situation in the latter country lay in the fact that King Ferdinand and his Government were determined to utilize the present conflagration in order to try to regain at least some of the losses suffered in 1913. For them this was not so much a European as a third Balkan War for the independence of Macedonia and of the Bulgars, subject to alien, this time principally Serbian and Greek, rule. It was certain, therefore, that they would give no support without the promise of a large section of southern Macedonia and also as a secondary condition the restoration of a section of the Dobrudja and at least part of the then Turkish Thrace. The bitter antagonism felt by Bulgaria towards Serbia, Greece, and Rumania and particularly towards the first-mentioned country, outweighed the traditional hostility towards Turkey. So long as her future was not adequately secured elsewhere, Bulgaria was unlikely to take up arms against Turkey because her only access to the sea was by way of her Black Sea ports, rendered useless owing to the closing of the Dardanelles, and through Dedeagatch, the railway to which port, according to the Treaty of Constantinople, ran for some miles through Ottoman territory. The great question, therefore, was whether Serbia, Greece, and Rumania would or could be persuaded to restore to Bulgaria areas of territory which she considered should be hers, and whether the Allies would guarantee her possession of districts of now Ottoman territory which they agreed should be allotted to her during the negotiations of the year 1913. . . . The conditions required by Bulgaria soon became pretty clear. On the west the Government of King Ferdinand was intent upon the recognition of the Serho-Bulgarian treaty

of March, 1912, as a basis for discussion. On the south, while claims were made to all the district lying between the Greco-Bulgarian frontier, the Struma valley, and the Aegean, satisfaction would probably have been provided by a rectification of that frontier in such a manner as to give to Bulgaria at least the whole of the Mesta valley and the port of Kavala. On the north, where in 1913 Rumania had claimed, secured, and afterwards seized territory on the south of the Dobrudja, the Bulgarian Government would undoubtedly have agreed to leave to that country the territory, including the town of Silistra, ceded to her by the Protocol of Petrograd in May, 1913, provided the more southerly area, actually seized by Rumania during the second Balkan War, had been restored to its former owners. With regard to the East and in Turkey, as there was obviously no question of negotiation with the Allies, the only feasible arrangement with Bulgaria would have been the giving of a free hand to occupy and retain a part of Thrace, say that situated northwest of the Enos-Midia line, and this I believe was done. . . . Consequently, when tardily and too late the Allies recognized the importance of Bulgaria, the ground for negotiation was extremely unfavorable, and that country had already set a price upon herself which it was far from easy to pay."—*Geographical Review*, July, 1918, pp. 26-29.—See also SERBIA: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1914: III. Balkans: c.

In 1914 "the population numbered about four and one quarter millions of whom more than seventy-five per cent are Bulgarians. Some half-million are Turks, and the remainder are chiefly Rumanians, Greeks, Gypsies and Jews. But what is the Bulgarian himself? He is partly of Slavonic origin mixed with Finnish or Ugrian and Turkish blood but with a pronounced nationality of his own. Nationality is to him a more powerful incentive than racial affinity. He had no inconsiderable number of compatriots under Serbia and Greece, occupying territory adjoining his own and forming a majority of the population there, and for that reason he coveted the districts *they* inhabit. This was so all the more that Bulgaria was stripped of her possessions in the Dobrudscha, and of that portion of Macedonia which was secured to her in a solemn treaty with Greece and Serbia, in the Second Balkan War of 1913. It is not so much race as nationality and a sense of wrong that in 1914 made the Bulgarians hostile to Rumania, Serbia, and Greece."—Earl Loreburn, *How the war came*, p. 36.—In 1915 "Russia took up the tale. On 3rd October the Russian Minister at Sofia, M. Savinsky, was instructed to hand to M. Radoslavov the following note:—'Events which are taking place in Bulgaria at this moment give evidence of the definite decision of King Ferdinand's Government to place the fate of its country in the hands of Germany. The presence of German and Austrian officers at the Ministry of War and on the staffs of the Army, the concentration of troops in the zone bordering on Serbia, and the extensive financial support accepted from our enemies by the Sofia Cabinet no longer leave any doubt as to the object of the present military preparations of Bulgaria. The Powers of the Entente, who have at heart the realization of the aspirations of the Bulgarian people, have on many occasions warned M. Radoslavov that any hostile act against Serbia would be considered as directed against themselves. The assurances given by the head of the Bulgarian Cabinet in reply to these warnings are contradicted by facts. . . . The Russian Minister has therefore received orders to leave

Bulgaria with all the staffs of the Legation and the Consulates if the Bulgarian Government does not within twenty-four hours openly break with the enemies of the Slav cause and of Russia, and does not at once proceed to send away the officers belonging to the armies of States who are at war with the Powers of the Entente.' . . . The reply was unsatisfactory, and the Russian Minister notified M. Radoslavov that diplomatic relations were at an end, a step in which he was presently followed by his French and British colleagues. From this day, 5th October, [1915] we may date Bulgaria's formal entrance into the war. She took some pains to justify her course in a long official pamphlet of which she distributed copies broadcast throughout her towns and villages. It is a curious document. Russia, she declared, was fighting for Constantinople and the Dardanelles; France for Alsace-Lorraine; Britain to ruin Germany; Italy, Serbia, and Montenegro for plunder. The Teutonic Alliance, on the other hand, fought only to maintain the *status quo*, and to ensure peace and progress for the world. Neutrality in the early stages had been advisable. 'Neutrality has enabled us to bring the military and material preparedness of our army to such a pitch as has never before been reached.' The document then embarked on economics. Bulgaria's trade interests were inseparably bound up with Turkey, Germany, and Austro-Hungary. Germany had lent Bulgaria money after the Treaty of Bucharest, and would in future give her financial support. She would be faced with economic collapse unless she took the part of the Central Powers. Serbia was . . . the eternal enemy, and, since she was Russia's darling, Russian and Bulgarian policy must stand in conflict. The Western Allies had offered no real advantages. They had demanded that Bulgaria should place her army unreservedly at their disposal in order to take Constantinople and hand it over to Russia. In return she was to receive some paltry territories in Thrace, and some vague compensations in Macedonia—these latter only on the understanding that Serbia got all she wanted from Austria. . . . On Oct. 19, 1915, an Imperial manifesto issued in Petrograd announced: 'We hereby make known to all our loyal subjects that the treason of Bulgaria to the Slav cause, prepared with perfidy since the beginning of the war, has now, although it seemed to be impossible, become an accomplished fact. The Bulgarian troops have attacked our loyal Ally Serbia, already bleeding in a struggle against a stronger enemy. Russia and the Great Powers our Allies tried to dissuade the Government of Ferdinand of Coburg from taking this fatal step. The realization of the ancient aspirations of the Bulgarian people regarding the annexation of Macedonia was assured to Bulgaria by other means, in conformity with the Slav interests. But underhand methods, prompted by the Germans and fratricidal hatred of the Serbians, triumphed. Bulgaria, our co-religionist, liberated but a short time ago from the yoke of the Turk by the fraternal love of the Russian people, openly took sides with the enemies of the Christian faith, of Slavism, and of Russia. The Russian people regards with sorrow the treason of Bulgaria, which was so near to it until within the last few days, and, with a bleeding heart, it drew its sword against her, leaving the fate of the betrayer of the Slav cause to the just punishment of God.'"—*Nelson's history of the war*, v. xi., pp. 21-23.

1915.—Preparation for war.—Military strength. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b; b, 3; c, 2.

1915 (October 3).—Government manifesto. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: b, 2.

1915 (October).—Attack on British in the Vardar region. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 3, iii.

1915-1916.—Operations against Serbia.—Atrocities. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: a; b; c, 3, i; and Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: b, 3.

1915-1918.—Campaigns in Macedonia. See WORLD WAR: 1915: V. Balkans: c, 3, ii; 1916: V. Balkan theater: b, 1; b, 2, i and iii; 1917: V. Balkan theater: c, 2; 1918: V. Balkan theater: c, 8, i and iii; also Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities, etc.: b, 5; d.

1917 (December).—Armistice with Russia. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: a.

1918.—Represented at Brest-Litovsk treaty of Russia with Central Powers. See BREST-LITOVSK TREATIES: 1918.

1918 (May).—Treaty of Bucharest signed. See BUCHAREST, TREATY OF.

1918 (September).—Surrender of Bulgaria.—Armistice granted.—Bulgaria was the first of the Central Powers to surrender to allied arms. Her surrender was the direct result of a brilliant offensive carried out by French, British, Italian, Greek, Serbian, Czechoslovak and Jugoslav forces under the leadership of General Franchet d'Esperey. The capitulation of Bulgaria meant the isolation of Turkey. The Bulgarians sued for a separate armistice. One containing terms of unconditional surrender was granted on September 30. Bulgaria was to evacuate all allied territory, demobilize her army and turn over to the Allies all means of transport. The Allies were allowed to pass through Bulgaria if necessary to future military operations. Control of the Danube and Bulgarian merchant marine on that river was to be given up. All important strategic points to be occupied by the Allies if they wished. If any part of Bulgaria was taken over it was to be occupied by British, French and Italian troops. The armistice was to remain in operation until a general peace was concluded.—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: a; c; c, 5; c, 6; c, 8, iv; c, 10; and Miscellaneous auxiliary services: I. Armistices: c.

1918.—Cost of the war.—Total casualties. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of war: a; b, 3.

1918.—Abdication of Ferdinand I, in favor of his eldest son, Prince Boris.—"Bulgarians, on account of the situation that has developed in the kingdom . . . I have decided to renounce the royal Bulgarian crown in favor of my eldest son, His Highness, the Prince Royal Boris of Tirnova. . . . I call upon all faithful subjects and true patriots to unite as one man around the throne of the Czar Boris. . . . In withdrawing from my dear Bulgaria, . . . I express to all the Bulgarian people my gratitude for the support they have given in the course of my reign. May the Most High watch with vigilant eyes over the destinies of the Bulgarian people and direct it toward a brilliant future."—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: V. Balkan theater: c, 11.

Boris III (born Jan. 30, 1894) succeeded to the throne October 4, 1918.

1919.—Treaty signed at Neuilly.—Terms.—Settlement of boundaries.—Loss of Ægean littoral.—"The treaty of the allied and associated powers with Bulgaria was signed on Nov. 27 [1919] at Neuilly just outside of Paris. The ceremony was wholly lacking in the pomp that attended the

signing of the treaties of Versailles and St. Germain. The commissioner who signed for Bulgaria was M. Stambuliski. It was this Bulgarian statesman, a man of peasant origin and the leader of the peasant party in Bulgaria, who, when Bulgaria turned on her allies and joined her fortunes with the Central Powers, warned King Ferdinand that he was signing his death warrant. . . . The representatives of two of the allied powers, Serbia and Rumania, were missing though both powers were highly important for the restoration of order in the Balkan peninsula, which the Bulgarian treaty was intended to establish. Both Serbia and Rumania, themselves enemies, had refused to sign the Austrian treaty because of their objection to the provisions for the protection of racial minorities, and the signature of the treaty with Austria was made a condition of the signing of the Bulgarian treaty by the allied powers."—*New York Times Current History*, Jan., 1920.—See also BALKAN STATES: 1921: Bulgaria.

"The terms presented to Bulgaria follow closely the lines laid down in the treaties with Germany and Austria. The parts containing the League of Nations Covenant and those dealing with aerial navigation, trial of offenders against the laws of war, labor, prisoners, and graves are the same in all important respects. Safeguards for minorities are included as in the Polish and Austrian treaties. The army is to be reduced to 20,000 within three months, and the gendarmarie is limited to 10,000. Voluntary enlistment for long terms replaces universal military service. Details of military organization are fixed, the amount of munitions limited, and trade in munitions is prohibited. There may be only one military academy and one munitions factory. The navy, which never amounted to much, is surrendered. Like Germany and Austria, Bulgaria is asked to admit responsibility for all losses and expenses of her enemies, but in view of the inadequacy of her resources, a lump sum of 2,250,000,000 francs (gold) is named as the total reparation to be demanded. An Interallied Commission is to supervise the working out of a plan of half-yearly payments beginning in 1920. . . . Toward Rumania the boundary is to be that of 1914. This leaves to Rumania the 2,960 square miles of the Dobrudja seized for strategic purposes in the Second Balkan War, 1913. During the Great War Bulgaria had occupied all of the Dobrudja to the Danube. The whole of the district is claimed by the Bulgars on historical and nationalistic grounds. . . . The disposition of . . . [Thrace] was one of the most disturbing questions which came before the Conference. The Greeks claimed the entire area of Thrace to the Black Sea, including the portion left to Turkey in 1913, and even Constantinople itself. Their arguments were clearly and temperately set forth in a memorandum submitted by Premier Venizelos to the Peace Conference. He insisted that the attitude of Greece toward Bulgaria had always been conciliatory; but the pretensions of Bulgaria to a Balkan hegemony had been a constant source of trouble. By attacking her allies in 1913, by joining the Central Powers in 1915, by persistent and systematic persecutions and deportations of Greeks in territory under her control, and by atrocious methods of warfare, Bulgaria has forfeited all claims to lenient or generous treatment. Bulgaria had a seacoast on the Black Sea, which, with the neutralization of the Straits, would give a free passage to the Mediterranean. Furthermore, Greece was willing to grant economic access to the Mediterranean across Greek territory in a manner to be guaranteed by the League of Nations.

For the rest, the principle of nationality should govern, and on that basis the Premier declared that the Greeks had the best claim. The Greeks are much more numerous in Thrace than the Bulgars, and they constitute the most progressive and intelligent element in the population. 'There is therefore no reason,' concludes Venizelos, 'why a benevolent disposition should be shown to Bulgaria. She should content herself with the strict justice of the Allies, and nothing more. It would be a flagrant injustice to sacrifice to her the legitimate interests of other peoples. . . . Above all, this would be an act of bad policy. . . . Bulgaria seeks to play in the Balkan Peninsula the part that Prussia has played on the vast European stage.' On the other hand the Bulgarians, who were allowed a much greater freedom in carrying on propaganda than had been accorded Germany or Austria, pleaded to be allowed to keep western Thrace. On nationalistic grounds they even asked for parts of Macedonia held by Serbia and Greece, and for the Dobrudja, held by Rumania. They questioned the accuracy of the figures cited by the Greeks, and the conclusions drawn from them by the Greeks. They claimed as really Bulgarian in nationality the Pomaks, who had become Moslems in the seventeenth century. By transferring these 'Moslem Bulgarians' from the Turkish to the Bulgarian column, and considering only western Thrace, the Bulgar delegates proved to their own satisfaction that there were in the contested district 177,925 Bulgarians as against 107,780 Greeks. They therefore invoked the principle of self-determination, and at the very least demanded a plebiscite. The need of Bulgaria for an economic outlet on the Ægean was also strongly urged."—A. P. Scott, *Introduction to the peace treaties*, pp. 224-233.—See also THRACE: 1918-1921.—Nevertheless, in signing the treaty the Bulgarians lost Thrace and materially changed the boundary line between themselves and Greece. "The Treaty of Neuilly changes Bulgaria's boundaries for the ninth time in half a century. By that treaty the Peasant Kingdom is deprived of its Ægean littoral [Thrace] which goes to Greece; it still has commercial access to the Mediterranean, under certain conditions, through Dedeagatch, but that port has only a poor roadstead where all goods have to be landed or embarked in lighters. . . . Three strips on the west, which are assigned to Serbia, formed part of Bulgaria even under Turkish administration, and are now taken from her for strategic rather than ethnological reasons. [These were given to Serbia in order that she might control the mountain passes and thus prevent in the future such a flank movement as was made by the Bulgarians in 1915 when they cut the Nish-Saloniki railroad down the Vardar valley.] The same may be said of Strumnitza (now also allotted to Serbia), which brought the Bulgarian frontier uncomfortably near the railway running north from Saloniki. The territories lost in the South had been predominantly Greek or Turkish; the proportion of Bulgarians in this area had never been considerable, even after the departure of many coast-dwelling Greeks from 1913 on. To the northwest of Adrianople, a small strip of territory yielded by Turkey in 1915 is retained by Bulgaria; the remainder of her 1915 acquisitions are again lost."—*N. Y. Times Current History*, May, 1920.—See also NEUILLY, TREATY OF (1919); PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part IV: Section VII.

1920.—In commission of the Straits for the control of the Dardanelles.—Desire to control Constantinople. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920:

Part III: Political clauses: The Straits; CONSTANTINOPLE: 1920.

1920-1921.—**Reconstruction.**—Admitted to the League of Nations.—Parliament of 1921.—“As by the Treaty of Neuilly, Bulgaria is prevented from having military conscription and maintaining a large army, a law for Labor conscription has been enacted. . . . The law provides that all Bulgarian citizens of both sexes, who have completed, the men twenty, the women eighteen years of age, are subject to obligatory labor. Men will work sixteen and women ten months. No substitutes are allowed, but everybody who is not physically or mentally incapable must do his bit of work. For religious reasons, which prescribe the seclusion of Mohammedan women, the latter are exempt from this obligatory labor. . . . The aim is: (1) To organize and utilize the social forces in order to increase production and general welfare; (2) To stimulate in all citizens, irrespective of their social and material condition, devotion to public things and love for physical labor; (3) To elevate the people morally and economically by cultivating among the citizens the sentiment of duty to themselves and society, and by teaching them rational methods of work in all the domains of national economy.—This labor conscription, as well as the project of expropriating the surplus land of individuals who cannot cultivate it themselves, is dictated not only by the necessity of increasing production, but also by that of providing the many thousands of refugees with homesteads and land. Owing to the cession of Eastern and Western Thrace to Greece, of Macedonia to Serbia and Greece, and of Dobrudja to Rumania, thousands of Bulgarians have been forced to abandon their homes and seek refuge in Bulgaria. The number of these unfortunate exiles may be safely estimated at between 250,000 and 300,000.”—T. Vladimiroff, *Bulgaria's novel methods of reconstruction*, (*N. Y. Times Current History*, Nov., 1920).

“The law of labor, he [Premier Stambolisky] said, recently voted by the Bulgarian Parliament, which made it compulsory for all Bulgarians to render their services to the state during a period of one year, would enable the government to develop and cultivate large areas of valuable land, which, for the lack of labor, had not been touched in the past; to build up roads between towns and villages, to help in undertaking large state enterprises, and in general to cure all war wounds. Every facility, he added, would be given foreign capital and foreign industrial enterprises for exploitation.”—*N. Y. Times Current History*, Dec., 1920, p. 435.—“Jugoslavia on Feb. 15 formally complained to the Supreme Council that Bulgaria was not carrying out the terms of the Treaty of Neuilly, particularly those clauses relating to restitutions to be made to Serbia. It was also pointed out, in a note to the Council of the League of Nations, that no sooner had Bulgaria's position as a member of the League been assured than, by a new application of the Law for Compulsory Labor, she had repudiated Article 65 of the treaty, which abolished compulsory military training, and by a ministerial decree issued Dec. 29, 1920, had transgressed Articles 66 and 67, which stipulated respectively that the Bulgar army should be limited to 20,000 men and that the largest military unit should be the division. Belgrade alleged that the army had grown to 45,000 men, that the country had been divided into three military regions, each of which contained a division, officially scheduled as a ‘regiment.’ It was also alleged that Article 78, which limits fortified places, had been violated. Bulgaria never had any for-

tified places, but hastened, it is said, to create five, now armed by heavy field and mountain artillery, which, according to Article 77, should have been handed over to the Allies. In the same way 10,000 rifles were retained when the treaty permits only 37,950.”—*Jugo-Slavia complains about Bulgaria* (*N. Y. Times Current History*, April, 1921).

“Bulgaria was admitted to the League of Nations at the session of December 9, 1920. A factor which influenced this result was the receipt of a report from Marshall Foch declaring that Bulgaria had done more than any other of the Central powers to fulfill the terms of the treaty.”—*League assembly* (*N. Y. Times Current History*, Jan., 1921).—See also LEAGUE OF NATIONS: First meeting of the assembly.—“The fifty avowed communists in the Sobranje out of 230 deputies fought against a project of law introduced by Premier Stambolisky for the drastic suppression of all local or foreign propagandists who aim at the overthrow of the existing constitutional and social order. As Bulgaria possesses no considerable urban industries and is a country of small peasant holdings with few large landed properties, there was little ground on which Bolshevism could take permanent root.”—*N. Y. Times Current History*, November, 1920.—“The present Sobranje, or Parliament, is made up of 216 Deputies, ranged as follows: Peasants, 120; Communists, 42; Democrats, 21; Popular Progressives, 21; Radical Democrats, 8; Social Democrats, 8, and National Liberals, 6. The rural representation is not astonishing when it is considered that 80 per cent. of the present Bulgar population of 5,001,000 are peasants, but that the urban population of the remaining 20 per cent. should have returned so large a representation of communists has been of grave concern to the Government.”—*Bulgaria counts on a new Sèvres treaty* (*N. Y. Times Current History*, April, 1921).

“According to advices reaching Sophia from Warsaw, M. Stambolisky spent the Christmas holidays at Zakopane with the Polish prime minister, M. Witos and proposed an *entente* between the peasant organizations of central and eastern Europe as the best mode of obstruction to the spread of Bolshevism on the one hand and reactionism on the other. His idea was called a ‘Green Internationale.’”—*N. Y. Times Current History*, February, 1921.

“**BULGARIAN BISMARCK.**” See STAMBOLSKY, STEFAN.

BULGARIAN CHURCH.—The Bulgarian people were converted to Christianity in the ninth century, being of the same communion as the Greek Orthodox church. Until 1870 the Bulgarians recognized the supremacy of the patriarch at Constantinople, but at that time, after some years of restlessness they seceded from the control of the patriarch and the Bulgarian church as such came into existence. See BULGARIA: 1258-1872; CHRISTIANITY: 9th century; Bulgarian church.

BULGARIANS: Ancient peoples. See BALKAN STATES: Races existing.

7th century.—Settle Bulgaria. See BULGARIA: 7th century.

National characteristics. See BALKAN STATES: 19th century.

BULKELEY, Morgan G., governor of Connecticut, 1880-1893, Republican. See CONNECTICUT: 1890-1892.

BULL, John (1562-1628), one of the great English musicians of the Elizabethan period. In 1591 he became organist of the Chapel Royal; 1596, appointed first professor of music at Gresham

College. He was a remarkable performer, a thorough contrapuntist and a prolific composer.

BULL, Golden, of Charles IV (1356). See **GERMANY**: 1347-1493.

BULL MOOSE.—This name was applied to Theodore Roosevelt in the campaign of 1912. Some of his friends had been a bit worried about his health. One of them asked him one morning how he was feeling. He is said to have replied, "I feel as fit as a three year old bull moose." Cartoonists and newspaper reporters took up the phrase, and the Roosevelt faction, later the Progressive party, became known as the Bull Moose party. The head of a moose took place along side the Republican elephant and the Democratic donkey as a recognized political emblem.—See also **U. S. A.**: 1912; Woodrow Wilson and the election.

BULL RING RIOTS. See **BIRMINGHAM**: 1839.

BULL RUN, or **Manassas, First Battle of**. See **U. S. A.**: 1861 (July; Virginia).

Second Battle of. See **U. S. A.**: 1862 (August-September; Virginia): End of General Pope's campaign.

BULLARD, Robert Lee (1861-), American general. Successively commander of brigade, division, army corps and army in the American Expeditionary Forces; one of Pershing's principal generals in 1918 during World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: g, 9, iii; v, 1.

BULLECOURT, a village near Arras, north-eastern France, where in 1917, German trenches were taken by the Australians during World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: II. Western front: c, 17; g, 5; 1918: II. Western front: c; k, 3.

BULLEN, Anne. See **BOLEYN**, Anne.

BULLETS, Expanding, use in warfare a violation of international law. See **DUM-DUM BULLET**; **HAGUE CONFERENCES**: 1899: Conference, Convention with respect to the laws and customs of war on land.

BULLITT, William C., American journalist. Entered state department to work in the division of Western European affairs; 1918, went to Paris as a member of the staff of the peace commission; 1919, left for Russia at the request of the Secretary of State to study conditions there. See **U. S. A.**: 1920 (December).

BULLS (in stock market). See **STOCK EXCHANGE**.

BULLS, Papal.—The name is derived from the Latin word *bullā*, meaning a circular plate or boss of metal. In the Middle Ages, it was applied to the seals of papal and royal documents, and later to the documents themselves, which is the present use. Since the fifteenth century, the term has been restricted to a special type of papal documents, authenticated by leaden seals, in which the pope invariably takes the title of *episcopus, servus servorum Dei* (overseer, servant of the servants of God). Bulls are distinguished from briefs, which dispense with certain formalities and are sealed in wax with the ring of the fisherman. Since the development of the international postal system, the leaden seal is often replaced by a seal bearing the same device in red ink. The various types of papal documents, such as constitutions, encyclicals, decretals, rescripts, privileges and apostolic letters of different sorts, technically distinguished from one another, all apparently took the form of bulls down to the fifteenth century. The use of the bull has now become less common. The rules governing its issuance are so intricate, and the process so cumbersome and expensive, that the less formally prepared documents are employed, except where an unusual amount of ceremony is

considered necessary. (See also **GERMANY**: 1347-1493; **JESUITS**: 1761-1769; 1769-1871; **PAPACY**: 1294-1348.) Of the many papal bulls that have been issued, the following are among the most noteworthy:

1155.—"Laudabiliter."—Published by Pope Adrian IV in 1155 authorizing the subjugation of Ireland by King Henry II of England.

1296.—*Clericis Laicos*.—Published by Pope Boniface VIII, February 24, 1296, forbidding "the clergy to pay and the secular powers to exact, under penalty of excommunication, contributions or taxes, tenths, twentieths, hundreds, or the like, from the revenues or the goods of the churches or their ministers."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 14.—See also **PAPACY**: 1294-1348.

ALSO IN: E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 4, no. 6.

1301.—*Ausculata Fili and Salvator Mundi*. See **PAPACY**: 1294-1348.

1492.—*Demarcation of Alexander VI*. See **AMERICA**: 1492.

1520.—*Exurge Domine*.—Published by Leo X in 1520 against Luther's propositions. See **PAPACY**: 1517-1521.

1713.—*Unigenitus*.—Published by Pope Clement XI in 1713, condemning the work of Pasquier Quesnel who in 1671 published a book containing the four gospels with Jansenistic notes.—See also **CONVULSIONISTS**; **PORT ROYAL AND THE JANSENISTS**: 1702-1715.

1765.—*Apostolicum*. See **JESUITS**: 1761-1769.

1773.—*Dominus ac Redemptor Noster*. See **JESUITS**: 1760-1871.

1814.—*Solicitudo Omnium*.—Published by Pope Pius VIII, restoring the order of the Jesuits which had been abolished by the papal bull of 1773. See **JESUITS**: 1769-1871.

1854.—*Ineffabilis*.—Published by Pope Pius IX in 1854. It proclaimed the doctrine of the Immaculate Conception of Mary, the mother of Jesus. See **PAPACY**: 1854.

1869.—*Apostolicæ sedis*.—Published by Pope Pius IX in 1869, regulating censures and reservations. It is practically the present penal code of the Roman Catholic church. See **PAPACY**: 1869-1870.

1870.—*Pastor Aeternus*.—Published by Pope Pius IX in 1870, declaring and defining the doctrine of papal infallibility. See **PAPACY**: 1869-1870.

BULOW, Bernhard Heinrich Karl Martin, Prince von (1849-), German statesman. Was chancellor, 1900-1909; vainly tried by diplomacy to avert Italy's entry into the World War (1915).—See also **ENGLAND**: 1912; **GERMANY**: 1900 (October 18); 1900-1909; **PAN-GERMANISM**: German presentation of; **WAR, PREPARATION FOR**: 1909: German side of navy building.

BULOW, Friedrich Wilhelm, Freiherr von (1755-1816), Prussian general. In 1813 he defeated Oudinot at Luckau and at Grossbeeren and Ney, at Dennewitz; also fought at Leipsic; in 1814 served at Laon and Montmartre; at capitulation of Soissons; in 1815 took part in the final struggle at Waterloo.—See also **GERMANY**: 1813 (October-December); **NETHERLANDS**: 1813; **FRANCE**: 1814 (January-March).

BULOW, Fritz von, German general in the World War. Took active part in the 1914 invasion of France, commanding the army on the left of von Kluck at the Marne.—See also **BELGIUM**: 1914-1918; **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: a; g, 2; p; p, 4, 7; 1915: III. Eastern front: g, 6; h; i, 7; 1918: II. Western front: e, 33; Miscellaneous

auxiliary services: X. Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 3.

BULOW, Karl von (1846-1921), German field-marshal. Served in the Sadowa campaign, 1866, and the Franco-German war, 1870-1871; commanded the Second German Army in the invasion of Belgium, 1914, and later the First and Seventh armies during the retreat from the Marne to the Aisne, Sept., 1914. See *WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: g, 2.*

BULTFONTEIN, town in Orange Free State, South Africa. Scene of Boer rebellion, Nov. 15, 1914. See *WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: b, 1.*

BULWER-LYTTON, Edward George. See *LYTTON, EDWARD GEORGE EARLE LYTTON, BULWER-LYTTON, 1ST BARON.*

BUMMERS, Sherman's. See *U. S. A.: 1864 (November-December: Georgia).*

BUNAU-VARILLA, Philippe (1859-), French engineer. Influential in securing the independence of Panama and Panama treaty. See *PANAMA CANAL: 1880-1903; U. S. A.: 1914-1921.*

BUND, German: Framed by Congress of Vienna (1815). See *SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Germany: 1800-1840.*

BUNDES-RAT.—The laws that governed the German empire were made by two bodies—the Bundesrat and the Reichstag. The Bundesrat was a kind of diplomatic assembly. It represented the rulers of the 25 states of which the empire consisted, being composed of delegates appointed by the rulers. The states of Germany were not represented equally in the Bundesrat. Of 61 members, Prussia had 17, and the 3 votes allotted to Alsace-Lorraine since 1911 were "instructed" by the emperor. Thus Prussia had 20, Bavaria had 6, Saxony and Württemberg 4 each, others 3 or 2 and 17 of the states had only 1 apiece. Inasmuch as each state delegation voted as a unit as the ruler ordered, the Bundesrat was in reality an assembly of the sovereigns of Germany, responsible only to themselves. It was the most important element of the legislature, as most legislation began in it; and every bill passed by the Reichstag was, after that, submitted to it for ratification or rejection. Thus the princes of Germany had an absolute veto upon the only popular element in the government, the Reichstag. Representing the princes of Germany, the Bundesrat was a thoroughly monarchical institution, a bulwark of the monarchical order. The proceedings of this princely assembly were secret. After the revolution of 1910, the Bundesrat became the National Council or Reichsrat. See *GERMANY: 1885; GERMANY: CONSTITUTION OF THE REPUBLIC; also CHANCELLOR, German Imperial.*

In Switzerland. See *SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Switzerland: 1830-1848.*

BUNDESSTAAT. See *FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Classification of; GERMANY: 1814-1820.*

BUNDI. See *BOONDI.*

BUNDSCHUH INSURRECTIONS, peasant risings in Germany. See *GERMANY: 1492-1514.*

BUNDY, Omar (1861-), American general. In 1918, during World War, he commanded the Second Division at Belleau Wood; was later a corps commander. See *WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 2, 3.*

BUNKER HILL, Battle of. See *U. S. A.: 1775 (June).*

BUNSEN, Christian Charles Josias, Baron von (1791-1860), Prussian writer and diplomat. Was for thirteen years ambassador to England and for two years to Switzerland; took active part in scholarly research and in ecclesiastical affairs.

BUNSEN, Sir Maurice de (William Ernest) (1851-), British statesman. Reports on conditions in Austria. See *WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 68.*

BUNSEN, Robert Wilhelm (1811-1899), a distinguished German teacher and chemist; in joint research with Kirchhoff, he introduced a system of spectrum analysis by means of which he discovered caesium and rubidium; his flame tests have also introduced a new method in analytical chemistry; his burner, bearing his name, is only one of his many simple and efficient laboratory devices which are in use to-day, the principle of the burner having also been utilized for household cooking purposes. His researches led to the acceptance of the idea of radicals existing in compounds, one of the fundamental principles of modern organic chemistry; he is also generally regarded as the founder of modern gas analysis; his invention of the ice calorimeter is among the greatest of his contributions, for it is found almost indispensable in thermo-chemical determinations.—See also *CHEMISTRY: Inventions: Modern: Lavoisier; INVENTIONS: 19th century: Artificial light, Instruments.*

BUNYAN, John (1628-1688), English writer. He enlisted in the Parliamentary army in 1645. "After the Restoration he attempted to continue his preaching, notwithstanding the laws against Dissenters, and as a result was imprisoned for a long time in Bedford jail. From his prison he sent out a series of religious tracts and other works. In 1678 appeared his *Pilgrim's Progress*, the most popular allegorical work ever written."—*E. P. Cheney, Short history of England, p. 492.*

BUONARROTI, Michelagnolo. See *MICHEL-ANGELO.*

BUNDELMONTI. See *BONAPARTE FAMILY; FLORENCE: 1215-1250; ITALY: 1215.*

BURCHARD, Samuel Dickinson (1812-1891), American clergyman. See *RUM, ROMANISM and REBELLION.*

BURCHERSDORP, town in Cape Colony, South Africa, occupied by Boers during South African War, 1899-1902. See *SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF: 1890 (October-November).*

BURDEN, Benjamin: Grant of land in West Virginia. See *WEST VIRGINIA: 1732-1770.*

BURDETT, Sir Francis (1770-1844), English liberal politician. See *ENGLAND: 1830: Reform movement: Rise of popular opinion.*

BUREAUCRACY: In Austria. See *AUSTRIA: 1840-1859.*

In China. See *CHINA: 1662-1838.*

In Japan. See *JAPAN: 1918-1921.*

In Peru among the Incas. See *PERU: 1200-1527.*

In Russia. See *RUSSIA: 1906-1911; 1909-1911; 1914-1915.*

BURGENLAND.—"The other territorial clause [in the Treaty of Versailles] to be put into effect—as stipulated also in the Treaty of St. Germain—was the cession of Burgenland, or the three westernmost counties of Hungary, inhabited by Germans, to the Austrian Republic. This should have taken place on Aug. 22 [1921], but when, after several postponements, an Austrian force entered the district, on Aug. 28, it was met with violent resistance by armed bands of Hungarians. Skirmishing continued for several days; the Hungarian irregulars, besides fighting the Austrian gendarmerie, committed a series of atrocities against the peaceable German population. This led to energetic protests on the part of the Austrian Government, which accused the Magyar Government of bad faith, and demanded that the transfer be

enforced and Burgenland cleared of Magyar soldiers by Entente troops, as Austria had fulfilled her obligations under the treaty of peace and disarmed, whereas Hungary still maintains a large army. The situation was rendered more serious on Sept. 11, when Burgenland was occupied, not by Entente troops, but by a detachment of the regular Hungarian Army. The territory in dispute has an area of 1,700 square miles and a population under 350,000. The proximity of Burgenland to Vienna, with the remarkable productivity of this small strip in respect to milk, fruit, vegetables, poultry, eggs, cereals, potatoes, sugar and wine, gives it especial importance to the Viennese, and as it now belongs to the Austrians by treaty rights, they are determined to hold it at all hazards."—*New York Times Current History, October, 1921, p. 160.*—On Jan. 1, 1922, Oedenburg, principal city of Burgenland, was handed over to Hungary by the Interallied commission which had conducted a plebiscite there. In April, 1922, Hungarian troops were still invading Austrian territory in Burgenland and the Hungarian government was making claims before the Interallied Boundary Commission for more than one-fourth of the disputed territory.

BURGESSES, House of, the legislative body in certain of the American colonies, notably influential in Virginia. See VIRGINIA: 1660-1769.

BURGGRAF, a lieutenant appointed to the command of a burg. In the Middle Ages, particularly in Germany, he was more like a feudal lord or prince. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: 1000-1300.

BURGH, Hubert de (d. 1243), English statesman, chief justiciar and regent for Henry III. See ENGLAND: 1216-1272.

BURGH, or **BURGI**, or **BURH**. See BOROUGH.

BURGHLEY, William Cecil, 1st Baron (1520-1598), English statesman and chief councillor of Queen Elizabeth for forty years; in 1571 created baron. See ENGLAND: 1558-1598.

BURGOS, Antonio, Panaman representative at Peace conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BURGOS, city in Spain, formerly the capital of old Castile, 130 miles north of Madrid; was the scene of severe fighting in the Peninsular War. See SPAIN: 1808 (September-December).

BURGOYNE, John (1722-1792), English general and dramatist. In 1759 introduced light cavalry into the British army; in 1761 was a member of parliament; in 1762 fought as a brigadier-general in Portugal; in 1768 again served in parliament and began to write plays; in 1777 led a force from Canada through northern New York, and after initial successes, was defeated by the Americans at the decisive battle of Saratoga and forced to surrender; spent his later years as a successful dramatist; father of Field Marshal Sir John Fox Burgoyne.—See also U. S. A.: 1775 (April-May); 1775 (June); 1777 (July-October).

BURGOYNE, Sir John Fox (1782-1871), British field marshal. Was an illegitimate son of General John Burgoyne; won distinction as a military engineer, serving in Egypt, Sweden, Portugal and America (at New Orleans, 1815); in charge of engineering operations at the siege of Sebastopol (1854-1855); became field marshal in 1868.

BURGUNDIANS: Origin and early history.—"About the middle of the fourth century, the countries, perhaps of Lusace and Thuringia, on either side of the Elbe, were occupied by the vague dominion of the Burgundians—a warlike and numerous people of the Vandal race, whose obscure name insensibly swelled into a powerful kingdom,

and has finally settled on a flourishing province. . . . The disputed possession of some salt-pits engaged the Alemanni and the Burgundians in frequent contests. The latter were easily tempted by the secret solicitations and liberal offers of the emperor [Valentinian, A. D. 371]; and their fabulous descent from the Roman soldiers who had formerly been left to garrison the fortresses of Drusus was admitted with mutual credulity, as it was conducive to mutual interest. An army of fourscore thousand Burgundians soon appeared on the banks of the Rhine, and impatiently required the support and subsidies which Valentinian had promised; but they were amused with excuses and delays, till at length, after a fruitless expectation, they were compelled to retire. The arms and fortifications of the Gallic frontier checked the fury of their just resentment."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire, ch. 25.*—"We first hear of them [the Burgundians] as a tribe of Teutonic stock, located between the Oder and the Vistula, on either bank of the river Warta. When the Gepidæ descended southward with the Goths, the Burgundians were compelled to recoil before the advance of the former tribe: one portion of them took refuge in Bornholm, an island of the Baltic; the remainder turned westward, and made an attempt to enter Gaul. They were repulsed by Probus, but permitted to settle near the sources of the Main. Jovian showed them favour, and gave them lands in the Germania Secunda. This was in the latter part of the fourth century. Just at its close, they adopted Christianity, but under an Arian form. Ammianus tells us that they were a most warlike race."—J. G. Sheppard, *Fall of Rome, lecture 8.*—"The other Teutonic people had very little regard for the Burgundians; they accused them of having degenerated from the valor of their ancestors, by taking in petty towns (bourgades), whence their name Burgundii sprang; and they looked upon them as being more suitable for the professions of mechanics, smiths, and carpenters, than for a military life."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *French under the Merovingians, ch. 3.*—"A document of A. D. 786, in noticing the high tract of lands between Ellwangen and Anspach, has the following expression.—'in Waldo, qui vocatur Virginnia.' Grimm looks for the derivation of this word in the Mæso-Gothic word 'fairguni,' Old High German 'fergund'—woody hill-range. . . . I have little doubt but that this is the name of the tract of land from which the name Burgundi arose; and that it is the one which fixes their locality. If so, between the Burgundian and Suevic Germans, the difference, such as it was, was probably almost wholly political."—R. G. Latham, *Germania of Tacitus; Epilegomena, sect. 12.*—See also EUROPE: Ethnology; Migrations: Map showing barbaric migrations; SWITZERLAND: 1st-3rd centuries.

BURGUNDY.—During the Middle Ages the kingdom, duchy and county of Burgundy occupied territory in the eastern part of present France. 277.—Vanquished by Probus. See GAUL:

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406-409.—Invasion of Gaul. See GAUL: 406-409.

443-451.—Savoyan kingdom.—"In the south-east of Gaul, the Burgundians had, after many wars and some reverses, established themselves (443) with the consent of the Romans in the district then called Sapaudia and now Savoy. Their territory was somewhat more extensive than the province which was the cradle of the present royal house of Italy, since it stretched northwards beyond the lake of Neufchatel and southwards as far as Gren-

oble. Here the Burgundian immigrants under their king Gundiok, were busy settling themselves in their new possession, cultivating the lands which they had divided by lot, each one receiving half the estate of a Roman host or 'hospes' (for under such gentle names the spoliation was veiled), when the news came that the terrible Hun had crossed the Rhine [451], and that all hosts and guests in Gaul must unite for its defence"—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 2, ch. 3.

451.—At the battle of Chalons. See HUNS: 451.

500.—Extension of kingdom.—"Their [the Burgundians'] domain, considerably more extensive than when we last viewed it on the eve of Attila's invasion, now included the later provinces of Burgundy, Franche-Comté and Dauphiné, besides Savoy and the greater part of Switzerland—in fact the whole of the valleys of the Saone and the Rhone, save that for the last hundred miles of its course, the Visigoths barred them from the right bank and from the mouths of the latter river." At the time now spoken of (500), the Burgundian kingdom was divided between two brother-kings, Gundobad reigning at Lyons and Vienne, and Godegisel at Geneva. Godegisel, the younger, had conspired with Clovis, the king of the Franks, against Gundobad, and in this year 500 the two confederates defeated the latter, at Dijon, driving him from the most part of his kingdom. But Gundobad presently recovered his footing, besieged and captured his treacherous brother at Vienne and promptly put him to death—thereby reuniting the kingdom.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 4, ch. 9.

534.—Conquest by the Franks.—"I am impatient to pursue the final ruin of that kingdom [the Burgundian] which was accomplished under the reign of Sigismund, the son of Gundobad [or Gundobad]. The Catholic Sigismund has acquired the honours of a saint and martyr; but the hands of the royal saint were stained with the blood of his innocent son. . . . It was his humble prayer that Heaven would inflict in this world the punishment of his sins. His prayer was heard; the avengers were at hand; and the provinces of Burgundy were overwhelmed by an army of victorious Franks. After the event of an unsuccessful battle, Sigismund . . . with his wife and two children, was transported to Orleans and buried alive in a deep well by the stern command of the sons of Clovis, whose cruelty might derive some excuse from the maxims and examples of their barbarous age. . . . The rebellious Burgundians, for they attempted to break their chains, were still permitted to enjoy their national laws under the obligation of tribute and military service; and the Merovingian princes peaceably reigned over a kingdom whose glory and greatness had been first overthrown by the arms of Clovis."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 38.—See also FRANKS: 511-752.

ALSO IN: W. C. Perry, *Franks*, ch. 3.

534-752.—Merovingian kingdom.—After the overthrow of the Burgundian monarchy by the sons of Clovis, the territory of the Burgundians, with part of the neighboring Frank territory added to it, became, under the name of Burgundia or Burgundy, one of the three Frank kingdoms (Austria and Neustria being the other two), into which the Merovingian princes divided their dominion. It occupied "the east of the country, between the Loire and the Alps, from Provence on the south to the hill-ranges of the Vosges on the north."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, ch. 13.

687-800.—Carolingian kingdom. See GERMAN: 687-800.

843-933.—Divisions of early kingdom.—Later kingdoms of the south and the French dukedom of the northwest.—By the treaty of Verdun, 843, which formally divided the empire of Charlemagne among his three grandsons, a part of Burgundy was taken to form, with Italy and Lorraine, the kingdom of the emperor Lothar, or Lothaire. In the further dissolutions which followed, a kingdom of Burgundy or Provence was founded in 877 by one Boso, a prince who had married Irmingard, daughter of the emperor Louis II, son of Lothaire. It "included Provence, Dauphiné, the southern part of Savoy, and the country between the Saone and the Jura," and is sometimes called the kingdom of Cis-Jurane Burgundy. "The kingdom of Trans-Jurane Burgundy, . . . founded by Rudolf in 888, recognized in the same year by the Emperor Arnulf, included the northern part of Savoy, and all Switzerland between the Reuss and the Jura."—J. Bryce, *Holy Roman empire*, ch. 6, and *app.*, note A.—"The kingdoms of Provence and Transjuran Burgundy were united, in 933, by Raoul II., King of Transjuran Burgundy, and formed the kingdom of Arles, governed, from 937 to 993, by Conrad le Pacifique."—F. Guizot, *History of civilization*, lecture 24.—F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, ch. 4.—"Several of the greater and more commercial towns of France, such as Lyons, Vienne, Geneva, Besançon, Avignon, Arles, Marseilles and Grenoble were situated within the bounds of his [Conrad the Pacific's] states."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *France under the feudal system*, ch. 2.—"Of the older Burgundian kingdom, the northwestern part, forming the land best known as the Duchy of Burgundy, was, in the divisions of the ninth century, a fief of Karolingia or the Western Kingdom. This is the Burgundy which has Dijon for its capital, and which was held by more than one dynasty of dukes as vassals of the Western kings, first at Laon, and then at Paris. This Burgundy, which, as the name of France came to bear its modern sense may be distinguished as the French Duchy, must be carefully distinguished from the Royal Burgundy" of the Cis-Jurane and Trans-Jurane kingdoms mentioned above.—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe*, ch. 6, sect. 1.

888-1032.—French dukedom.—Founding of the first Capetian house.—Of the earliest princes of this northwestern fragment of the old kingdom of Burgundy little seems to have been discoverable. The fief and its title do not seem to have become hereditary until they fell into the grasping hands of the Capetian family, which happened just at the time when the aspiring counts of Paris were rising to royal rank. In the early years of the tenth century the reigning count or duke was Richard-le-Justicier, whose distinguishing princely virtue is recorded in his name. This Richard-le-Justicier was a brother of that Boso, or Boson, son-in-law of the emperor Louis II, who took advantage of the confusions of the time to fashion for himself a kingdom of Burgundy in the south (Cis-Jurane Burgundy, or Provence,—see above). Richard's son Raoul, or Rudolph, married Emma, the daughter of Robert, count of Paris and duke of France, who was soon afterwards chosen king, by the nobles who tired of Carolingian misrule. King Robert's reign was short; he fell in battle with the Carolingians, at Soissons, the next year (923). His son Hugh, called le Grand, or the Great, found it more to his taste to be king-maker than to be king. He declined the proffered crown, and brought about the coronation of his brother-in-

law, the Burgundian Rudolph, who reigned for eleven years. When he died, in 934, Hugh the Great still held the crown at his disposal and still refused to wear it himself. It now pleased this king-maker to set a Carolingian prince on the throne, in the person of Louis d'Outre Mer, a young son of Charles the Simple, who had been reared in England by his English mother. But, if Duke Hugh cared nothing for the name, he cared much for the substance, of power. He grasped dominion wherever it fell within his reach, and the Burgundian duchy was among the states which he clutched. King Rudolph left no son to inherit either his dukedom or his kingdom. He had a brother, Hugh, who claimed the duchy; but the greater Hugh was too strong for him and secured, with the authority of the young king, his protégé, the title of duke of Burgundy and the larger part of the domain. "In the Duchy of France or the County of Paris Hugh-le-Grand had nothing beyond the regalities to desire, and both in Burgundy and the Duchy he now became an irremovable Viceroy. But the privileges so obtained by Hugh-le-Grand produced very important political results, both present and future. Hugh assumed even a loftier bearing than before; Burgundy was annexed to the Duchy of France, and passed with the Duchy; and the grant thereof made by Hugh Capet to his son [brother?] Henri-le-Grand, severing the same from the crown, created the premier Duchy of Christendom, the most splendid appanage which a prince of the third race [the Capetians] could enjoy—the rival of the throne."—Sir F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, bk. 1, pt. 2, ch. 1-4.—Hugh-le-Grand died in 956. "His power, which, more than his talents or exploits, had given him the name of Great, was divided between his children, who were yet very young. . . . There is some doubt as to their number and the order of their birth. It appears, however, that Otho was the eldest of his three sons. He had given him his part of the duchy of Burgundy, and had made him marry the daughter and heir of Gislebert, duke of another part of Burgundy, to which Otho succeeded the same year. The latter dying in 963 or 965, the duchy of Burgundy passed to his third brother, sometimes named Henry, sometimes Eudes. Hugues [Hugh], surnamed Capet, who succeeded to the county of Paris and the duchy of France, was but the second son."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *French under the Carolingians*, ch. 15.—In 987 Hugh Capet became king of France and founded the lasting dynasty which bears his name. His elder brother Henry remained duke of Burgundy until his death, in 1002, when his royal nephew, Robert, son and successor of Hugh, annexed the duchy to the crown. It so remained until 1032. Then King Henry I, son of Robert, granted it as an appanage to his brother Robert, who founded the first Capetian house of Burgundy.—E. de Bonnechose, *History of France*, bk. 1, ch. 2.

954.—Ravaged by Magyars. See HUNGARY: 934-955.

1032.—Last kingdom.—Union with Germany, and dissolution.—The last kingdom which bore the name of Burgundy—though more often called the kingdom of Arles—formed, as stated above, by the union of the short-lived kingdoms of Provence and Transjuran Burgundy, became in 1032 nominally united to the dominions of the emperor-king of Germany. Its last independent king was Rudolf III, son of Conrad the Pacific, who was uncle to the emperor Henry II. Being childless, he named Henry his heir. The latter, however, died first, in 1024, and Rudolf attempted to cancel his bequest,

claiming that it was made to Henry personally, not as king of the Germans. When, however, the Burgundian king died, in 1032, the then reigning emperor, Conrad the Salic, or the Franconian, formally proclaimed the union of Burgundy with Germany. "But since Burgundy was ruled almost exclusively by the great nobility, the sovereignty of the German Emperors there was never much more than nominal. Besides, the country, from the Bernese Oberland to the Mediterranean, except that part of Allemannia which is now German Switzerland, was inhabited by a Romance people, too distinct in language, customs and laws from the German empire ever really to form a part of it. . . . Yet Switzerland was thenceforth connected forever with the development of Germany, and for 500 years remained a part of the empire."—C. T. Lewis, *History of Germany*, bk. 2, ch. 6-7.—"The weakness of Rodolph-le-Fainéant (Rodolph II), who made Henry II of Germany his heir, as stated above), gave the great lords of the kingdom of Arles an opportunity of consolidating their independence. Among these one begins to remark Berchtold and his son, Humbert-aux-Blanches-Mains (the White-handed), Counts of Maurienne, and founders of the House of Savoy; Otto William, who it is pretended was the son of Adalbert, King of Italy, and heir by right of his mother to the county of Burgundy, was the founder of the sovereign house of Franche-Comté [county Palatine of Burgundy]; Guigue, Count of Albon, founder of the sovereign house of the dauphins of Viennois; and William, who it is pretended was the issue of a brother of Rodolph of Burgundy, King of France, and who was sovereign count of Provence. These four lords had, throughout the reign of Rodolph, much more power than he in the kingdom of Arles; and when at his death his crown was united to that of the Empire, the feudatories who had grown great at his expense became almost absolutely independent. On the other hand, their vassals began on their side to acquire importance under them; and in Provence can be traced at this period the succession of the counts of Forcalquier and of Venaissin, of the princes of Orange, of the viscounts of Marseille, of the barons of Baux, of Sault, of Grignau, and of Castellane. We can still follow the formation of a great number of other feudatory or rather sovereign houses. Thus the counts of Toulouse, those of Rouergue, the dukes of Gascony, the counts of Foix, of Béarn, and of Carcassone, date at least from this epoch; but their existence is announced to us only by their diplomas and their wills."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *France under the feudal system*, ch. 2.

1127-1378.—Franco-Germanic contest for the valley of the Rhone.—End of the kingdom of Arles.—"As soon as the Capetian monarchs had acquired enough strength at home to be able to look with safety abroad, they began to make aggressions on the tempting and wealthy dependencies of the distant emperors. But the Rhone valley was too important in itself, and of too great strategical value as securing an easy road to Italy, to make it possible for the emperors to acquiesce easily in its loss. Hence a long conflict, which soon became a national conflict of French and Germans, to maintain the Imperial position in the 'middle kingdom' of the Rhone valley. M. Fournier's book [*Le Royaume d'Arles et de Vienne (1138-1178)*]; par Paul Fournier] aims at giving an adequate account of this struggle. . . . From the times of the mighty Barbarossa to the times of the pretentious and cunning Charles of Luxemburg nearly every emperor sought by constant

acts of sovereignty to uphold his precarious powers in the Arelate. Unable to effect much with their own resources, the emperors exhausted their ingenuity in finding allies and inventing brilliant schemes for reviving the Arelate, which invariably came to nothing. Barbarossa won the hand of the heiress of the county of Burgundy, and sought to put in place of the local dynasties princes on whom he could rely, like Berthold of Züringen, whose father had received in 1127 from Conrad III. the high-sounding but meaningless title of Rector of the Burgundies. But his quarrel with the church soon set the clergy against Frederick, and, led by the Carthusian and Cistercian orders, the Churchmen of the Arelate began to look upon the orthodox king of the French as their truest protector from a schismatic emperor. But the French kings of the period saw in the power of Henry of Anjou [Henry II, of England—see ENGLAND: 1154-1189] a more real and pressing danger than the Empire of the Hohenstaufen. The result was an alliance between Philip Augustus and his successors and the Swabian emperors, which gave Frederick and his successors a new term in which they could strive to win back a real hold over Burgundy. Frederick II never lost sight of this object. His investiture of the great feudal lord William of Baux with the kingdom of Arles in 1215; his long struggle with the wealthy merchant city of Marseilles; his alliance with Raymond of Toulouse and the heretical elements in Provence against the Pope and the French; his efforts to lead an army against Innocent IV. at Lyons, were among the chief phases of his constant efforts to make the Imperial influence really felt in the valley of the Rhone. But he had so little success that the French crusaders against the Albigenses waged open war within its limits, and destroyed the heretic city of Avignon while Innocent in his exile could find no surer protection against the emperor than in the Imperial city of Lyons. After Frederick's death the policy of St. Louis of France was a complete triumph. His brother, Charles of Anjou, established himself in Provence, though in later times the Angevin lords of Provence and Naples became so strong that their local interests made them enemies rather than friends of the extension of French power on their borders. The subsequent efforts of the emperors were the merest shams and unrealities. Rudolf of Hapsburg acquiesced without a murmur in the progress of Philip the Fair, who made himself master of Lyons, and secured the Free County of Burgundy for his son. . . . The residence of the Popes at Avignon was a further help to the French advance. . . . Weak as were the early Valois kings, they were strong enough to push still further the advantage won by their greater predecessors. The rivalry of the leading states of the Rhone valley, Savoy and Dauphiny, facilitated their task. Philip VI. aspired to take Vienne as Philip IV. had obtained Lyons. The Dauphin, Humbert II., struggled in vain against him, and at last accepted the inevitable by ceding to the French king the succession to all his rights in Dauphiny, henceforth to become the appanage of the eldest sons of the French kings. At last, Charles of Luxemburg, in 1378, gave the French aggressions a legal basis by conferring the Vicariat of Arles on the Dauphin Charles, subsequently the mad Charles VI. of France. From this grant Savoy only was excepted. Henceforth the power of France in the Rhone valley became so great that it soon became the fashion to despise and ignore the theoretical claims of the Empire."—*Athenæum*, Oct. 3, 1891 (reviewing "*Le Royaume d'Arles et de Vienne*," by P. Fournier).

1154-1360.—Extent of territory. See FRANCE: Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.

1207-1401.—Advance of the dominions of the house of Savoy beyond Lake Geneva. See SAVOY AND PIEDMONT: 11th-15th centuries.

1364.—French dukedom.—Planting of the Burgundian branch of the house of Valois.—The last duke of Burgundy of the Capetian house which descended from Robert, son of King Robert, died in December, 1361. He was called Philip de Rouvre, because the Château de Rouvre, near Dijon, had been his birth-place and his residence. He was still in his youth when he died, although he had borne the ducal title for twelve years. It fell to him at the age of four, when his father died. From his mother and his grandmother he inherited, additionally, the county of Burgundy (Franche Comté) and the counties of Boulogne, Auvergne and Artois. His tender years had not prevented the marriage of the young duke to Margaret, daughter and heiress of the count of Flanders. John II, king of France, whose mother was a Burgundian princess, claimed to be the nearest relative of the young duke, when the latter died, in 1361, and, although his claim was disputed by the king of Navarre, Charles the Bad, King John took possession of the dukedom. He took it by right of succession, and not as a fief which had lapsed, the original grant of King Robert having contained no reversionary provision. Franche Comté, or the county of Burgundy, together with Artois, remained to the young widow, Margaret of Flanders, while the counties of Boulogne and Auvergne passed to John of Boulogne, count de Montfort. A great opportunity for strengthening the crown of France, by annexing to it the powerful Burgundian dukedom, was now offered to King John; but he lacked the wisdom to improve it. He preferred to grant it away as a splendid appanage for his favorite son—the fourth—the spirited lad Philip, called the Fearless, who had stood by his father's side in the disastrous battle of Poitiers, and who had shared his captivity in England. By a deed which took effect on King John's death, in 1364, the great duchy of Burgundy was conferred on Philip the Fearless and on his heirs. Soon afterward's Philip's marriage with the young widow of his predecessor, Philip de Rouvre, was brought about, which restored to their former union with the dukedom the Burgundian county (Franche Comté) and the county of Artois, while it gave to the new duke prospectively the rich county of Flanders, to which Margaret was the heiress. Thus was raised up anew the most formidable rival which the royal power in France had ever to contend with, and the magnitude of the blunder of King John was revealed before half a century had passed.—Froissart (Johnes) *Chronicles*, bk. 1, ch. 216.

ALSO IN: F. P. Guizot, *Popular history of France*, ch. 22.

1380-1415.—Civil war in France. See FRANCE: 1380-1415; 1417-1422.

1382.—Aid in crushing Flanders rebellion. See FLANDERS: 1382.

1383.—Flanders added to the ducal dominions. See FLANDERS: 1383.

1430.—Holland, Hainault and Friesland absorbed by the dukes. See NETHERLANDS (HOLLAND AND HAINAULT): 1417-1430.

1451.—Control of duchy of Luxemburg. See LUXEMBURG: 1060-1760.

1456.—Seizure of bishopric of Utrecht. See UTRECHT: 1456.

1466.—Sack of Dinant by Charles the Bold. See DINANT.

1467.—Charles the Bold.—His position, between Germany and France.—His antagonism to Louis XI.—The “middle kingdom” of his aims.—Charles, known commonly in history as Charles the Bold, became duke of Burgundy in 1467, succeeding his father Philip, misnamed “The Good.” “His position was a very peculiar one; it requires a successful shaking-off of modern notions fully to take in what it was. Charles held the rank of one of the first princes in Europe without being a King, and without possessing an inch of ground for which he did not owe service to some superior lord. And, more than this, he did not owe service to one lord only. The phrase of ‘Great Powers’ had not been invented in the 15th century; but there can be no doubt that, if it had been, the Duke of Burgundy would have ranked among the foremost of them. He was, in actual strength, the equal of his royal neighbour to the west, and far more than the equal of his imperial neighbour to the east. Yet for every inch of his territories he owed a vassal’s duty to one or other of them. Placed on the borders of France and the Empire, some of his territories were held of the Empire and some of the French crown. Charles, Duke of Burgundy, Count of Flanders and Artois, was a vassal of France; but Charles, Duke of Brabant, Count of Burgundy, Holland, and a dozen other duchies and counties, held his dominions as a vassal of Cæsar. His dominions were large in positive extent, and they were valuable out of all proportion to their extent. No other prince in Europe was the direct sovereign of so many rich and flourishing cities, rendered still more rich and flourishing through the long and, in the main, peaceful administration of his father. The cities of the Netherlands were incomparably greater and more prosperous than those of France or England; and, though they enjoyed large municipal privileges, they were not, like those of Germany, independent commonwealths, acknowledging only an external suzerain in their nominal lord. Other parts of his dominions, the Duchy of Burgundy especially, were as rich in men as Flanders was rich in money. So far the Duke of Burgundy had some great advantages over every other prince of his time. But, on the other hand, his dominions were further removed than those of any prince in Europe from forming a compact whole. He was not King of one kingdom, but Duke, Count, and Lord of innumerable duchies, counties, and lordships, acquired by different means, held by different titles and of different overlords, speaking different languages, subject to different laws, transmitted according to different rules of succession. . . . They lay in two large masses, the two Burgundies forming one and the Low Countries forming the other, so that their common master could not go from one capital to another without passing through a foreign territory. And, even within these two great masses, there were portions of territory intersecting the ducal dominions which there was no hope of annexing by fair means. . . . The career of Charles the Bold . . . divides itself into a French and a German portion. In both alike he is exposed to the restless rivalry of Lewis of France; but in the one period that rivalry is carried on openly within the French territory, while in the second period the crafty king finds the means to deal far more effectual blows through the agency of Teutonic hands. . . . As a French prince, he joined with other French princes to put limits on the power of the Crown, and to divide the kingdom into great feudal holdings, as nearly independent as might be of the common overlord. As a French

prince, he played his part in the War of the Public Weal [see FRANCE: 1461-1468], and insisted, as a main object of his policy, on the establishment of the King’s brother as an all but independent Duke of Normandy. The object of Lewis was to make France a compact monarchy; the object of Charles and his fellows was to keep France as nearly as might be in the same state as Germany. But, when the other French princes had been gradually conquered, won over, or got rid of in some way or other by the crafty policy of Lewis, Charles remained no longer the chief of a coalition of French princes, but the personal rival, the deadly enemy, of the French King. . . . Chronologically and geographically alike, Charles and his Duchy form the great barrier, or the great connecting link, whichever we choose to call it, between the main divisions of European history and European geography. The Dukes of Burgundy of the House of



CHARLES THE BOLD

Valois form a sort of bridge between the later Middle Age and the period of the Renaissance and the Reformation. They connect those two periods by forming the kernel of the vast dominion of that Austrian House which became their heir, and which, mainly by virtue of that heirship fills such a space in the history of the 16th and 17th centuries. But the dominions of the Burgundian Dukes hold a still higher historical position. They may be said to bind together the whole of European history for the last thousand years. From the 9th century to the 10th, the politics of Europe have largely gathered round the rivalry between the Eastern and the Western Kingdoms—in modern language, between Germany and France. From the 9th century to the 10th, a succession of efforts have been made to establish, in one shape or another, a middle state between the two. Over and over again during that long period have men striven to make the whole or some portion of the frontier lands stretching from the mouth of the Rhine to the mouth of the Rhone into an independent barrier state. . . . That object was never more distinctly aimed at, and it never seemed nearer to its accomplishment, than when Charles the Bold

actually reigned from the Zuyder Zee to the Lake of Neufchâtel, and was not without hopes of extending his frontier to the Gulf of Lyons. . . . Holding, as he did, parts of old Lotharingia and parts of old Burgundy, there can be no doubt that he aimed at the re-establishment of a great Middle Kingdom, which should take in all that had ever been Burgundian or Lotharingian ground. He aimed, in short, as others have aimed before and since, at the formation of a state which should hold a central position between France, Germany and Italy—a state which should discharge, with infinitely greater strength, all the duties which our own age has endeavoured to throw on Switzerland, Belgium and Savoy. . . . Undoubtedly it would have been for the permanent interest of Europe if he had succeeded in his attempt.”—E. A. Freeman, *Charles the Bold* (*Historical essays, 1st series, no. 11*).—See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477.

1467-1468.—War of Charles the Bold with the Liegeois and his troubles with Louis XI.—“Soon after the pacification of the troubles of France the Duke of Burgundy began a war against the Liegeois, which lasted for several years; and whenever the king of France [Louis XI] had a mind to interrupt him, he attempted some new action against the Bretons, and, in the meantime, supported the Liegeois underhand; upon which the Duke of Burgundy turned against him to succour his allies, or else they came to some treaty or truce among themselves. . . . During these wars, and ever since, secret and fresh intrigues were carried on by the princes. The king was so exceedingly exasperated against the Dukes of Bretagne and Burgundy that it was wonderful. . . . The king of France’s aim, in the meantime, was chiefly to carry his design against the province of Bretagne, and he looked upon it as a more feasible attempt, and likelier to give him less resistance than the house of Burgundy. Besides, the Bretons were the people who protected and entertained all his malcontents; as his brother, and others, whose interest and intelligence were great in his kingdom; for this cause he endeavoured very earnestly with Charles, Duke of Burgundy, by several advantageous offers and proposals, to prevail with him to desert them, promising that upon those terms he also would abandon the Liegeois, and give no further protection to his malcontents. The Duke of Burgundy would by no means consent to it, but again made preparations for war against the Liegeois, who had broken the peace.” This was in October, 1467. The duke (Charles the Bold) attacked St. Tron, which was held by a garrison of 3,000 of the men of Liège. The Liegeois, 30,000 strong, came to the relief of the besieged town, and were routed, leaving 6,000 slain on the field. St. Tron and Tongres were both surrendered, and Liège itself, after considerable strife among its citizens, opened its gates to the duke, who entered in triumph (November 17, 1467) and hanged half-a-dozen for his moderate satisfaction. In the course of the next summer the French king opened war afresh upon the duke of Bretagne and forced him into a treaty, before the duke of Burgundy, his ally, could take the field. The king, then being extremely anxious to pacify the duke of Burgundy, took the extraordinary step of visiting the latter at Peronne, without any guard, trusting himself wholly to the honor of his enemy. But it happened unfortunately, during the king’s stay at Peronne, that a ferocious revolt occurred at Liège, which was traced beyond denial to the intrigues of two agents whom King Louis had sent thither not long before, for mischief-making purposes. The duke, in his wrath, was not easily restrained

from doing some violence to the king; but the royal trickster escaped from his grave predicament by giving up the unhappy Liegeois to the vengeance of Duke Charles and personally assisting the latter to inflict it. “After the conclusion of the peace [dictated by Charles at Peronne and signed submissively by Louis] the King and the Duke of Burgundy set out the next morning [Oct. 15, 1468] for Cambray, and from thence towards the country of Liège: it was the beginning of winter and the weather was very bad. The king had with him only his Scotch guards and a small body of his standing forces; but he ordered 300 of his men-at-arms to join him.” Liège was invested, and, notwithstanding its walls had been thrown down the previous year, it made a stubborn defense. During a siege of a fortnight, several desperate sallies were made, by the last one of which both the duke and the king were brought into great personal peril. Exhausted by this final effort, the Liegeois were unprepared to repel a grand assault which the besieging forces made upon the town the next morning—Sunday, October 30. Liège was taken that day almost without resistance, the miserable inhabitants flying across the Maes into the forest of Ardennes, abandoning their homes to pillage. The duke of Burgundy now permitted King Louis to return home, while he remained a few days longer in desolate Liège, which his fierce hatred had doomed. “Before the Duke left the city, a great number of those poor creatures who had hid themselves in the houses when the town was taken, and were afterwards made prisoners, were drowned. He also resolved to burn the city, which had always been very populous; and orders were given for firing it in three different places, and 3,000 or 4,000 foot of the country of Limbourg (who were their neighbours, and used the same habit and language) were commanded to effect this desolation, but to secure the churches. . . . All things being thus ordered, the Duke began his march into the country of Franchemont; he was no sooner out of town, but immediately we saw a great number of houses on fire beyond the river; the duke lay that night four leagues from the city, yet we could hear the noise as distinctly as if we had been upon the spot; but whether it was the wind which lay that way, or our quartering upon the river, that was the cause of it, I know not. The next day the Duke marched on, and those who were left in the town continued the conflagration according to his orders; but all the churches (except some few) were preserved, and above 300 houses belonging to the priests and officers of the churches, which was the reason it was so soon reinhabited, for many flocked thither to live with the priests.”—P. de Commines, *Memoirs, bk. 2*.—See also NETHERLANDS: 1466-1468.

ALSO IN: J. F. Kirk, *History of Charles the Bold, bk. 1, ch. 7-9; bk. 2*.—P. F. Willert, *Reign of Louis XI*.—Sir W. Scott, *Quentin Durward*.

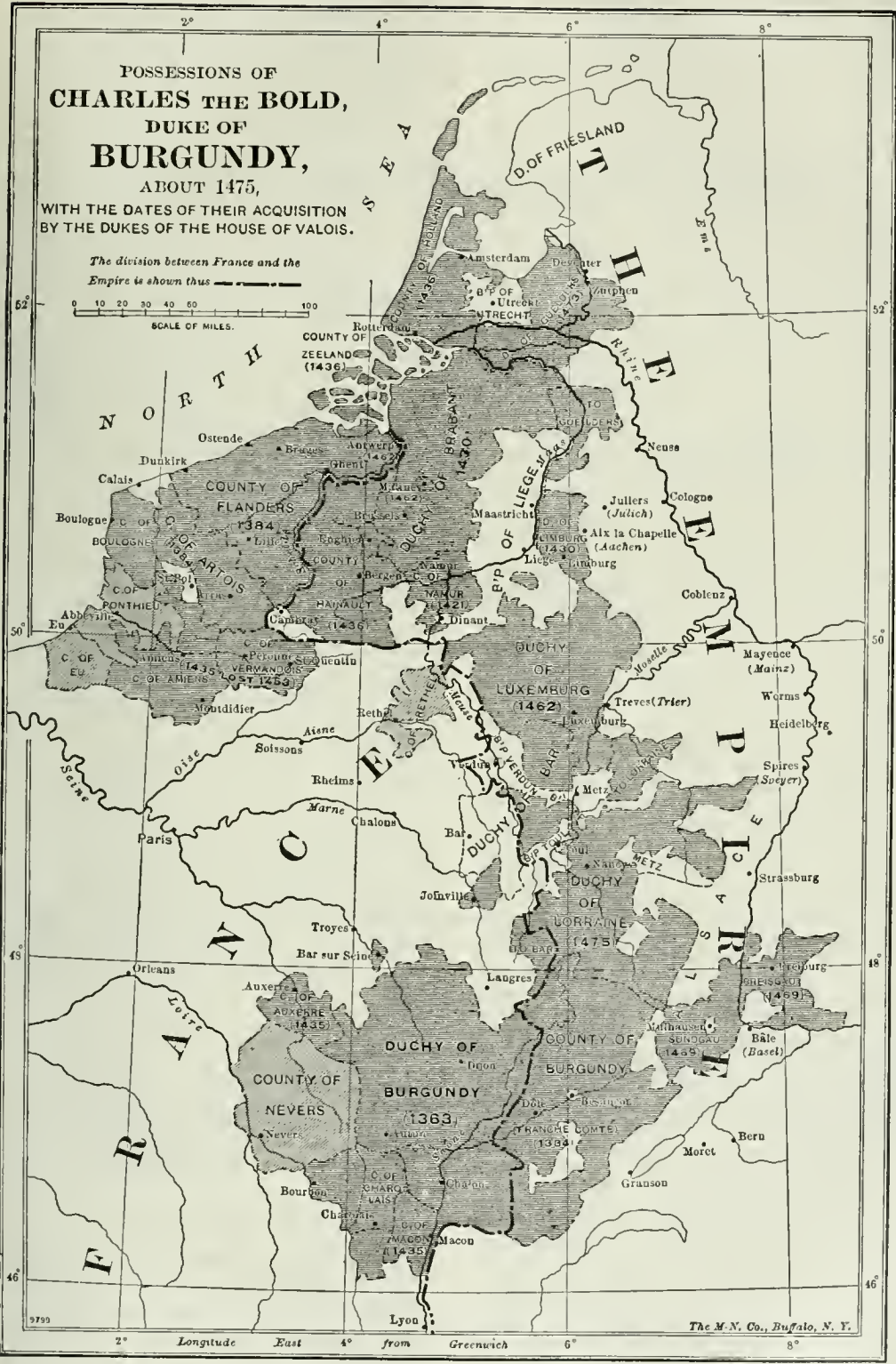
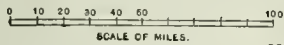
1473.—Acquisition of Guelderland. See GUELDERLAND.

1476-1477.—Charles the Bold and the Swiss.—His defeats and death.—Effects of his fall.—“Sovereign of the duchy of Burgundy, of the Free County [Franche-Comté], of Hainaut, of Flanders, of Holland, and of Gueldre, Charles wished, by joining to it Lorraine, a portion of Switzerland, and the inheritance of old King René, Count of Provence, to recombine the ancient kingdom of Lorraine, such as it had existed under the Carolingian dynasty; and flattered himself that by offering his daughter to Maximilian, son of Frederick III., he would obtain the title of king.

POSSESSIONS OF
CHARLES THE BOLD,
 DUKE OF
BURGUNDY,

ABOUT 1475,
 WITH THE DATES OF THEIR ACQUISITION
 BY THE DUKES OF THE HOUSE OF VALOIS.

The division between France and the
 Empire is shown thus ————



3793

The M. N. Co., Buffalo, N. Y.

Deceived in his hopes, the Duke of Burgundy tried means to take away Lorraine from the young René. That province was necessary to him, in order to join his northern states with those in the south. The conquest was rapid, and Nancy opened its gates to Charles the Rash; but it was reserved for a small people, already celebrated for their heroic valour and by their love of liberty, to beat this powerful man. Irritated against the Swiss, who had braved him, Charles crossed over the Jura, besieged the little town of Granson, and, in despite of a capitulation, caused all the defenders to be hanged or drowned. At this news the eight cantons which then composed the Helvetic republic arose, and under the very walls of the town which had been the theatre of his cruelty they attacked the Duke and dispersed his troops [March 3, 1476]. Some months later [June 21], supported by young René of Lorraine, despoiled of his inheritance, they exterminated a second Burgundian army before Morat. Charles, vanquished, reassembled a third army, and marched in the midst of winter against Nancy, which had fallen into the hands of the Swiss and Lorrainers. It was there that he perished [January 5, 1477] betrayed by his mercenary soldiers, and overpowered by numbers.—E. de Bonnechose, *History of France*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 2.—“And what was the cause of this war? A miserable cart-load of sheep skins that the Count of Romont had taken from the Swiss, in his passage through his estates. If God Almighty had not forsaken the Duke of Burgundy it is scarce conceivable he would have exposed himself to such great dangers upon so small and trivial an occasion; especially considering the offers the Swiss had made him, and that his conquest of such enemies would yield him neither profit nor honour; for at that time the Swiss were not in such esteem as now, and no people in the world could be poorer.” At Granson, “the poor Swiss were mightily enriched by the plunder of his [the duke of Burgundy’s] camp. At first they did not understand the value of the treasure they were masters of, especially the common soldiers. One of the richest and most magnificent tents in the world was cut into pieces. There were some of them that sold quantities of dishes and plates of silver for about two sous of our money, supposing they had been pewter. His great diamond, . . . with a large pearl fixed to it, was taken up by a Swiss, put up again into the case, thrown under a wagon, taken up again by the same soldier, and after all offered to a priest for a florin, who bought it, and sent it to the magistrates of that country, who returned him three francs as a sufficient reward. [This was long supposed to be the famous Sancy diamond; but Mr. Streeter thinks that the tradition which so connects it is totally disproved.] They also took three very rich jewels called the Three Brothers, another large ruby called La Hatte, and another called the Ball of Flanders, which were the fairest and richest in the world; besides a prodigious quantity of other goods.” In his last battle, near Nancy, the duke had fewer than 4,000 men, “and of that number not above 1,200 were in a condition to fight.” He encountered on this occasion a powerful army of Swiss and Germans, which the duke of Lorraine had been able to collect, with the help of the king of France and others. It was against the advice of all his counsellors that the headstrong, half-mad Duke Charles dashed his little army upon this greater one, and he paid the penalty. It was broken at the first shock, and the duke was killed in the confused rout without being known. His body, stripped naked by the pillagers and mangled by wolves or

dogs, was found frozen fast in a ditch. “I cannot easily determine towards whom God Almighty showed his anger most, whether towards him who died suddenly, without pain or sickness in the field of battle, or towards his subjects, who never enjoyed peace after his death, but were continually involved in wars against which they were not able to maintain themselves, upon account of the civil dissensions and cruel animosities that arose among them. . . . As I had seen these princes puissant, rich and honourable, so it fared with their subjects: for I think I have seen and known the greatest part of Europe, yet I never knew any province or country, though of a larger extent, so abounding in money, so extravagantly fine in their furniture, so sumptuous in their buildings, so profuse in their expenses, so luxurious in their feasts and entertainments, and so prodigal in all respects, as the subjects of these princes in my time; and if any think I have exaggerated, others who lived in my time will be of opinion that I have rather said too little. . . . In short, I have seen this family in all respects the most flourishing and celebrated of any in Christendom: and then, in a short space of time, it was quite ruined and turned upside down, and left the most desolate and miserable of any house in Europe, as regards both prince and subjects.”—P. de Commynes, *Memoirs*, bk. 5, ch. 1-9.—“The popular conception of this war [between Charles the Bold and the Swiss] is simply that Charles, a powerful and encroaching prince, was overthrown in three great battles by the petty commonwealths which he had expected easily to attach to his dominion. Grandson and Morat are placed side by side with Morgarten and Sempach. Such a view as this implies complete ignorance of the history; it implies ignorance of the fact that it was the Swiss who made war upon Charles, and not Charles who made war upon the Swiss; it implies ignorance of the fact that Charles’s army never set foot on proper Swiss territory at all, that Grandson and Morat were at the beginning of the war no part of the possessions of the Confederation. . . . The mere political accident that the country which formed the chief seat of war now forms part of the Swiss Confederation has been with many people enough to determine their estimate of the quarrel. Grandson and Morat are in Switzerland; Burgundian troops appeared and were defeated at Grandson and Morat; therefore Charles must have been an invader of Switzerland, and the warfare on the Swiss side must have been a warfare of purely defensive heroism. The simple fact that it was only through the result of the Burgundian war that Grandson and Morat ever became Swiss territory at once disposes of this line of argument. . . . The plain facts of the case are that the Burgundian war was a war declared by Switzerland against Burgundy . . . and that in the campaigns of Grandson and Morat the Duke of Burgundy was simply repelling and avenging Swiss invasions of his own territory and the territory of his allies.”—E. A. Freeman, *Historical essays*, v. 1, no. 11.

ALSO IN: J. F. Kirk, *History of Charles the Bold*, bk. 5.—L. S. Costello, *Memoirs of Mary of Burgundy*, ch. 14-27.

1477.—Particularly restored to the French crown.—Louis XI of France, who had been eagerly watching while Charles the Bold shattered his armies and exhausted his strength in Switzerland, received early news of the death of the self-willed duke. While the panic and confusion which it caused still prevailed, the king lost no time in taking possession of the duchy of Burgundy, as an appanage which had reverted to the crown, through

LINEAGE OF THE DUKES OF BURGUNDY.*

1ST GENERATION.	2D.	3D.	4TH.	5TH.	6TH.	7TH.	8TH.
<p>ROBERT I., <i>Duke of Burgundy,</i> (son of Robert, <i>King of France</i>). (See Genealogy, Kings of France, under FRANCE: 1593-1598.)</p>	<p>Henry, died 1066, married Sibylla, (daughter of Raiuald I., <i>Count of Burgundy</i>).</p>	<p>HUGH I., 1075-1078, died 1093.</p> <p>EUDES I., 1078-1102, married Matilda, (daughter of William I., <i>Count of Burgundy</i>).</p>	<p>HUGH II., 1102-1113.</p>	<p>EUDES II., 1142-1162, married Mary <i>of Champagne</i></p>	<p>HUGH III., 1162-1193.</p>	<p>EUDES III., 1193-1218.</p>	<p>HUGH IV., 1218-1272, married Iolande <i>of Dreux</i>.</p>
9TH.	10TH.	11TH.	12TH.	13TH.	14TH.	15TH.	16TH.
<p>ROBERT II., 1272-1305, married Agnea, (daughter of St. Louis).</p>	<p>HUGH V., 1305-1315.</p> <p>EUDES IV., 1315-1350, married Jeanne, (daughter of Philip V., <i>King of France</i>).</p>	<p>Philip, died 1346, married Jeanne, <i>heiress</i> <i>of Auvergne</i>.</p>	<p>PHILIP DE ROUVRE, 1350-1361.</p>	<p>JOHN, <i>(The Fearless),</i> 1404-1418, married Margaret <i>of Holland</i>.</p>	<p>PHILIP, <i>(The Good),</i> 1418-1467, married Isabella <i>of Portugal</i>.</p>	<p>CHARLES, <i>(The Bold),</i> 1467-1477, married Isabella <i>of Bourbon</i>.</p>	<p>Mary, married Maximilian I., <i>Emperor</i>. (See Genealogy, Hapsburg, under GERMANY: 1250-1272.)</p>
<p>Jeanne, married Philip VI., <i>King of France</i>.</p>	<p>John II., <i>King of France,</i> married Bona <i>of Bohemia</i>.</p>	<p>PHILIP, <i>(The Bold),</i> 1363-1404, married Margaret, (daughter of Louis III. de Male).</p>					

(Continued below.)

* See BURGUNDY: 888-1032, and 1364.

default of male heirs. The legality of his claim has been much in dispute. "Charles left an only daughter, undoubted heiress of Flanders and Artois, as well as of his dominions out of France, but whose right of succession to the duchy of Burgundy was more questionable. Originally the great fiefs of the crown descended to females, and this was the case with respect to the two first mentioned. But John had granted Burgundy to his son Philip by way of appanage; and it was contended that the appanages revert to the crown in default of male heirs. In the form of Philip's investiture, the duchy was granted to him and his lawful heirs, without designation of sex. The construction, therefore, must be left to the established course of law. This, however, was by no means acknowledged by Mary, Charles's daughter, who maintained both that no general law restricted appanages to male heirs, and that Burgundy had always been considered as a feminine fief, John himself having possessed it, not by reversion as king (for descendants of the first dukes were then living), but by inheritance derived through females. Such was this question of succession between Louis XI. and Mary of Burgundy, upon the merits of whose pretensions I will not pretend altogether to decide, but shall only observe that, if Charles had conceived his daughter to be excluded from this part of his inheritance, he would probably, at Conflans or Peronne, where he treated upon the vantage ground, have attempted at least to obtain a renunciation of Louis's claim. There was one obvious mode of preventing all further contest, and of aggrandizing the French monarchy far more than by the reunion of Burgundy. This was the marriage of Mary with the dauphin, which was ardently wished in France." The dauphin was a child of seven years; Mary of Burgundy a masculine-minded young woman of twenty. Probably Louis despaired of reconciling the latter to such a marriage. At all events, while he talked of it occasionally, he proceeded actively in despoiling the young duchess, seizing Artois and Franche Comté, and laying hands upon the frontier towns which were exposed to his arms. He embittered her natural enmity to him by various acts of meanness and treachery. "Thus the French alliance becoming odious in Flanders, this princess married Maximilian of Austria, son of the Emperor Frederic [see NETHERLANDS: 1477: Austrian marriage]—a connexion which Louis strove to prevent, though it was impossible then to foresee that it was ordained to retard the growth and to bias the fate of Europe during three hundred years. This war lasted till after the death of Mary, who left one son Philip and one daughter Margaret."—H. Hallam, *View of the state of Europe during the Middle Ages*, ch. 1, pt. 2.—"The king [Louis XI] had reason to be more than ordinarily pleased at the death of that duke [of Burgundy], and he triumphed more in his ruin than in that of all the rest of his enemies, as he thought that nobody, for the future, either of his own subjects, or his neighbours, would be able to oppose him, or disturb the tranquillity of his reign. . . . Although God Almighty has shown, and does still show, that his determination is to punish the family of Burgundy severely, not only in the person of the duke, but in their subjects and estates; yet I think the king our master did not take right measures to that end. For, if he had acted prudently, instead of pretending to conquer them, he should rather have endeavoured to annex all those large territories, to which he had no just title, to the crown of France by some treaty of marriage; or to have gained the hearts and affections of the people, and

so have brought them over to his interest, which he might, without any great difficulty, have effected, considering how their late afflictions had impoverished and dejected them. If he had acted after that manner, he would not only have prevented their ruin and destruction, but extended and strengthened his own kingdom, and established them all in a firm and lasting peace."—P. de Commines, *Memoirs*, bk. 5, ch. 12.—"He [Louis XI] reassured, caressed, comforted the duchy of Burgundy, gave it a parliament, visited his good city of Dijon, swore in St. Benignus' church to respect all the old privileges and customs that could be sworn to, and bound his successors to do the same on their accession. Burgundy was a land of nobles; and the king raised a bridge of gold for all the great lords to come over to him."—J. Michelet, *History of France*, bk. 17, ch. 3-4.

1477-1482.—Reign of the Burgundian heiress in the Netherlands.—Marriage with Maximilian of Austria. See NETHERLANDS: 1477: Severance from Burgundy.

1486.—Union with Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1438-1493.

1512.—Formation of the circle. See GERMAN: 1493-1510.

1544.—Renunciation of the claims of Charles V. See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

BURGUNDY, House of, Genealogical table. See BURGUNDY: 1476-1477.

BURGUNDY, School of.—"The school of Burgundy had its centre in the great monastery at Cluny, of which, unfortunately, there are now hardly any remains. The chief source of inspiration for the Burgundian sculptors were ivory carvings and miniatures. . . . The most brilliant works of this school are the sculptures of the narthex of the abbey at Vézelay and the portal of the church of Saint Lazare at Autun."—H. N. Fowler, *History of sculpture*, p. 200.

BURGUNDY LEAGUE. See FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Medieval leagues in Germany.

BURGUNDY MONASTERY. See MONASTICISM: 9th-13th centuries.

BURHOU ISLAND, one of the British islands in the English channel. See CHANNEL ISLANDS.

BURI, a Suevic clan of Germans whose settlements were anciently in the neighborhood of modern Cracow.—Tacitus, *Germany*, trans. by Church and Brodribb. *Geographical notes*.

BURIAL, custom among many nations of disposing of the dead by inhumation (consigning them into the earth). In civilized countries the methods of burial vary with race and religion.—See also MYTHOLOGY.

Ancient Ægean. See ÆGEAN CIVILIZATION: Minoan age: B. C. 1600-1200, 1200-750.

Ancient Tribal. See AFRICA: Races of Africa: Prehistoric peoples.

Early Christian. See CATACOMBS OF ROME.

Soldiers', World War. See SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1020: Part VI: Prisoners of war: Graves; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part VI. Section II.

BURIAN VON RAJECZ, Baron Stephan (c. 1860-), Austro-Hungarian foreign minister in 1915 and 1918; succeeded Count Berchtold and later Count Czernin. See AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1915; WORLD WAR; 1915: III. Eastern front: c; IV. Italy: a; 1918: Statement of war aims: i.

BURK, a fortified house and courtyard.—See also BOROUGH.

BURKE, Edmund (1720-1797), British statesman, orator and writer. He was a friend of America and his "Speech on Conciliation" (1775), is regarded as a masterpiece. He took a most active part in the parliamentary struggles of the

day. His "Reflections on the Revolution in France" marks the beginning of a hostile attitude of the English people towards the French Revolution.—See also CONSERVATIVE PARTY: England: 1783-1787; 1790-1900; 1793-1796; U. S. A.: 1775 (January-March).

In trial of Warren Hastings. See INDIA: 1785-1795.

Interpretation of history. See HISTORY: 25.

BURLEIGH, William Cecil, 1st Baron. See BURGHEY, WILLIAM CECIL, 1ST BARON.

BURLESON, Albert Sidney (b. 1863), postmaster general in cabinet of President Wilson. Assistant district attorney, Austin, Texas, 1885-1890; attorney 26th Judicial District, Texas, 1891-1898; member House of Representatives, 1899-1913; postmaster-general in the cabinet of President Wilson, March, 1913-March, 1921; appointed chairman of United States Telegraph and Telephone Administration, July 31, 1918. Was an advocate of government ownership of telegraph and telephone.

Action in New England telephone and telegraph strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1918-1919: New England telephone operators' strike.

BURLINGAME, Anson (1820-1870), American politician and diplomatist. Member of Massachusetts constitutional convention, 1853; member state senate, 1853-1854; member House of Representatives, 1855-1861; appointed minister to Austria, but recalled because of objection of Austrian government to his advocacy of Hungarian independence, 1861; minister to China, 1861-1867; appointed special Chinese envoy to United States and the principal European powers to negotiate treaties, which work he carried on successfully up to the time of his sudden death in 1870.—See also CHINA: 1857-1868.

BURLONDE, General de, the "man in the mask." See IRON MASK, MAN IN THE.

BURMA: Geographical characteristics.—Resources.—"The Province of Burma [in south-eastern Asia] stretches along the whole sea-line of the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, and covers a range of country which reaches from the 10th degree of north latitude, where the mouth of the Pakchan River forms its southernmost boundary with the Malay Peninsula, to the 28th degree of north latitude, where the dependent State of Hkamti Lông and the Northern Kachin hills reach a boundary still undefined, and circumscribed in parts at least only by wild border tribes. The eastern boundary of the Province touches Yünnan, the Chinese Shan States, the French Province of Indo-China, the Siamese Tai States, and Siam proper, and finally follows the Pakchan River down to the Bay of Bengal. The area thus enclosed includes, besides Burma proper, the Northern and Southern Shan States, the States of Mông, Mît and its dependency Mông Lang, the States of Hkamti Lông, Hsawng Hsup, Sinkaling Hkamti, and the Chin and Kachin hill tracts, all of which are under the administration of the Government of Burma. The total area of the Province is estimated at 238,700 square miles, of which Burma proper occupies 168,573 square miles, the Chin Hills some 10,250 square miles, and the Shan States, which comprise the whole of the eastern portion of the Province, some 59,915 square miles."—A. Ireland, *Province of Burma*, pp. 1, 2.—Rice is the staple crop of Burma and agriculture its chief industry. The country contains the finest forests of British India and its teak wood is in special demand. The chief mineral resources are gold, coal and oil.—See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1805-1921.

Ancient mythology. See MYTHOLOGY: Eastern Asia: Indian and Chinese influences.

Religion.—"The Burmese may, . . . claim to be the strongest body of professing Buddhists in the world. It may also be claimed by them, or for them, that they most nearly follow the teaching of the Buddha. And yet they are far from doing so unreservedly. But that is as much as to say that human nature is weak and easily led astray. The precepts of Buddhism are household words with high and low. No Burman is considered a human being till he has put on the yellow robe for a longer or shorter period. Before that he is an animal. The ideas and language of the whole race are pervaded by Buddhism. And yet there Buddhism is a mere layer; in some cases, in remote parts and among the subordinate races, such as the Shans, not much more than a mere veneer. But true and fervent Buddhism is the religion of the thinker; it is a system of philosophy, or a code of morality rather than a religion, and cold, hard thinking is not conspicuous in the insouciant Burman."—J. G. Scott, *Burma*, pp. 358, 359.—See also BUDDHISM.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 16.

Early history (B. C. 483-A. D. 1757).—It appears "that the Burmese came southwards from Tibet to the basin of the Irrawaddy and settled there, at the same time amalgamating with other immigrants who came direct from India. Thus the Burman is a cross between the Mongol and the Aryan, and the first kings of Burma given in the lists of the Maha Yazawin, the Book of National Annals, all have Hindu names. These kings are, however, all legendary, and details about them are lost in the night of time. The first reasonably accurate history is not earlier than about 483 B. C., and it treats of the Burmese kings who reigned at Tharekettara, the Prome of modern days, and at Pagān, which now only exists in its ruins. Tharekettara does not quite correspond with the modern Prome. The ancient city site is really some miles east of the modern port of call on the Irrawaddy. It ceased to be a capital in 108 A. D., and Pagān became the residence of the princes of Burma from this date and continued to be so until 1279. In that year began the invasions of the Tai, commonly called Shans in Burma, who came from the high tablelands of Yunnan, whence they were driven by the Chinese. They conquered Burma and established a Tai dynasty in Pagān, from which they moved first to Myinsaing and Panya and afterwards to Sagaing (1208-1364). In the latter year King Thadominbya, whose father was a Burman, while his mother was a Shan, founded the famous city of Ava. It was situated in the great Myohaung plain, to the south of the present Mandalay, and of all its glories there now only remain here and there a few ruins, whose crumbling bricks barely show through the rank vegetation of the tropics, and of all its multitudes only a few communities of monks with no companions but the cobras and the pythons."—J. Dautremer, *Burma under British rule*, pp. 35, 36.—"The early history of Burma, so far as it can be gathered from the native records, shows that in former days several distinct races and dynasties occupied different parts of the country. The Burman dynasties of Tagaung and Pagan, Ava, Prome, and Toungoo, and the Talaing kings of Pegu and Martahan, and the Shan rulers of Ava and Sagaing exercised control over a more or less extended sphere, at times succeeding in subverting the whole tract of Burma proper and overrunning the neighbouring kingdoms of Arakan, Siam, and the Shan States, and at times dwindling in power before the uprising of rival

kingdoms previously subjected or the inroads of Mongols, Shans, and Chinese from beyond the border. The earliest European connection with Burma was in 1510, when the Portuguese concluded a treaty with the King of Pegu, and established factories at Martaban and Syriam. Towards the close of the sixteenth century the Dutch obtained possession of the island of Negrais, and about the year 1612 the English East India Company had agents and factories at Syriam, Prome, and Ava. About the middle of the seventeenth century all European merchants were expelled from the country, owing to a dispute between the Burmese Governor of Pegu and the Dutch. The Dutch never returned. In 1688 the Burmese Governor of Syriam wrote to the English Governor of Madras, inviting British mer-

by Great Britain (Feb. 26, 1886).—"The absorption of Burma by the British Indian Empire occupied sixty years. It commenced with the war of 1824, which was brought about by frontier troubles between Bengal and the Burmese district of Arakan. The next step was the war of 1852, which arose out of the refusal of the Burmese King to make reparation for repeated outrages on British subjects. By these two wars the territory now known as Lower Burma passed under British rule."—A. Ireland, *Far eastern tropics*, p. 81.—See also INDIA: 1823-1833; 1852.—"Throughout the reign of King Mindôn relations between Britain and Burma were quite cordial [1852-1878]. . . . The twenty-six years of his reign were a period of tranquillity such as Upper Burma had not known for long years. It was also a period of British commercial



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THE SHWE DAGON PAGODA IN RANGOON

chants to settle in Pegu and in 1608 a commercial Resident was sent to Syriam, and a factory was built there, and others at Negrais and Bassein. The French also had a settlement at Syriam. Meanwhile the Burmese dynasty of Ava, which had obtained supremacy throughout Burma under Bayinhang, was harassed by inroads from China and Manipur, and was finally destroyed by the rebellion of the Talaing kingdom of Pegu. After some years of Talaing supremacy a new Burmese dynasty was established by Alaung Payâ (or Alompra, as he is generally called in the English records), a capable and wise ruler, who brought practically the whole of what we now call Burma under his rule, united his countrymen as they had never been united before, and finally crushed the Talaing power. The dynasty of Alaung Payâ held the Burmese throne until the final destruction of native rule in the Third Burmese War with England."—A. Ireland, *Province of Burma*, pp. 22, 23.

1824-1886.—Wars with the English.—Annexed

development, carried on with the most complete confidence. This state of affairs was not destined to outlast the reign of King Mindôn. When he died, in 1878, no successor had been named, and there were several princes who might be considered to have the right to succeed. As the result of a plot organized by one of the queens, Prince Thibaw was chosen by the Great Council, and he ascended the throne a few days after his election, which had been decided on when King Mindôn's state became hopeless. Prince Thibaw was a person of no great power of will, but the Queen who had thrust him on the throne had plenty of ideas and abundant energy. She had married her daughter, the Supaya-lat, to Thibaw. . . . The Supaya-lat—which is a title, not a name, and means the 'middle princess'—was clever, cruel, and arbitrary. She began the scheme of getting rid of the other princes and their families, so as to have no more possible obstacles in her way. In February, 1879, therefore, she had all the princes who were broth-

ers of the King put to death, and with them forty other persons. It was 1884, however, before she was able to carry out all her intended executions. She took advantage of the presence at Pondicherry of the Myingôn Prince, who, according to Western ideas of rights of succession, was the legitimate heir, as eldest son of King Mindôn, to accuse a great number of persons about the Court, as well as actual officials, of carrying on negotiations with him with a view of putting him on the throne of Burma. . . . There was such a massacre at Mandalay that even the Burmese themselves were filled with horror. From that time on there were throughout all the kingdom signs of disaffection against the King, and the British began to consider whether it was possible to endure a neighbour who was so cruel and so unpopular. They were all the more disposed to this attitude because of the extravagance of King Thibaw. He squandered money with both hands without troubling to inquire whether there was money in the treasury, and he impoverished the country by establishing a sort of royal lottery to raise funds. The country was ruined and the royal treasury remained empty. It was a question how it was to be filled. It was then that it occurred to the Taingda Mingyi, the Finance Minister, to get it out of the Bombay-Burma Trading Corporation. This firm had a contract for the King for the working of teak forests. The Corporation was accused of breaking its contract, and was condemned to pay a fine of Rs. 2,300,000 (£153,333) into the royal coffers. The Corporation appealed to the Government of India, which forthwith sent the following ultimatum to King Thibaw:—1. The disputes between the Government of Burma and the Bombay-Burma Trading Corporation shall be submitted to arbitration by a joint Commission of British and Burmese officers. 2. A British Resident shall be stationed at the Burmese Court. 3. The external relations of Burma shall be controlled by the British Resident.' This was delivered in November, 1885. King Thibaw sent a reply which seemed unsatisfactory, and was, in fact, a flat defiance, and the extinction of the kingdom of Burma was decided on by the Governor-General in Council.—J. Dautremere, *Burma under British rule*, pp. 66-70.—“On the 20th of November Mandalay was occupied and the King a prisoner on his way down the river to Rangoon. The waterway from Mandalay to the sea was under our [British] control. A few of the principal places on the banks of the river had been held by small garrisons as the expedition came up, and the ultimate subjugation of the Burman people was assured. The trouble, however, was to come. To a loosely organized nation like the Burmese, the occupation of the capital and the removal of the King meant nothing. They were still free to resist and fight. It was to be five years before the last of the large gangs was dispersed, the leaders captured, and peace and security established. . . . The King's rule ended on the 20th of November, 1885. On the 1st of January, 1886, the Viceroy's proclamation included Upper Burma in Her Majesty's dominions. . . . From the 26th of February, 1886, Upper Burma became a province of British India.”—C. H. T. Crosthwaite, *Pacification of Burma*, pp. 2-8.

1886-1890.—Pacification.—Improved administration.—Increased revenue.—“During the first year after the annexation the crushing of organized rebellion and of armed resistance occupied the attention of Government so fully that it was not possible to introduce regular methods and systematic administration, but in the succeeding four years every district

in Upper Burma was gradually reduced to order, and organized crime had entirely disappeared from any part of the whole province. The only remaining elements of disturbance were the wild tribes inhabiting the forest-clad hills of the northern frontier districts. Before the end of 1890 no pretender, no rebel, or no dacoit *Bo* having any considerable following was to be found throughout what had formerly been the kingdom of Ava. . . . While purifying corrupt methods and removing barbarous enormities, the maintenance of the spirit of the Burmese administration was desired; the customs and prejudices of the new subjects were interfered with as little as possible; and particular care was taken not to attempt to force upon them a brand-new system of administration, inconsistent with their national genius or habits. Special attention was given to the maintenance of the village community system, which was at the earliest possible opportunity placed on a secure legal basis. In training the necessary subordinate staff to provide for the administration of justice and the collection of revenue, full use was made of loyal Burmese officers, many of whom rendered conspicuous service. Government public offices had been erected at the headquarters of districts, and suitable jails were constructed; while the judicial administration was under the control of an experienced officer. In the larger towns a simple system of municipal government was introduced, but no attempt was made to extend the principle of self-government beyond the limits which the circumstances of the newly-acquired province rendered necessary. The educational needs of the country were examined, and steps were being gradually taken to strengthen and improve, while abstaining from needless interference with, the simple elementary tuition in reading, writing, and arithmetic at monasteries by the gradual introduction of a sound and practical scheme of public instruction. Dispensaries were open at the headquarters of every district, and during 1890 medical relief was afforded to nearly 100,000 patients, representing more than one-thirty-fifth of the total population. The revenue system had been examined and put on a satisfactory footing, with the result that it had increased to about 113 lacs of rupees (£753,333) during 1890, or some 8 lacs (£53,333) more than the largest revenue which had ever found its way in any year into the royal treasury at Mandalay; and this increase was effected without imposing any fresh taxation or burden on the people, although during the same time some obnoxious and oppressive imposts had been abolished.”—J. Nisbet, *Burma under British rule—and before*, pp. 144-146.—See also INDIA: 1864-1803.

1897.—Raised in status as British dependency.—Burma was raised in status as a British dependency, under the government of India, by royal proclamation in 1897. The chief commissioner became lieutenant-governor, and a local legislative council was created.

ALSO IN: J. T. Wheeler, *Short history of India and of frontier states of Afghanistan, Nepal and Burma*.—Sir G. Scott, *Burma*.

BURNE-JONES, Sir Edward Burne (1833-1898), one of the Pre-Raphaelite school of painters. See PAINTING: 19th century.

BURNELL, Robert (d. 1292), Lord chancellor of England.

Reforms in English law. See COMMON LAW: 1275.

BURNET, Gilbert (1643-1715), British historian and churchman, member of the Liberal party and broad ecclesiastic; 1669, professor of divinity at Glasgow University; resigned in 1674;

acquired St. Clement lectureship in 1676, of which he was deprived by the king in 1683 for his defense of Lord William Russell; travelled abroad extensively and won the confidence of William of Orange who appointed him Bishop of Salisbury in 1680; had great influence with William III but was harshly criticized by the high church party. Among his numerous writings mention must be made of his "History of the Reformation of the Church of England" and "History of his own own time."—See also HISTORY: 24.

BURNEY, Sir Cecil (1858-), British admiral at the battle of Jutland. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IX. Naval operations: a, 3; a, 5; a, 9.

BURNHAM, Daniel Hudson (1846-1912), American architect. See CHICAGO: 1909.

Burnham Library of Architecture. See ART INSTITUTE, Chicago.

BURNS, John (1858-), chief leader and organizer of the London dock strike. See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1889.

BURNS, Robert (1759-1796), Scottish poet. "By his birth right and heritage of poverty and labor, Burns spoke not about, but for, the poor. The young democracy hurrying on the day through the labors of Brindley, the mechanic; Hargraves, the poor weaver, or Watt, the mathematical instrument maker's apprentice, finds its poet-prophet in a farmer's boy of the Scotch lowlands. The natural music, the irresistible melody of Burns' songs, was learned not from the principles of literary lawgivers, but from the songs of the people. In their captivating *lilt*, their rich humor, their note of elemental passion, is revealed the soul of the peasant class."—H. Pancoast, *Introduction to English literature*, p. 301.—See also ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

BURNSIDE, Ambrose Everett (1824-1881), American brigadier general who served in the Civil War.

Expedition to Roanoke. See U. S. A.: 1862 (January-April: North Carolina).

Command of the army of the Potomac. See U. S. A.: 1862 (October-December: Virginia).

Retirement from command of the army of the Potomac. See U. S. A.: 1863 (January-April: Virginia).

Arrest of Vallandigham for speech at Copperhead meeting. See CENSORSHIP: United States.

Deliverance of East Tennessee. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September: Tennessee).

Defense of Knoxville. See U. S. A.: 1863 (October-December: Tennessee).

Siege of Petersburg. See U. S. A.: 1864 (June: Virginia), (July: Virginia).

Wilderness campaign. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May: Virginia); Grant's Movement on Richmond.

BURR, Aaron (1756-1836), American politician. Served in Continental army; member New York assembly, 1784-1785, 1797-1799, 1800-1801; attorney-general of the state, 1780-1791; member United States Senate, 1791-1797; chairman, constitutional convention, New York, 1801; elected vice-president, 1800; defeated for governor of New York, 1804; tried for treason, 1807; abroad, 1808-1812; practiced law in New York, 1812-1836.—See also NEW YORK CITY: 1740-1862; U. S. A.: 1800-1801; 1806-1807; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1746-1766.

BURRITT, Elihu (1810-1870), American philanthropist. See PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

BURRUS, Afranius, Prefect and advisor to Nero. See ROME: Empire: 54-64.

BURSCHENSCHAFT, an organization of students in the German universities whose aim it

was to promote patriotism, morality, and love of liberty; first organized at Jena in 1815 and made up chiefly of those who had fought in the War of Liberation. Movement spread to other universities and in 1818 an inter-collegiate association with a constitution was promulgated; the Carlsbad decrees suppressed them until 1827 when a reorganization took place; due to its participation in the attempted revolution at Frankfurt in 1833, it was broken up by the civil authorities. See GERMANY: 1817-1820.

BURTON, Joseph R., United States senator. Convicted of having received \$2500 from a fraudulent concern, which had been debarred from using the United States mails, in return for his efforts to have embargo removed; sentenced to a fine of \$2500 and nine months' imprisonment, May, 1903.

BURTON, Theodore Elijah (1851-), American legislator. Member of Congress 1889-1891, 1895-1915; 1921; chairman inland waterways commission 1907-1909; chairman national waterways commission 1909-1912.

BURTON, William, governor of Delaware, 1859-1863. See U. S. A.: 1861 (April): President Lincoln's call to arms.

BURY ST. EDMUNDS, Abbey of, a religious community founded by Siegebert, king of the East Angles, in 637. With the building of a new church in 1005, the abbey grew in fame, wealth and beauty, so that early in the fifteenth century it was second only to Glastonbury. The abbey owed a great deal of its fame to the influence of its abbots who were not only members of Parliament but also had complete jurisdiction over the town and neighborhood. It was in this abbey that the proposed charter of liberties, which a year later was signed by King John as the Magna Charta, was first read. The abbey of Bury St. Edmunds, along with many others of the time, was dissolved by Henry VIII.

BUSACO, Battle of (1810). See SPAIN: 1810-1812.

BUSHIDO.—"It is universally thought that the term *Bushido* is one that best expresses the Japanese characteristics, but it should be remembered that its significance has not been the same through all ages. Of course such virtues as loyalty, patriotism, and bravery have always constituted essential elements of the Japanese spirit, but other elements were gradually imported into it during feudal ages. *Bushido* was influenced and modified by a long succession of terrible wars, by the teaching of Confucius, who encouraged practice and disdained theory, and, lastly, by the doctrine of the Zen sect of Buddhism, which teaches that 'the Three Worlds exist only in the mind.' and that 'life and death are but one and the same thing.' To this were added many more qualities, such as self-control, self-renunciation, and contentment with a simple life. Hence it was the duty of a *samurai* to equip himself with all chivalrous accomplishments and to study the art of governing a country and a house, and it was considered unbecoming for him to indulge in the drama, fiction, or singing. He also thought it beneath his dignity to weep or laugh, and he tried to prevent his sorrow or joy from showing in his face. Nay more, he must not grieve or rejoice. Life is like a dic; which side turns up one knows not. If one attains to wisdom one may live in tranquillity, leaving all the rest to destiny. But he must guard against extravagance, as it is the source of all evils. Since much treasure is the cause of much anxiety, the best way to live is to put up with want and restrain one's desires.

"That is the gist of the doctrine of modern

Bushido. But, as may easily be seen, it was fatal to the flowery life of the Nara age, whose traces were completely wiped out in time. Thus the making of butter was given up; the spoon was supplanted by a pair of chop-sticks; hats and shoes were put out of use; the long pendant sleeves of the *hitataré* (robe) were cut down; and the women's rich long hair was tied up to facilitate work. Furthermore, women's *hakama* (skirt) was abolished, all gorgeous colours were despised, and clothing, furniture, and house decoration assumed the dark rusty tints we now see in them to-day."—Count Okuma, *Fifty years of New Japan*, p. 454.—See also ETHICS: Japan; JAPAN: Religion.

BUSHMEN, or *Bošnjemans*, primitive race of Africa. See AFRICA: Races of Africa; Modern peoples: ART: Distribution; PHILOLOGY: 25.

BUSHNELL, David (1742-1824), American inventor. See SUBMARINES: 624-1815.

BUSHWHACKERS, a name commonly given to the rebel guerrillas or half-bandsits of the southwest in the American Civil War.—J. G. Nicolay and J. Hay, *Abraham Lincoln*, v. 6, p. 371.

BUSI, island in the Adriatic, which was promised to Italy by the Allies in 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

BUSINESS COURSES, High school. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Beginnings of commercial education.

BUSSEY, Benjamin (1757-1842), American philanthropist. See GIFTS AND BEQUESTS.

BUSSORAH AND KUFA. See BASRA.

BUSTAMANTE, Anastasio (1780-1853), Mexican politician. Elected vice president of the republic of Mexico, 1829; resigned and was exiled, 1832; recalled and became president in 1837; again resigned, 1839, in favor of Santa Anna; participated in the war with the United States, 1846-1848.—See also TEXAS: 1824-1835.

BUSTAMENTE, A. Sanchez de, Cuban statesman, representative at the Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

BUTADÆ, priestly family at Athens. See PHYLAE.

BUTE, John Stuart, 3rd earl of (1713-1792). See ENGLAND: 1760-1763.

BUTLER, Benjamin Franklin (1818-1893), American lawyer, political figure and general; admitted to the bar, 1840; began his political career as a Democrat; elected to Massachusetts senate, 1859; member of National Democratic convention, 1860; 1861, in command at Baltimore (see U. S. A.: 1861: April-May: Maryland), in command at Fortress Monroe (see U. S. A.: 1861: May: General Butler at Fortress Monroe, Fight at Big Bethel (see U. S. A.: 1861 (June-Virginia)), in command of the Hatteras Expedition (see U. S. A.: 1861: August: North Carolina); 1862, in command of New Orleans (see U. S. A.: 1862: May-December: Louisiana); 1864, in command of the army of the James (see U. S. A.: 1864: May: Virginia: cooperative movement of Army of the James); Republican member of Congress, 1866, where for ten years he was a radical reconstructionist; advocated payment of government debts by "greenbacks"; 1880, elected as Democratic governor of Massachusetts; 1884, presidential nominee of Greenback and Anti-monopolist parties.—See also MARYLAND: 1860-1864.

At siege of Fort Fisher. See U. S. A.: 1864-1865 (December-January: North Carolina).

BUTLER, Charles Henry (1859-), lawyer, at second Hague Peace Conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCE: 1907.

BUTLER, John (d. 1794), American soldier. See U. S. A.: 1779 (August-September).

BUTLER, Joseph (1692-1752), Bishop of Durham and philosopher. See ETHICS: 18th-19th centuries.

BUTLER, Nicholas Murray (1862-), American educator, president of Columbia University since 1902.

BUTLER, Walter N. (d. 1781), Tory who aided in the Indian massacres at Cherry Valley. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June-November); 1779 (August-September).

BUTLER, Zebulon (1731-1795), American soldier. Commanded the garrison of Forty Fort at the time of the Wyoming Valley (Pa.) massacre by the Indians. See U. S. A.: 1778 (July).

BUTT, Isaac (1813-1879), Irish lawyer and politician. See IRELAND: 1873-1879.

BUTTE, Montana, county seat of Silverbow county, and center of the great copper mining region of Montana.

1912.—Socialist control. See SOCIALISM: 1901-1913.

1914. Labor agitations.—I. W. W. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.

BUTTERFIELD, Daniel (1831-1901), American soldier. Took part in many battles during the Civil War, rising from rank of colonel to that of major-general. Resigned in 1869 and was for some time head of the sub-treasury in New York City.

BUTTERNUTS, nickname for Confederate soldiers. See BOYS IN BLUE, BOYS IN GRAY; U. S. A.: 1864 (October): Report on secret disloyal associations in the north.

BUTTI, Enrico Annibale (1868-1915), Italian dramatist and psychological novelist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1880-1920.

BUTNER, Christian Wilhelm (1716-1801), German philologist. See PHILOLOGY: 24.

BUTTRESS, "a mass of masonry, projecting from the face of the wall to resist the thrust of an arch or vault. When the mass is separated from the wall and connected with it by an arch, the arch and mass form a flying buttress."—C. H. Caffin, *How to study architecture*, p. 481.—Medieval structures. The buttress and Gothic architecture was greatly forwarded by the invention of the flying buttress. A notable example of the latter is found in the Nôtre Dame de Paris.

BUYD DYNASTY, in Bagdad. See CALIPHATE: 815-945.

BUZANCY, (1) a village about eight miles south of Soissons, France, captured by the Allies in 1918 during the World War; (2) a village in eastern France about twenty miles south of Sedan; taken by the Americans in 1918 in their Meuse-Argonne drive during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: v, 10; x, 1.

BUZOT, François Nicolas Léonard (1760-1794), French revolutionist. Deputy to the Convention, 1792; became an active Girondist leader; proscribed with the Girondists, 1793; escaped to Normandy, where he attempted to organize armed opposition to the Convention; committed suicide, probably in the belief that he was discovered.

BUZOTINS, a branch of the Girondist party in France, named for François Nicolas Léonard Buzot, after his death. See GIRONOINS.

BY, John (1781-1836), Canadian military engineer. See OTTAWA, CANADA.

BYLINES, Epic songs of Russia. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 9th-14th centuries.

BYNG, John (1704-1757), British admiral. Executed for neglect of duty in his unsuccessful attempt to relieve Minorca. See MINORCA: 1756.

BYNG, Julian (Hedworth George), 1st Baron (1862-), British general; served in the Sudan expedition in 1884 and in the South African War,

1890-1902; commanded a corps at the Dardanelles just before the Allies' withdrawal; was in charge of the Canadian corps at the battle of the Somme and in the capture of Vimy Ridge in the battle of Arras; led the surprise attack on Cambrai, November 20, 1917; made first Baron of Vimy in 1919; appointed governor-general of Canada, 1921.—See also **WORLD WAR**: 1914: I. Western front: w, 5; w, 17; 1917: II. Western front: g; 1918: II. Western front: a, 1; c, 2; k, 1.

BYNKERSHOEK, Cornelius van (1673-1743), Dutch jurist; member, and later president of supreme council; exerted profound influence, both through his judicial opinions and through his many voluminous treatises, in the revision and Romanization of the common law and the formulation of international law.—See also **INTERNATIONAL LAW**: Grotius and the early jurists.

BYRD, William (1543-1623), English composer and organist. Organist in Lincoln cathedral in 1563 and later organist to Queen Elizabeth; celebrated for his church music and madrigals.—See also **MUSIC**: Modern: 1540-1672.

BYRON, George Gordon Noel Byron, 6th baron (1788-1824), English poet. In the House of Lords, 1812, where he achieved brilliant success in his first speech; enlisted in the Greek army against the Turks in 1823, but died before he could go into battle. (See **GREECE**: 1821-1829.) "The life and work of Lord Byron were an immense force not only in the history of England but throughout Europe. His generation hailed him as the voice of their aspirations and complaints. Probably no other English poet ever won such admiration from contemporary Europe; he gave English literature a larger place on the Continent, and in Mazzini's words, 'led the genius of Britain on a pilgrimage throughout all Europe.'"—H. S. Pancoast, *Introduction to English literature*, p. 365.—See also **DRAMA**: 1815-1877; **ENGLISH LITERATURE**: 1780-1830; **RUSSIAN LITERATURE**: 1814-1841.

BYRON, John (1723-1786), British admiral. See **PACIFIC OCEAN**: 1513-1764.

BYRSA, citadel of Carthage. See **CARTHAGE**: Divisions.

BYTOWN, early name for Ottawa. See **OTTAWA, CANADA**.

BYZACIUM, Africa, name given in ancient times to the coast south of Carthage. See **CARTHAGE**: Dominion of.

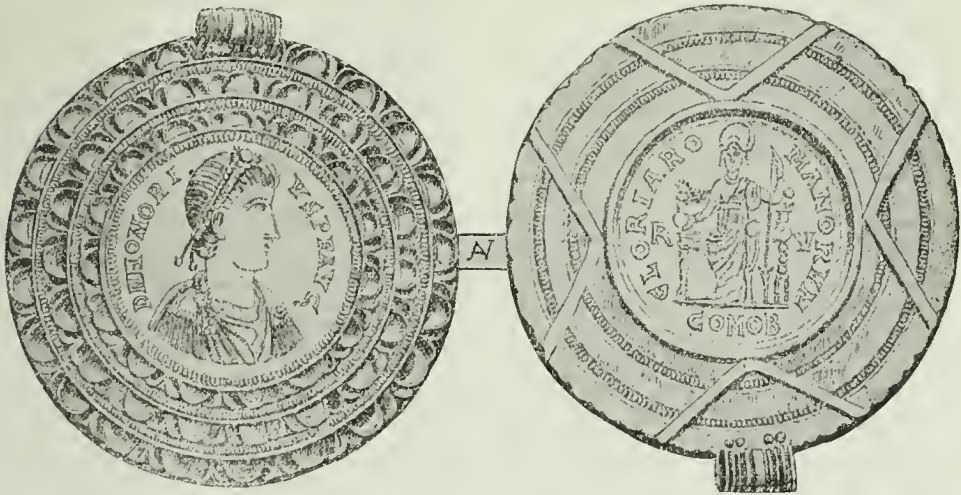
BYZANTINE AQUEDUCTS. See **AQUEDUCTS**: Byzantine.

BYZANTINE ART: Christian. See **PAINTING**: Early Christian and Byzantine art; also **PAINTING**: Roman.

BYZANTINE EMPIRE.—The Eastern Roman empire, having its capital at Byzantium (modern Constantinople), the earlier history of which will be found sketched under the caption **ROME**: 394-395, to 717-800, has been given, in its later years, the name of the Byzantine empire. The propriety of this designation is questioned by some historians, and the time when it begins to be appropriate is likewise a subject of debate. For some discussion of these questions, see **CONSTANTINOPLE**; **ROME**: Medieval city: 717-800.

Part in history.—Defense of Europe.—Civilizing influence.—"The later Roman Empire was the bulwark of Europe against the oriental danger; Maurice and Heraclius, Constantine IV. and Leo the Isaurian were the successors of Themistocles and Africanus. . . . Until the days of the crusades, the German nations did not combine with the Empire against the common foe. Nor did the Teutons, by themselves, achieve any success of ecumenical importance against non-Aryan races. I

may be reminded that Charles the Great exterminated the Avars; but that was after they had ceased to be really dangerous. When there existed a truly formidable Avar monarchy it was the Roman Empire that bore the brunt; and yet while most people who read history know of the Avar war of Charles, how few there are who have ever heard of Priscus, the general who so bravely warred against the Avars in the reign of Maurice. I may be reminded that Charles Martel won a great name by victories in southern Gaul over the Saracens; yet those successes sink into insignificance by the side of the achievement of his contemporary, the third Leo, who held the gate of eastern Europe against all the forces which the Saracen power, then at its height, could muster. Every one knows about the exploits of the Frank; it is almost incredible how little is known of the Roman Emperor's defence of the greatest city of Christian Europe, in the quarter where the real danger lay. . . . The Empire was much more than the military guard of the Asiatic frontier; it not only defended but also kept alive the traditions of Greek and Roman culture. We cannot over-estimate the importance of the presence of a highly civilised state for a system of nations which were as yet only beginning to be civilised. The constant intercourse of the Empire with Italy, which until the eleventh century was partly imperial, and with southern Gaul and Spain, had an incalculable influence on the development of the West. Venice, which contributed so much to the growth of western culture, was for a long time actually, and for a much longer time nominally, a city of the Roman Empire and learned what it taught from Byzantium. The Byzantine was the mother of the Italian school of painting, as Greece in the old days had been the mistress of Rome in the fine arts; and the Byzantine style of architecture has had perhaps a wider influence than any other. It was to New Rome that the Teutonic kings applied when they needed men of learning and thither students from western countries, who desired a university education, repaired. . . . It was, moreover, in the lands ruled by New Rome that old Hellenic culture and the monuments of Hellenic literature were preserved, as in a secure storehouse, to be given at length to the 'wild nations' when they had been sufficiently tamed. And in their taming New Rome played an indispensable part. The Justinian law, which still interpenetrates European civilisation, was a product of New Rome. In the third place the Roman Empire for many centuries entirely maintained European commerce. This was a circumstance of the greatest importance; but unfortunately it is one of those facts concerning which contemporary historians did not think of leaving records to posterity. The fact that the coins of the Roman Emperors were used throughout Europe in the Middle Ages speaks for itself. [See also **COMMERCE**: Medieval: 11th-16th centuries.] . . . In the fourth place, the Roman Empire preserved a great idea which influenced the whole course of western European history down to the present day—the idea of the Roman Empire itself. If we look at the ecumenical event of 800 from a wide point of view, it really resolves itself into this: New Rome bestowed upon the western nations a great idea, which moulded and ordered their future history; she gave back to Old Rome the idea which Old Rome bestowed upon her five centuries before. . . . If Constantinople and the Empire had fallen, the imperial idea would have been lost in the whirl of the 'wild nations.' It is to New Rome that Europeans really owe thanks for the establishment of the principle and the system which brought law



GOLD BYZANTINE MEDALLIONS

- (1) Gold Medallion of Flavius Julius Constantinus. Struck at Antioch to commemorate the victory against the Persians. Of particular interest is the halo around the Emperor's head.
- (2) Gold Medallion of Emperor Honorius (324 A. D.) Discovered in 1715 at Arnheim. On the reverse side is the figure of Roma, and the mark of the mint—R V (Ravenna).
- (3) Gold Medal of the Emperor Theodosius (d. 395 A. D.). On the reverse side is the Emperor holding the Imperial banner (Lavaron).

and order into the political relations of the West.” —J. B. Bury, *History of the later Roman empire*.—“Western Europe, no doubt, bore within its bosom the seeds of a far greater world to come, a more virile youth, greater heroes and chiefs. But wealth, organisation, knowledge, for the time were safeguarded behind the walls of Byzantium—to speak roughly, from the age of Justinian to that of the Crusades. Not only did this empire of New Rome possess the wealth, industry, and knowledge, but it had almost exclusive control of Mediterranean commerce, undisputed supremacy of the seas, paramount financial power, and the monopoly of all the more refined manufactures and arts. In the middle of the tenth century, the contrast between the kingdom of Otto the Great and the empire of Constantine Porphyrogenitus was as great as that between Russia under Peter the Great and France in the days of the Orleans Regency. From the seventh to the thirteenth century Constantinople was far the largest, wealthiest, most splendid city in Europe. It was in every sense a new Rome. And, if it were at all inferior as a whole to what its mother was in the palmy age of Trajan and Hadrian, it far surpassed the old Rome in its exquisite situation, in its mighty fortifications, and in the beauty of its central palace and church. A long succession of poets and topographers have recounted the glories of the great city—its churches, palaces, baths, forum, hippodrome, columns, porticoes, statues, theatres, hospitals, reservoirs, aqueducts, monasteries, and cemeteries. All accounts of early travellers from the West relate with wonder the splendour and wealth of the imperial city. ‘These riches and buildings were equalled nowhere in the world,’ says the Jew Benjamin of Tudela in the twelfth century. ‘Over all the land there are burghs, castles, and country towns, the one upon the other without interval,’ says the Saga of King Sigurd, fifty years earlier. The Crusaders, who despised the Greeks of the now decayed empire, were awed at the sight of their city; and as the pirates of the Fifth Crusade sailed up the Propontis they began to wonder at their own temerity in attacking so vast a fortress. . . .

“The most signal evidence of the superior civilisation of Byzantium down to the tenth century, is found in the fact that alone of all states it maintained a continuous, scientific, and even progressive system of law. Whilst the *Corpus Iuris* died down in the West under the successive invasions of the Northern nations, at least so far as governments and official study was concerned, it continued under the Emperors in the East to be the law of the State, to be expounded in translations, commentaries, and handbooks, to be regularly taught in schools of law, and still more to be developed in a Christian and modern sense. . . . Now, there was no revival of Roman Law in Byzantium, because there it never was extinct. Justinian’s later legislation was promulgated in Greek, and his *Corpus Iuris* was at once translated, summarised, and abridged in the East. Although schools of law existed in Constantinople and elsewhere, the seventh century, in its disasters and confusion, let the civil law fall to a low ebb. But the Isaurian dynasty, in the age of the Frank King Pippin, made efforts to restore and to develop the law. The *Ecloga* of Leo III. and Constantine V. was promulgated to revise the law of persons in a Christian sense. It was part of the attempt of the Iconoclasts to form a moral reform in a Puritan spirit. This was followed by three special codes—(1) A maritime code, of the Rhodian law, as to loss at sea and commercial risks; (2) a military code or law martial; (3),

a rural code to regulate the police of country populations. And a register of births for males was instituted throughout the Empire at the same time. . . .

“Turn to the history of Art. Here, again, it must be said that from the fifth to the eleventh century the Byzantine and Eastern world preserved the traditions, and led the development of art in all its modes. We are now free of the ancient fallacy that Art was drowned beneath the waves of the Teutonic invaders, until many centuries later it slowly came to life in Italy and then north of the Alps. The truth is that the noblest and most essential of the arts—that of building—some of the minor arts of decoration and ornament, and the art of music, down to the invention of Guido of Arezzo in the eleventh century, lived on and made new departures, whilst most of the arts of form died down under the combined forces of barbarian convulsions and religious asceticism. And it was Byzantium which was the centre of the new architecture and the new decoration, whilst it kept alive such seeds of the arts of form as could be saved through the rudeness and the fanaticism of the early Middle Ages. To the age of Justinian we owe one of the greatest steps ever taken by man in the art of building. The great Church of the Holy Wisdom exerted over architecture a wider influence than can be positively claimed for any single edifice in the history of the arts. We trace enormous ramifications of its example in the whole East and the whole of the West, at Ravenna, Kief, Venice, Aachen, Palermo, Thessalonica, Cairo, Syria, Persia and Delhi. And with all the enthusiasm we must feel for the Parthenon and the Pantheon, for Amiens and Chartres, I must profess my personal conviction that the interior of Agia Sophia is the grandest in the world, and certainly that one which offers the soundest basis for the architecture of the future. [See SCULPTURE: Romanesque sculpture.] . . . The people who evolved a noble and creative type of architecture could not be dead to art. But even in the arts of form we rate the Byzantines too low. From the sixth to the eleventh century Western Europe drew from Byzantium its type of ornament in every kind. This was often indirectly and perhaps unconsciously done, and usually with great modifications. But all careful study of the mosaics, the metal work, the ivories, the embroideries, the carvings, the coins, the paintings, and the manuscripts of these ages establishes the priority and the originality of the Byzantine arts of decoration. It is undoubted that the art of mosaic ornament had its source there. Mosaic, with its Greek name, was introduced into the ancient world from the East by Greece. But the exquisite art of wall decoration by glass mosaic which we are now reviving was a strictly Byzantine art, and from the fifth to the twelfth century was carried into Europe by the direct assistance of the Byzantine school. The rigid conservatism of the Church, and the gradual decline of taste, stereotyped and at last destroyed the art; but there still exist in Constantinople and in Greece glass mosaic figures as grand as anything in the decorative art of any age. [See ART: Relation of art and history; PAINTING: Early Christian and Byzantine.] . . . It is the same in the art of illuminating manuscripts. Painting, no doubt, declined more rapidly than any other art under the combined forces of barbarism and the gospel. But from the fifth to the eleventh century the paintings in Greek manuscripts are far superior to those of Western Europe. The Irish and Caroline schools developed a style of fine calligraphy and

ingenious borders and initials. But their figures are curiously inferior to those of the Byzantine painters, who evidently kept their borderings subdued so as not to interfere with their figures. Conservatism and superstition smothered and eventually killed the art of painting, as it did the art of sculpture, in the East. But there are a few rare manuscripts in Venice, in the Vatican, the French Bibliothèque Nationale—all certainly executed for Basil I., Nicephorus, and Basil II. in the ninth and tenth centuries—which in drawing, even of the nude, in composition, in expression, in grandeur of colour and effect, are not equalled until we reach the fourteenth century in Europe. The Vatican, the Venice, and the Paris examples, in my opinion, have never been surpassed. The manufacture of silks and embroidered satins was almost a Greek monopoly all through the Middle Ages. Mediæval literature is full of the splendid silks of Constantinople, of the robes and exquisite

4th century.—Threatened by Bavarians. See BALKAN STATES: Races existing.

7th-11th centuries.—Map showing spread of Christianity through the empire. See CHRISTIANITY: Map.

610-717.—Heraclian dynasty. Heraclius, I, 610-641; Heraclius Constantinus, 641; Heracleonas, 641-642; Constantinus (Constans II), 642-668; Constantine IV or V, *Pogonatus*, 668-685; Justinian II, 685-695; Leontius, 695-698; Tiberius Apsimarus, 698-705; Justinian II (restored) 705-711; Philip Bardanes, 711-713; Artemius Anas-tasius, 713-716; Theodosius III, 716-717.

8th-9th centuries.—Commercial importance.—Trade with Greece.—With China. See COMMERCE: Mediæval: 8th-9th centuries.

717.—Organization by Leo the Isaurian.—“The accession of Leo the Isaurian to the throne of Constantinople suddenly opened a new era in the history of the Eastern Empire. . . . When Leo



COLORED BYZANTINE MOSAIC AT SAN VITALE AT RAVENNA
Showing the Empress Theodora and her escort

brocades which kings and princes were eager to obtain. We hear of the robe of a Greek senator which had 600 figures picturing the entire life of Christ. Costly stuffs and utensils bore Greek names and lettering down to the middle of the fifteenth century. And some exquisite fragments of embroidered robes of Greek work are preserved in the Vatican and many Northern museums and sacristies. The diadems, sceptres, thrones, robes, coins, and jewels of the early Mediæval princes were all Greek in type, and usually Byzantine in origin. So that Mr. Frothingham, in the *American Journal of Archæology* (1894), does not hesitate to write: “The debt to Byzantium is undoubtedly immense; the difficulty consists in ascertaining what amount of originality can properly be claimed for the Western arts, industries, and institutions during the early Middle Ages.”—F. Harrison, *Byzantine history in the early middle ages*, pp. 12-13; 24-25, 28-29, 31-33. See also EDUCATION, ART: Mediæval and Renaissance.

ALSO IN: E. Foord, *Byzantine empire*, pp. 402-406.—C. W. C. Oman, *Byzantine empire*, pp. 221-225.

III. was proclaimed emperor [717], it seemed as if no human power could save Constantinople from falling as Rome had fallen. The Saracens considered the sovereignty of every land, in which any remains of Roman civilization survived, as within their grasp. Leo, an Isaurian, and an Iconoclast, consequently a foreigner and a heretic, ascended the throne of Constantine and arrested the victorious career of the Mohammedans. He then reorganized the whole administration so completely in accordance with the new exigencies of Eastern society that the reformed empire outlived for many centuries every government contemporary with its establishment. The Eastern Roman Empire, thus reformed, is called by modern historians the Byzantine Empire; and the term is well devised to mark the changes effected in the government, after the extinction of the last traces of the military monarchy of ancient Rome. . . . The provincial divisions of the Roman Empire had fallen into oblivion. A new geographical arrangement into Themes appears to have been established by Heraclius, when he recovered the Asiatic provinces from the Persians; it was reorganized by Leo, and

endured as long as the Byzantine government. The number of themes varied at different periods. The Emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus, writing writing about the middle of the tenth century, counts sixteen in the Asiatic portion of the Empire and twelve in the European. . . . The European provinces were divided into eight continental and five insular or transmarine themes, until the loss of the exarchate of Ravenna reduced the number to twelve. Venice and Naples, though they acknowledged the suzerainty of the Eastern Empire, acted generally as independent cities. . . . When Leo was raised to the throne the Empire was threatened with immediate ruin. . . . Every army assembled to encounter the Saracens broke out into rebellion. The Bulgarians and Slavonians wasted Europe up to the walls of Constantinople; the Saracens ravaged the whole of Asia Minor to the shores of the Bosphorus."—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire*, bk. 1, pp. 716-1057, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: E. W. Brooks, *The Emperor Zenon* (*English Historical Review*, Apr., 1893).—E. L. Clark, *Races of European Turkey*, ch. 3.—E. Foord, *Byzantine empire*, ch. 9.

717-797.—Isaurian dynasty.—The dynasty founded by Leo the Isaurian held the throne until the dethronement of Constantine VI by his mother, Irene, 797, and her dethronement, in turn by Nicephorus I, 802. It embraced the following reigns: Constantine V, called Copronymus, 741-775; Leo IV, 775-780; Constantine VI, 780-797; Irene, 797-802.

726-751.—Iconoclastic controversy.—Rupture with the West.—Fall of the exarchate of Ravenna.—End of authority in Italy. See ICONOCLASTIC CONTROVERSY; PAPACY: 728-774.

802-820.—Emperors: Nicephorus I, 802-811; Stauracius, 811; Michael I, 811-813; Leo V, 813-820.

803.—Treaty with Charlemagne, fixing boundaries. See VENICE: 697-810.

820-1057.—Amorian and Basilian or Macedonian dynasties.—Michael, the Amorian (820-829) so named from his birth-place, Amorium, in Phrygia, was a soldier, raised to the throne by a revolution which deposed and assassinated his friend and patron, the Emperor Leo V. Michael transmitted the crown to his son (Theophilus, 829-842) and grandson. The latter, called Michael the Drunkard, was conspired against and killed by one of the companions of his drunken orgies (867), Basil the Macedonian, who had been in early life a groom. Basil founded a dynasty which reigned, with several interruptions, from 867 to 1057—a period covering the following reigns: Basil I, 867-886; Leo VI, 886-911; Constantine VII (Porphyrogenitus), 911-950; Romanus I (Colleague), 919-944; Constantine VIII (Colleague), 944; Romanus II, 950-963; Nicephorus II, 963-969; John Zimisce, 969-976; Basil II, 963-1025; Constantine IX, 963-1028; Romanus III, 1028-1034; Michael IV, 1034-1041; Michael V, 1041-1042; Zoe and Theodora, 1042-1056; Constantine X, 1042-1054; Michael VI, 1056-1057.

823.—Loss of Crete to the Arabs. See CRETE: 823.

838.—War with Saracens.—Destruction of Amorium. See AMORIAN WAR.

865-1043.—Wars, commerce and church connection with the Russians. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 865, 907-1047; RUSSIA: 865-941.

870-1016.—Fresh acquisitions in southern Italy. See ITALY (SOUTHERN): 800-1016.

907-1014.—Control of Bulgaria. See BULGARIA: 10th-11th centuries; CONSTANTINOPLE: 907-1047.

961-963.—Recovery of Crete. See CRETE: 961-963.

963-1025.—Recovery of prestige and territory.—"Amidst all the crimes and revolutions of the Byzantine government—and its history is but a series of crimes and revolutions—it was never dismembered by intestine war. A sedition in the army, a tumult in the theatre, a conspiracy in the palace, precipitated a monarch from the throne; but the allegiance of Constantinople was instantly transferred to his successor, and the provinces implicitly obeyed the voice of the capital. The custom, too, of partition, so baneful to the Latin kingdoms, and which was not altogether unknown to the Saracens, never prevailed in the Greek Empire. It stood in the middle of the tenth century, as vicious indeed and cowardly, but more wealthy, more enlightened, and far more secure from its enemies than under the first successors of Heraclius. For about one hundred years preceding there had been only partial wars with the Mohammedan potentates; and in these the emperors seem gradually to have gained the advantage, and to have become more frequently the aggressors. But the increasing distractions of the East encouraged two brave usurpers, Nicephorus Phocas and John Zimisce, to attempt the actual recovery of the lost provinces. They carried the Roman arms (one may use the term with less reluctance than usual) over Syria; Antioch and Aleppo were taken by storm; Damascus submitted; even the cities of Mesopotamia, beyond the ancient boundary of the Euphrates, were added to the trophies of Zimisce, who unwillingly spared the capital of the Khalifate. From such distant conquest it was expedient, and indeed necessary to withdraw; but Cilicia and Antioch were permanently restored to the Empire. At the close of the tenth century the emperors of Constantinople possessed the best and greatest portion of the modern kingdom of Naples, a part of Sicily, the whole [present] European dominions of the Ottomans, the province of Anatolia or Asia Minor, with some part of Syria and Armenia."—H. Hallam, *View of the state of Europe during the Middle Ages*, ch. 6.

11th century.—Military organization. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 15.

1054.—Ecclesiastical division of the Eastern from the Roman church. See FILIOQUE CONTROVERSY.

1057-1081.—Between the Basilian and the Comnenian dynasties.—Dark period.—"The moment that the last of the Macedonian dynasty was gone, the elements of discord seemed unchained, and the double scourge of civil war and foreign invasion began to afflict the empire. In the twenty-four years between 1057 and 1081 were pressed more disasters than had been seen in any other period of East Roman history, save perhaps the reign of Heraclius. . . . The aged Theodora had named as her successor on the throne Michael Stratiocus, a contemporary of her own who had been an able soldier 25 years back. But Michael VI. was grown aged and incompetent, and the empire was full of ambitious generals, who would not tolerate a dotard on the throne. Before a year had passed a band of great Asiatic nobles entered into a conspiracy to overturn Michael, and replace him by Isaac Comnenus, the chief of one of the ancient Cappadocian houses, and the most popular general of the East. Isaac Comnenus and his friends took arms, and dispossessed the aged Michael of his throne with little difficulty. But a curse seemed to rest upon the usurpation; Isaac was stricken down by disease when he had been little more than a year on the throne, and retired to a

monastery to die. His crown was transferred to Constantine Ducas, another Cappadocian noble," who reigned for seven troubled years. His three immediate successors were Romanus IV., 1067-1071; Michael VII., 1071-1078; Nicephorus III., 1078-1081.—C. W. C. Oman, *Story of the Byzantine empire*, ch. 20.

1063-1073.—Wars with Turkey, led by Alp Arslan. See TURKEY: 1063-1073.

1081.—Enthronement of the Comnenian dynasty. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1081.

1081-1085.—Attempted Norman conquest from Southern Italy.—Robert Guiscard, the Norman adventurer who had carved for himself a principality in southern Italy and acquired the title of duke of Apulia,—his duchy coinciding with the subsequent Norman kingdom of Naples—conceived the ambitious design of adding the Byzantine empire to his estate. His conquests in Italy had been mostly at the expense of the Byzantine dominions, and he believed that he had measured the strength of the degenerate Roman-Greeks. He was encouraged, moreover, by the successive revolutions which tossed the imperial crown from hand to hand, and which had just given it to the Comnenian, Alexius I. Beyond all, he had a claim of right to interfere in the affairs of the empire; for his young daughter was betrothed to the heir-expectant whose expectations were now vanishing, and had actually been sent to Constantinople to receive her education for the throne. To promote his bold undertaking, Robert obtained the approval of the pope, and an absolution for all who would join his ranks. Thus spiritually equipped, the Norman duke invaded Greece, in the summer of 1081, with 150 ships and 30,000 men. Making himself master, on the way, of the island of Corcyra (Corfu), and taking several ports on the mainland, he laid siege to Dyrrachium, and found it a most obstinate fortification to reduce. Its massive ancient walls defied the Norman engine, and it was not until February, 1082, that Robert Guiscard gained possession of the town, by the treachery of one of its defenders. Meantime the Normans had routed and scattered one large army, which the emperor Alexius led in person to the relief of Dyrrachium; but the fortified towns in Illyria and Epirus delayed their advance toward Constantinople. Robert was called home to Italy by important affairs and left his son Bohemund (the subsequent Crusader and prince of Antioch), in command. Bohemund defeated Alexius again in the spring of 1083, and still a third time the following autumn. All Epirus was overrun and Macedonia and Thessaly invaded; but the Normans, while besieging Larissa, were undone by a stratagem, lost their camp and found it necessary to retreat. Robert was then just reëntering the field, in person, and had won an important naval battle at Corfu, over the combined Greeks and Venetians, when he died (July, 1085), and his project of conquest in Greece ended with him. Twenty years afterwards, his son Bohemund, when prince of Antioch, and quarreling with the Byzantines, gathered a crusading army in France and Italy to lead it against Constantinople; but it was stopped by stubborn Dyrrachium, and never got beyond. Alexius had recovered that strong coast defence shortly after Robert Guiscard's death, with the help of the Venetians and Amalfians. By way of reward, those merchant allies received important commercial privileges, and the title of Venice to the sovereignty of Dalmatia and Croatia was recognized. "From this time the doge appears to have styled himself lord of the kingdoms of Dalmatia and Croatia."—G. Finlay, *History of the*

Byzantine and Greek empires, bk. 3, ch. 2, sect. 1.

1081-1185.—Comnenian emperors: Alexius I., 1081-1118; John II., 1118-1143; Manuel I., 1143-1181; Alexius II., 1181-1183; Andronicus I., 1183-1185.

1096-1097.—First crusade. See CRUSADES: 1096-1099; also Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097.

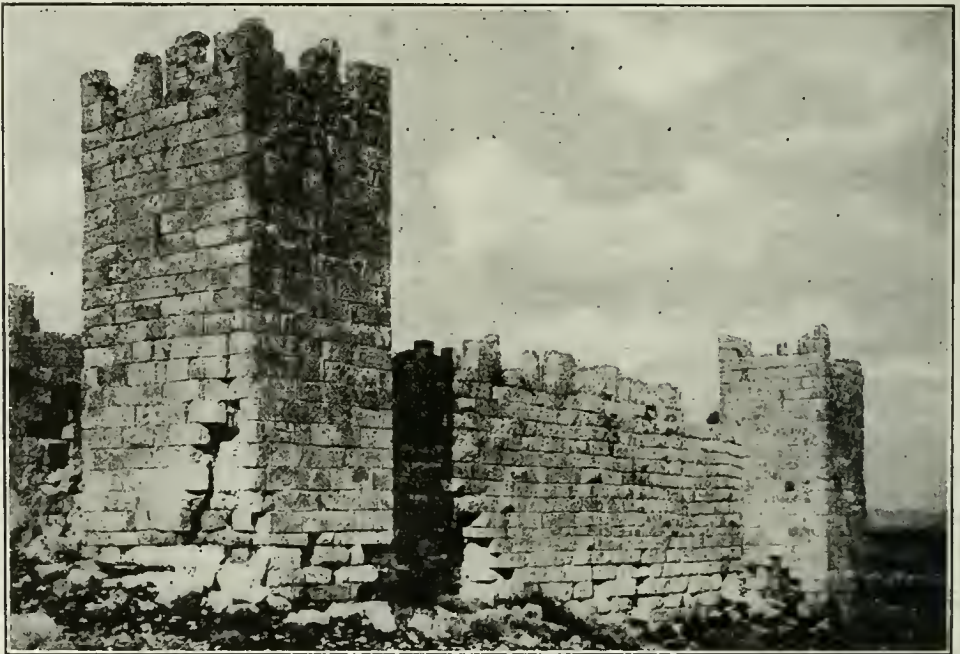
1099-1101.—Venice and the first Crusade. See VENICE: 1099-1101.

1127-1128.—Quarrels with Venice. See VENICE: 1127-1128.

1146.—Destructive invasion of Roger, king of Sicily.—Sack of Thebes and Corinth.—When Roger, king of Sicily, united the Norman possessions in southern Italy to his Sicilian realm he became ambitious, in his turn, to acquire some part of the Byzantine possessions. His single attack, however, made simultaneously with the second crusading movement (1146), amounted to no more than a great and destructive plundering raid in Greece. An insurrection in Corfu gave that island to him, after which his fleet ravaged the coasts of Eubœa and Attica, Acarnania and Ætolia. "It then entered the gulf of Corinth, and debarked a body of troops at Crissa. This force marched through the country to Thebes, plundering every town and village on the way. Thebes offered no resistance, and was plundered in the most deliberate and barbarous manner. The inhabitants were numerous and wealthy. The soil of Bœotia is extremely productive, and numerous manufactures established in the city of Thebes gave additional value to the abundant produce of agricultural industry. . . . All military spirit was now dead, and the Thebans had so long lived without any fear of invasion that they had not even adopted any effectual measures to secure or conceal their movable property. The conquerors, secure against all danger of interruption, plundered Thebes at their leisure. . . . When all ordinary means of collecting booty were exhausted, the citizens were compelled to take an oath on the Holy Scriptures that they had not concealed any portion of their property, yet many of the wealthiest were dragged away captive, in order to profit by their ransom; and many of the most skilful workmen in the silk-manufactories, for which Thebes had long been famous, were pressed on board the fleet to labour at the oar. . . . Benjamin of Tudela, who visited Thebes about twenty years later, or perhaps in 1161, speaks of it as then a large city, with two thousand Jewish inhabitants, who were the most eminent manufacturers of silk and purple cloth in all Greece. The silks of Thebes continued to be celebrated as of superior quality after this invasion. . . . From Bœotia the army passed to Corinth. . . . Corinth was sacked as cruelly as Thebes; men of rank, beautiful women, and skilful artisans, with their wives and families, were carried away into captivity. . . . This invasion of Greece was conducted entirely as a plundering expedition. . . . Corfu was the only conquest of which Roger retained possession; yet this passing invasion is the period from which the decline of Byzantine Greece is to be dated. The century-and-a-half which preceded this disaster had passed in uninterrupted tranquillity, and the Greek people had increased rapidly in numbers and wealth. The power of the Slavonian population sank with the ruin of the kingdom of Achrida; and the Slavonians who now dwell in Greece were peaceable cultivators of the soil, or graziers. The Greek population, on the other hand, was in possession of an extensive commerce and

many flourishing manufactures. The ruin of this commerce and of these manufactures has been ascribed to the transference of the silk trade from Thebes and Corinth to Palermo, under the judicious protection it received from Roger; but it would be more correct to say that the injudicious and oppressive financial administration of the Byzantine Emperors destroyed the commercial prosperity and manufacturing industry of the Greeks; while the wise liberality and intelligent protection of the Norman kings extended the commerce and increased the industry of the Sicilians. When the Sicilian fleet returned to Palermo, Roger determined to employ all the silk-manufacturers in their original occupations. He consequently collected all their families together, and settled them at Palermo, supplying them with the means of exercising their industry with profit to themselves, and inducing them to teach his own subjects to manufacture the

throne, deprived of sight and shut up in a dungeon, by a brother of equal worthlessness, who styled himself Alexius III. The latter neglected, however, to secure the person of Isaac's son, Alexius, who escaped from Constantinople and made his way to his sister, wife of Philip, the German king and claimant of the western imperial crown. Philip thereupon plotted with the Venetians to divert the great crusading expedition, then assembling to take ship at Venice, and to employ it for the restoration of young Alexius and his father Isaac to the Byzantine throne. The cunning and perfidious means by which that diversion was brought about are related in another place (see CRUSADES: 1201-1203). The great fleet of the crusading filibusters arrived in the Bosphorus near the end of June, 1203. The army which it bore was landed first on the Asiatic side of the strait, opposite the imperial city. After ten days of



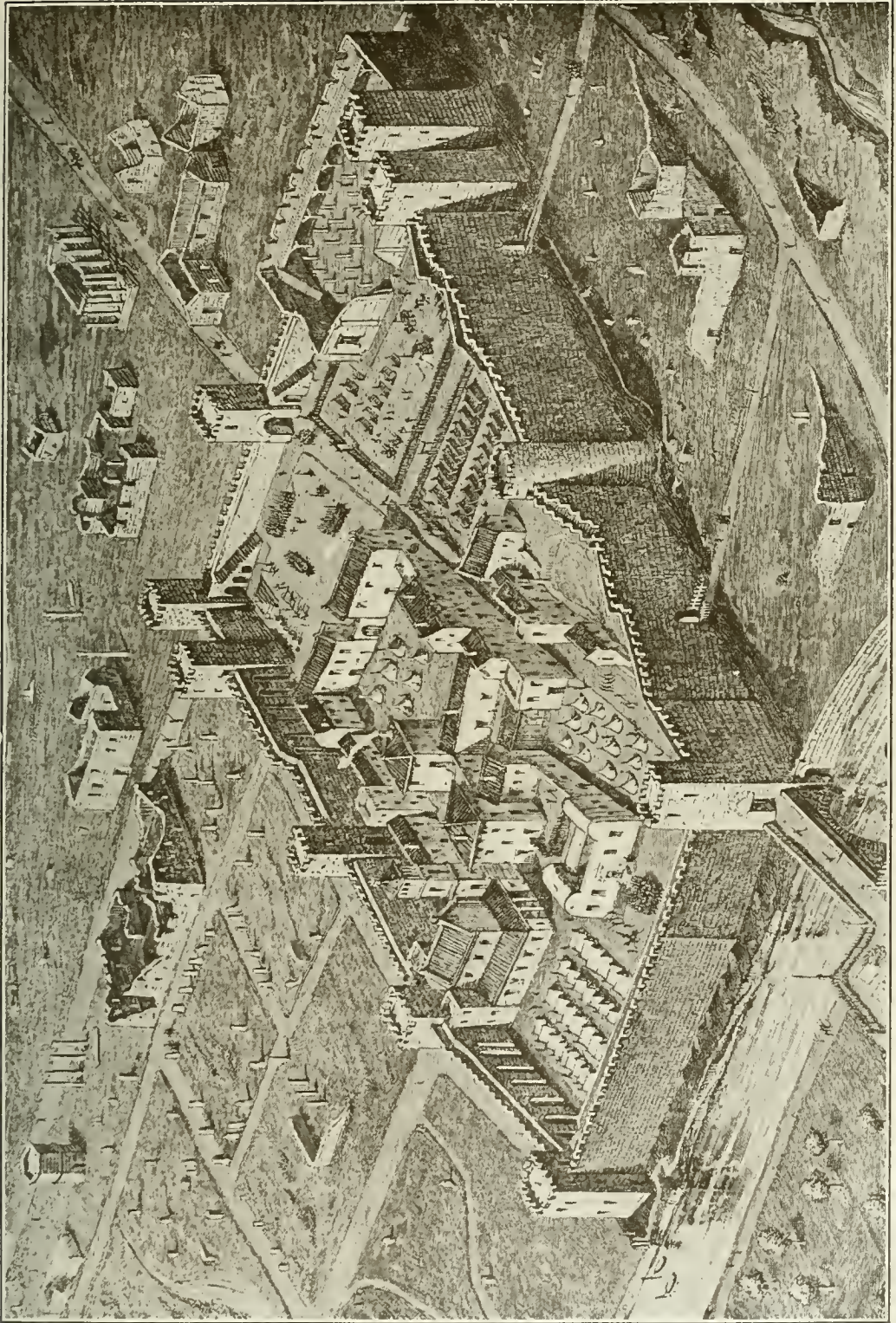
RUINS OF A BYZANTINE CITADEL

richest brocades, and to rival the rarest productions of the East. . . . It is not remarkable that the commerce and manufactures of Greece were transferred in the course of another century to Sicily and Italy."—G. Finlay, *History of Byzantine and Greek empires, from 716 to 1453, bk. 3, ch. 2, sect. 3*.—See also CRUSADES: 1147-1149.

1185-1204.—**The Angeli:** Isaac II, 1185-1195; Alexius III, 1195-1203; Alexius IV, 1203-1204.

1203-1204.—**Overthrow by the Venetians and Crusaders.—Sack of Constantinople.**—The last of the Comnenian emperors in the male line—the brutal Andronicus I—perished horribly in a wild insurrection at Constantinople which his tyranny provoked, 1185. His successor, Isaac Angelus, collaterally related to the imperial house, had been a contemptible creature before his coronation, and received no tincture of manliness or virtue from that ceremony. In the second year of his reign, the empire was shorn of its Bulgarian and Wallachian provinces by a successful revolt of the Bulgarians (see BULGARIA: 12th century). In the tenth year (1195), Isaac was pushed from his

parley and preparation it was conveyed across the water and began its attack. The towers guarding the entrance to the Golden Horn—the harbor of Constantinople—were captured, the chain removed, the harbor occupied, and the imperial fleet seized or destroyed. On July 17 a combined assault by land and water was made on the walls of the city, at their northwest corner, near the Blachern palace, where they presented one face to the Horn and another to the land. The land attack failed. The Venetians, from their ships, stormed twenty-five towers, gained possession of a long stretch of the wall, and pushed into the city far enough to start a conflagration which spread ruin over an extensive district. They could not hold their ground, and withdrew; but the result was a victory. The cowardly emperor, Alexius III, fled from the city that night, and blind old Isaac Angelus was restored to the throne. He was ready to associate his son in the sovereignty, and to fulfill, if he could, the contracts which the latter had made with Venetians and Crusaders. These invaders had now no present excuse for making war on Constantinople



RECONSTRUCTION OF BYZANTINE CITADEL AT HAIDRA, TUNIS

(After M. Saladin)

any further. But the excuse was soon found. Money to pay their heavy claims could not be raised, and their hatefulness to the Greeks was increased by the insolence of their demeanor. A serious collision occurred at length, provoked by the plundering of a Mohammedan mosque which the Byzantines had tolerated in their capital. Once more, on this occasion, the splendid city was fired by the ruthless invaders, and an immense district in the richest and most populous part was destroyed, while many of the inhabitants perished. The fire lasted two days and nights, sweeping a wide belt from the harbor to the Marmora. The suburbs of Constantinople were pillaged and ruined by the Latin soldiery, and more and more it became impossible for the two restored emperors to raise money for paying the claims of the Crusaders who had championed them. Their subjects hated them and were desperate. At last, in January, 1204, the public feeling of Constantinople flamed out in a revolution which crowned a new emperor, one Alexis Ducas, nicknamed Mourt-zophlos, on account of his eyebrows, which met. A few days afterwards, with suspicious opportuneness, Isaac and Alexius died. Then both sides entered upon active preparations for serious war; but it was not until April 9 that the Crusaders and Venetians were ready to assail the walls once more. The first assault was repelled, with heavy loss to the besiegers. They rested two days and repeated the attack on the 12th with irresistible resolution and fury. The towers were taken, the gates were broken down, knights and soldiers poured into the fated city, killing without mercy, burning without scruple—starting a third appalling conflagration which laid another wide district in ruins. The new emperor fled, the troops laid down their arms,—Constantinople was conquered and prostrate. "Then began the plunder of the city. The imperial treasury and the arsenal were placed under guard; but with these exceptions the right to plunder was given indiscriminately to the troops and sailors. Never in Europe was a work of pillage more systematically and shamelessly carried out. Never by the army of a Christian state was there a more barbarous sack of a city than that perpetrated by these soldiers of Christ, sworn to chastity, pledged before God not to shed Christian blood, and bearing upon them the emblem of the Prince of Peace. . . . 'Never since the world was created,' says the Marshal [Villehardouin] 'was there so much booty gained in one city. Each man took the house which pleased him, and there were enough for all. Those who were poor found themselves suddenly rich. There was captured an immense supply of gold and silver, of plate and of precious stones, of satins and of silk, of furs and of every kind of wealth ever found upon the earth.' . . . The Greek eye-witness [Nicetas] gives the complement of the picture of Villehardouin. The lust of the army spared neither maiden nor the virgin dedicated to God. Violence and debauchery were everywhere present; cries and lamentations and the groans of the victims were heard throughout the city; for everywhere pillage was unrestrained and lust unbridled. . . . A large part of the booty had been collected in the three churches designated for that purpose. . . . The distribution was made during the latter end of April. Many works of art in bronze were sent to the melting-pot to be coined. Many statues were broken up in order to obtain the metals with which they were adorned. The conquerors knew nothing and cared nothing for the art which had added value to the metal."—E. Pears, *Fall of Constantinople*, ch. 14-15.

ALSO IN: G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires, from 716 to 1453, bk. 3, ch. 3, sect. 3.*

1204.—Reign of Alexius V.

1204-1205.—Partitioning of the empire by the Crusaders and the Venetians.—"Before the crusaders made their last successful attack on Constantinople, they concluded a treaty partitioning the Byzantine empire and dividing the plunder of the capital. . . . This treaty was entered into by the Frank crusaders on the one part, and the citizens of the Venetian republic on the other, for the purpose of preventing disputes and preserving unity in the expedition." The treaty further provided for the creation of an Empire of Romania, to take the place of the Byzantine Empire, and for the election of an Emperor to reign over it. The arrangements of the treaty in this latter respect were carried out, not long after the taking of the city by the election of Baldwin, count of Flanders, the most esteemed and the most popular among the princes of the crusade, and he received the imperial crown of the new Empire of Romania at the hands of the legate of the pope. "Measures were immediately taken after the coronation of Baldwin to carry into execution the act of partition as arranged by the joint consent of the Frank and Venetian commissioners. But their ignorance of geography, and the resistance offered by the Greeks in Asia Minor, and by the Vallachians and Albanians in Europe, throw innumerable difficulties in the way of the proposed distribution of fiefs. The quarter of the Empire that formed the portion of Baldwin consisted of the city of Constantinople, with the country in its immediate vicinity, as far as Bizya and Tzouroulos in Europe and Nicomedia in Asia. Beyond the territory around Constantinople, Baldwin possessed districts extending as far as the Strymon in Europe and the Sangarius in Asia; but his possessions were intermingled with those of the Venetians and the vassals of the Empire. Prokonnesos, Lesbos, Chios, Lemnos, Skyros, and several smaller islands, also fell to his share."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the crusaders, ch. 4, sect. 1-2.*—"In the division of the Greek provinces the share of the Venetians was more ample than that of the Latin emperor. No more than one fourth was appropriated to his domain; a clear moiety of the remainder was reserved for Venice and the other moiety was distributed among the adventurers of France and Lombardy. The venerable Dandolo was proclaimed Despot of Romania, and was invested, after the Greek fashion, with the purple buskins. He ended at Constantinople his long and glorious life; and if the prerogative was personal, the title was used by his successors till the middle of the fourteenth century, with the singular, though true, addition of 'Lords of one fourth and a half of the Roman Empire.' . . . They possessed three of the eight quarters of the city. . . . They had rashly accepted the dominion and defence of Adrianople; but it was the more reasonable aim of their policy to form a chain of factories and cities and islands along the maritime coast, from the neighbourhood of Ragusa to the Hellespont and the Bosphorus. . . . For the price of 10,000 marks the republic purchased of the marquis of Montferrat the fertile island of Crete or Candia with the ruins of a hundred cities. . . . In the moiety of the adventurers the Marquis Boniface [of Montferrat] might claim the most liberal reward; and, besides the isle of Crete, his exclusion from the throne [for which he had been a candidate against Baldwin of Flanders] was compensated by the royal title and the provinces beyond the Hellespont. But he prudently

exchanged that distant and difficult conquest for the kingdom of Thessalonica or Macedonia, twelve days' journey from the capital, where he might be supported by the neighbouring powers of his brother-in-law, the king of Hungary. . . . The lots of the Latin pilgrims were regulated by chance or choice or subsequent exchange. . . . At the head of his knights and archers each baron mounted on horseback to secure the possession of his share, and their first efforts were generally successful. But the public force was weakened by their dispersion; and a thousand quarrels must arise under a law and among men whose sole umpire was the sword."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 61.—See also CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands after 1204; ROMANIA; TREBIZOND: 1204-1461.

1204-1261.—Latin emperors of the East. Baldwin I, 1204-1206; Henry of Flanders, 1206-1216; Peter of Courtenay, 1216-1217; Yolande, 1217-1221; Robert, 1221-1228; Baldwin II, 1228-1261; John of Brienne, 1229-1237 (for the period of Baldwin II's minority).

1204-1350.—Despotism in Epirus. See EPIRUS: 1204-1350.

1206-1261.—Nicæan emperors: Theodore I, Lascaris, 1206-22; John III, Vatatzes, or Ducas, 1222-54; Theodore II, Lascaris, or Ducas, 1254-58; John IV, Lascaris, or Ducas, 1258-61.

1261-1453.—The Empire restored.—The Paleologi: Michael VIII, Paleologus, 1261-1282; Andronicus II, Paleologus, 1282-1328; Andronicus III, Paleologus, 1328-1341; John V, Paleologus, 1341-1391 (John Cantacuzenus, co-emperor, 1347-1355); Manuel II, 1391-1425 (John VII, co-emperor, 1398-1402); John VI, 1425-1448; Constantine XI, 1448-1453.

1261-1299.—Aid from Genoese. See GENOA: 1261-1299.

1261-1453.—Greek restoration.—Last struggle with the Turks and final overthrow.—The story of the shadowy restoration of a Greek empire at Constantinople, its last struggle with the Turks, and its fall is told elsewhere. (See CONSTANTINOPLE: 1261-1453, to 1453.) "From the hour of her foundation to that in which her sun finally sank in blood, Christian Constantinople was engaged in constant struggles against successive hordes of barbarians. She did not always triumph in the strife, but, even when she was beaten she did not succumb, but carried on the contest still; and the fact that she was able to do so is alone a sufficient proof of the strength and vitality of her organization. . . . Of the seventy-six emperors and five empresses who occupied the Byzantine throne, 15 were put to death, 7 were blinded or otherwise mutilated, 4 were deposed and imprisoned in monasteries, and 10 were compelled to abdicate. This list, comprising nearly half of the whole number, is sufficient indication of the horrors by which the history of the empire is only too often marked, and it may be frankly admitted that these dark stains, disfiguring pages which but for them would be bright with the things which were beautiful and glorious, go some way to excuse, if not to justify, the obloquy which Western writers have been so prone to cast upon the East. But it is not by considering the evil only, any more than the good only, that it is possible to form a just judgment upon an historic epoch. To judge the Byzantine Empire only by the crimes which defiled the palace would be as unjust as if the French people were to be estimated by nothing but the Massacre of St. Bartholomew, the Reign of Terror, and the Commune of 1871. The dynastic crimes and revolutions of New Rome were not a constant feature

in her history. On the contrary, the times of trouble and anarchy were episodes between long periods of peace. They arose either from quarrels in the imperial family itself, which degraded the dignity of the crown, or from the contentions of pretenders struggling among themselves till one or other had worsted his rivals and was able to become the founder of a long dynasty. . . . The most deplorable epoch in the history of the Byzantine Empire, the period in which assassination and mutilation most abounded, was that in which it was exposed to the influence of the Crusaders, and thus brought into contact with Western Europe. . . . The Byzantine people, although in every respect the superiors of their contemporaries, were unable entirely to escape the influence of their neighborhood. As the guardians of classical civilization, they strove to keep above the deluge of barbarism by which the rest of the world was then inundated. But it was a flood whose waters prevailed exceedingly upon the earth, and sometimes all the high hills were covered, even where might have rested the ark in which the traditions of ancient culture were being preserved. . . . The Byzantine Empire was predestinated to perform in especial one great work in human history. That work was to preserve civilization during the period of barbarism which we call the Middle Ages. . . . Constantinople fell, and the whole Hellenic world passed into Turkish slavery. Western Europe looked on with unconcern at the appalling catastrophe. It was in vain that the last of the Palaiologoi cried to them for help. 'Christendom,' says Gibbon, 'beheld with indifference the fall of Constantinople.' . . . Up to her last hour she had never ceased, for more than a thousand years, to fight. In the fourth century she fought the Goths; in the fifth, the Huns and Vandals; in the sixth, the Slavs; in the seventh, the Persians, the Avars, and the Arabs; in the eighth, ninth, and tenth, the Bulgars, the Magyars, and the Russians; in the eleventh, the Koumanoi, the Petzenegoi, and the Seljoukian Turks; in the twelfth, thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth, the Ottomans, the Normans, the Crusaders, the Venetians, and the Genoese. No wonder that at last she fell exhausted. The wonder is, how she could keep herself alive so long. But it was by this long battle that she succeeded in saving from destruction, amid the universal cataclysm which overwhelmed the classical world, the civilization of the ancients, modified by the Christian religion. The moral and intellectual development of modern Europe are owing to the Byzantine Empire, if it be true that this development is the common offspring of antiquity upon the one hand and of Christianity upon the other."—D. Bikelas, *Byzantine empire* (*Scottish Review*, 1886, v. 8).

BYZANTIUM: Beginnings of.—The ancient Greek city of Byzantium, which occupied part of the site of the modern city of Constantinople, was founded, according to tradition, by Megarians, 657 B. C. Its situation on the Bosphorus enabled the possessors of the city to control the important corn supply which came from the Euxine, while its tunny fisheries were renowned sources of wealth. It was to the latter that the bay called the Golden Horn was said to owe its name. The Persians, the Lacedæmonians, the Athenians and the Macedonians were successive masters of Byzantium, before the Roman day, Athens and Sparta having taken and retaken the city from one another many times during their wars.

B. C. 478.—Taken by the Greeks from the Persians. See GREECE: B. C. 478-477.

B.C. 440.—Unsuccessful revolt against Athens. Byzantium joined the revolt of Samos against Athens. This was stamped out by the Athenian fleets under Pericles.

B.C. 408.—Revolt and reduction by the Athenians. See GREECE: B.C. 411-407.

B.C. 357.—Social war with Athens. See ATHENS: B.C. 378-357.

B.C. 340.—Unsuccessful siege by Philip of Macedon. See GREECE: B.C. 340.

B.C. 336.—Alliance with Alexander the Great. See GREECE: B.C. 336-335.

A. D. 194.—Siege by Severus. See ROME: Empire: 192-284.

A. D. 267.—Capture by the Goths. See GOTHs: A. D. 258-267.

A. D. 323.—Siege by Constantine. See ROME: Empire: 305-323.

A. D. 330.—Transformed into Constantinople. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 330; CONSTANTINOPLE.

BZURA, a river flowing into the Vistula west of Warsaw, Poland; the scene of conflict between the Germans and the Russians in the World War, during the German invasion of Poland.

C

CAABA. See KAABA.

CAAMAÑO, José Maria Placido (1838-1901), president of Ecuador, 1884-1888. See ECUADOR: 1888-1899.

CABAL. See CABINET: English.

CABALA.—"The term Cabala is usually applied to that wild system of Oriental philosophy which was introduced, it is uncertain at what period, into the Jewish schools; in a wider sense it comprehended all the decisions of the Rabbinical courts or schools, whether on religious or civil points."—H. H. Milman, *History of the Jews*, v. 2, bk. 18.—"The philosophic Cabala aspired to be a more sublime and transcendental Rabbinism. It was a mystery not exclusive of, but above their more common mysteries; a secret more profound than their profoundest secrets. It claimed the same guaranty of antiquity, of revelation, of tradition; it was the true, occult, to few intelligible sense of the sacred writings and of the sayings of the most renowned Wise Men; the inward interpretation of the genuine interpretation of the Law and the Prophets. Men went on; they advanced, they rose from the most full and perfect study of the Talmuds to the higher doctrines, to the more divine contemplations of the Cabala. And the Zohar was the Book of the Cabala which soared almost above the comprehension of the wisest. . . . In its traditional, no doubt unwritten form, the Cabala, at least a Cabala, ascends to a very early date, the Captivity; in its proper and more mature form, it belongs to the first century, and reaches down to the end of the seventh century of our era. The Sepher Yetzira, the Book of Creation, which boasts itself to be derived from Moses, from Abraham, if not from Adam, or even aspires higher, belongs to the earlier period; the Zohar, the Light, to the later. The remote origin of the Cabala belongs to that period when the Jewish mind, during the Captivity, became so deeply impregnated with Oriental notions, those of the Persian or Zoroastrian religion. Some of the first principles of the Cabala, as well as many of the tenets, still more of the superstitions, of the Talmud, coincide so exactly with the Zendavesta . . . as to leave no doubt of their kindred and affiliation."—*Ibid.*, bk. 30.

CABALLERO, Fernán (1796-1877), pseudonym of Cecilia Francisca Josefa Böhl de Faber y Larrea, Spanish novelist. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 19th-20th centuries.

CABET, Étienne (1788-1856), French socialist. See SOCIALISM: 1840-1883.

CABEZA DE VACA, Alvar Nuñez (c. 1490-1564), Spanish soldier and explorer. See BUENOS AIRES: 1535-1542; TEXAS: 1528-1684.

CABINDA. See KABINDA.

CABINET.—Although of recent development, the Cabinet was an institution of gradual growth.

It first appeared in England, and next in the United States. The continental countries, British self-governing colonies, and Japan have developed the British form, while Switzerland and the new world republics have taken the United States type. See LANCASTER, CHANCELLORSHIP OF THE DUCHY OF.

English.—ORIGIN OF TERM.—DEVELOPMENT IN THE 18TH CENTURY.—During the reign of Charles II what is known as the cabinet first showed signs of taking shape. "The first period, 1660-1667, was the period during which Clarendon was the dominant figure. But he was not the only minister. There was a little group whom the king specially consulted, since the Privy Council was now too big and too varied in character to deal with confidential business; but, as there was no real agreement among the members of this group, some of whom were perpetually intriguing against Clarendon, they can at most be described as the rudiments or outline of a 'Cabinet.' . . . In the next period (1667-1673), sick of the High Church Cavaliers, who had proved so much less submissive than he hoped, Charles entrusted the main conduct of affairs to a group of men of quite a different character: the change was so great as almost to resemble a modern change of ministry. By a curious coincidence, the initials of the five chief members of the group spelt the word 'Cabal' for which reason the name has always been specially attached to this ministry."—R. Muir, *Short history of the British Commonwealth*, v. i., pp. 542-544.—"While such Cabals, even under that name were not unknown in English history long before the body in question came into existence, some have derived the word from the initial letters of the names of its leading members—Clifford, Ashley, Buckingham, Arlington and Landerdale. In reality it is derived from a Hebrew word *cabala* which meant 'secret,' hence it came to be applied to a party or faction engaged in a secret design, and later, to a group of secret councilors. Charles's body, however, is the most famous of them all."—A. L. Cross, *Shorter history of England and Greater Britain*, p. 372.—See ENGLAND: 1671-1673.

"Walpole's work, . . . the effect of his policy, when it was finally carried through, was to establish the Cabinet on a definite footing, as the seat and centre of the executive government, to maintain the executive in the closest relation with the legislature, to govern through the legislature, and to transfer the power and authority of the Crown to the House of Commons. Some writers have held that the first Ministry in the modern sense was that combination of Whigs whom William called to aid him in government in 1695. Others contend that the second administration of Lord Rockingham, which came into power in 1732, after the triumph of the American colonists, the fall of

Lord North, and the defeat of George III., was the earliest Ministry of the type of to-day. At whatever date we choose first to see all the decisive marks of that remarkable system which combines unity, steadfastness, and initiative in the executive, with the possession of supreme authority alike over men and measures by the House of Commons, it is certain that it was under Walpole that its ruling principles were first fixed in parliamentary government, and that the Cabinet system received the impression that it bears in our own time. . . . Perhaps the most important of all the distinctions between the Cabinet in its rudimentary stage at the beginning of the century and its later practice, remains to be noticed. Queen Anne held a Cabinet every Sunday, at which she was herself present, just as we have seen that she was present at debates in the House of Lords. With a doubtful exception in the time of George III., no sovereign has been present at a meeting of the Cabinet since Anne. . . . This vital change was probably due to the accident that Anne's successor did not understand the language in which its deliberations were carried on. The withdrawal of the sovereign from Cabinet Councils was essential to the momentous change which has transferred the whole substance of authority and power from the Crown, to a committee chosen by one member of the two Houses of Parliament, from among other members. . . . The Prime Minister is the keystone of the Cabinet arch. Although in Cabinet all its members stand on an equal footing, speak with equal voice, and, on the rare occasions when a division is taken, are counted on the fraternal principle of one man, one vote, yet the head of the Cabinet is 'primus inter pares,' and occupies a position which, so long as it lasts, is one of exceptional and peculiar authority. It is true that he is in form chosen by the Crown, but in practice the choice of the Crown is pretty strictly confined to the man who is designated by the acclamation of a party majority. . . . The Prime Minister, once appointed, chooses his own colleagues, and assigns them to their respective offices. . . . The flexibility of the Cabinet system allows the Prime Minister in an emergency to take upon himself a power not inferior to that of a dictator, provided always that the House of Commons will stand by him. In ordinary circumstances, he leaves the heads of departments to do their own work in their own way. . . . Just as the Cabinet has been described as being the regulator of relations between Queen, Lords and Commons, so is the Prime Minister the regulator of relations between the Queen and her servants. . . . Walpole was in practice able to invest himself with more of the functions and powers of a Prime Minister than any of his successors, and yet was compelled by the feeling of the time earnestly and profusely to repudiate both the name and title, and every one of the pretensions that it involves. The earliest instance in which I have found the head of the government designated as the Premier is in a letter to the Duke of Newcastle from the Duke of Cumberland in 1746."—J. Morley, *Walpole*, ch. 7.—"In theory the Cabinet is nothing but a committee of the Privy Council, yet with the Council it has in reality no dealings; and thus the extraordinary result has taken place, that the Government of England is in the hands of men whose position is legally undefined: that while the Cabinet is a word of every-day use, no lawyer can say what a Cabinet is; that while no ordinary Englishman knows who the Lords of the Council are, the Church of England prays, Sunday by Sunday, that these Lords may be 'endued with wisdom and under-

standing,' that while the collective responsibility of Ministers is a doctrine appealed to by members of the Government, no less than by their opponents, it is more than doubtful whether such responsibility could be enforced by any legal penalties: that, to sum up this catalogue of contradictions, the Privy Council has the same political powers which it had when Henry VIII. ascended the throne, whilst it is in reality composed of persons many of whom never have taken part or wished to take part in the contests of political life."—A. V. Dicey, *Privy Council*, p. 143.

POSITION DURING 19TH CENTURY.—"The position of the cabinet during the nineteenth century both in ordinary action and in times of crisis is illustrated with equal fulness in the passage of the reform bill. This date, 1832, is the earliest to which we can assign with certainty the completion of the cabinet system in all its working details, though it is very likely true that a somewhat earlier test, had it been applied, would have found its practical operation as fully understood. The reform bill was a government measure. That is, it was framed by the ministry, introduced by one of its members, and remained in his charge during its passage. If it should be defeated in the house of commons, or if an amendment upon a vital point should be carried against the ministry, then the cabinet must either resign or appeal to the country for its support upon the issue by dissolving parliament and bringing on a general election. A new election can be the cabinet's choice only under a heavy responsibility. An appeal to the country upon insufficient grounds, without some evidence of general support, or merely to save the ministry time, would be sure to be followed in the election by severe condemnation, but in this case the government had every reason to believe that the country was behind it, and the event proved the opinion correct. A greatly increased majority for the cabinet was returned by the electors, and the vote was considered a mandate from the country to go on with the measure. On the defeat of the second bill in the house of lords, the case was different. An election had lately been held and the government had still a large majority in the commons. An appeal to the country was unnecessary and would have been improper. Instead the cabinet prorogued parliament to permit a reintroduction of the bill in a new session. When the government was again defeated on an amendment in the Lords, matters came to a crisis which illustrates the action of the cabinet at such a time. In asking the king to take a step, the creation of peers, which it was known that he was very reluctant to take, the prime minister offered him at the same time the alternative of the cabinet's resignation. At that time, whatever might be done today, the king chose that alternative, but while the attempt to form a cabinet of the opposite party was made, the old cabinet remained in office and carried on the routine business of the government. When the king was obliged to admit that his attempt had failed, it resumed its position as cabinet with reference to parliament, but now with the certainty that its advice would be accepted by the king. The crisis reveals also what it is in the British system which keeps a cabinet in power or turns it out of office. It is its ability or inability at any given time to determine and direct the policy of the government. If the house of commons will do business with the cabinet, then it goes on; if the house of commons will not do business with it, no other power can maintain it in office. If a ministry should attempt to retain power in the teeth of a hostile

house of commons, the business of government would shortly fall into chaos and the attempt would mean revolution. But with the house of commons and the opinion of the nation against it, no ministry would ever make the experiment. This is the whole theory of government by a responsible ministry. The house of commons reflects the opinion of the people in regard to the policy proposed by the government and its judgment, which is the judgment of the nation, is final in the question before it."—G. B. Adams, *Constitutional history of England*, pp. 445-446.—"The cabinet not merely inherited, during the nineteenth century, the executive power of the crown and the legislative power of parliament, it was also itself directly affected by the currents of change which then prevailed. For one thing, it steadily increased in size. The cabinets of the opening century numbered barely a dozen members; by the middle of the century the number had risen to fourteen or fifteen; at the end there were nineteen or twenty members. The increase was not due primarily to wish to have the advice of a larger number of political leaders. Such a wish is disproved by the tendency, which has been particularly marked of recent years, to form an inner circle of especially influential ministers, like the *conciliabulum* of the eighteenth century. The increase has been due chiefly to the growth of new administrative departments, charged with work of so great importance, that the head of the department seemed necessarily of cabinet rank, or to a corresponding increase of the importance of the work of older departments. The growth of the business of these departments, old and new, and the character of the work they have had to supervise, are significant signs of the expansion which government has undergone in the past two or three generations. The two secretaries of state of Elizabeth's time grew into five in the nineteenth century. During most of the eighteenth century there had been three, the third a part of the time for Scotland, a part of the time for the colonies; but the third did not become permanent until 1794, when a secretary for war was appointed. In 1801 he was given charge also of the colonies. In 1854 these two departments were separated and a secretary of state for the colonies appointed, and in 1858, when India was transferred from the East India company to the crown, a secretary of state for India. Since 1782 the two original secretaries have been, the one at the head of the home department, the other of the foreign. The office of the secretary at war, never a secretary of state, and generally occupied with subordinate duties only, was not continued after 1863. In strict legal theory, the five secretaries of state are one, that is, they perform the duties of one office. In most things any one of them can do the work of any other, and most statutes, in conferring powers upon 'the secretary of state,' do not distinguish any one of them specifically. The home secretary is technically the first secretary of state."—*Ibid.*, pp. 475-476.—See also HOME OFFICE.—"The Cabinet in its existing shape, is a committee not of Parliament, but of one party in Parliament, which while it is in office has the control of legislation, administration, policy and finance."—S. Low, *Governance of England*, pp. 15-16.—"The Cabinet varies in number at the pleasure of the Prime Minister. It always contains the First Lord of the Treasury, the chancellor of the Exchequer, the [five] Secretaries of State . . . the First Lord of the Admiralty, the Lord High Chancellor, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Lord President of the Council. . . . Lord Beaconsfield thought that the number should

be limited to twelve. But of late years the tendency has been for the membership to increase."—M. T. Blauvelt, *Development of cabinet government in England*, pp. 297-298.—"If the predominance of the House of Commons has been lessened by a delegation of authority to the cabinet, it has been weakened also by the transfer of power directly to the electorate. The two tendencies are not, indeed, unconnected. The transfer of power to the electorate is due in part to the growing influence of the ministers, to the recognition that policy is mainly directed, not by Parliament, but by them. The cabinet now rules the nation by and with the advice and consent of Parliament; and for that very reason the nation wishes to decide what cabinet it shall be that rules. No doubt the ministry depends for its existence upon the good pleasure of the House of Commons; but it really gets its commission from the country as the result of a general election."—A. L. Lowell, *Greater European government*, p. 61.—See also PARLIAMENT: English: 1911-1921.

WAR CABINETS.—"It goes without saying that the outbreak of the Great War in 1914 brought upon the cabinet, as upon all parts of the governmental system, an unexpected and terrific strain. By degrees the national administration was transformed almost beyond recognition. . . . New governmental agencies sprang up on all sides, including the war trade department, the ministry of munitions, and the board of control for the liquor traffic in 1915, the ministries of food control, shipping control, pensions, labor, and blockade in 1916, and the departments of national service and reconstruction in 1917. But the most remarkable changes that took place were those by which the cabinet and the cabinet system were made, temporarily at all events, something totally different from what they had been. The first great step was the formation, in 1915, of a 'coalition' cabinet, which got away from the usual party basis and brought together representatives of all parties, who undertook to sink personal and party differences in a common leadership of the nation in its great crisis. [See ENGLAND: 1915: Novel legislative and administrative measures.] The coalition served many useful purposes. But experience showed that a cabinet composed, as the present one was, of twenty-three members was far too cumbersome for the most successful management of a nation's affairs under war conditions, and the upshot was a drastic and spectacular reorganization in December, 1916, whereby the 'coalition' cabinet was replaced by a non-partisan 'war cabinet' of five members, headed by Mr. Lloyd George as prime minister. [See ENGLAND: 1916 (December); PARLIAMENT, ENGLISH: 1916.] With a membership increased to six, and with a few other minor changes, this war cabinet has since continued at the head of the government. The object chiefly aimed at in the reorganization was, of course, promptness of decision and of action. Hence the cabinet group was made very small. . . . Furthermore, in 1917 the prime ministers of the self-governing British colonies, together with representatives of India and of other dependencies, were invited to attend a series of special meetings of the war cabinet; and thus arose the novel and interesting body known as the Imperial war cabinet, which held a second series of meetings in 1918. All of these radical reconstructions were accomplished, in characteristic English fashion, by entirely informal and extra-legal processes. No act of Parliament was passed, and no proclamation or order in council was issued, establishing or even announcing the new machinery. How permanent the arrangements

will prove is, of course, uncertain. But they are too important to be left out of account by any one who would understand the English governmental system and the processes by which it grows; and one can hardly doubt that their lasting effects will be great."—F. A. Ogg, *National governments and the World War*, pp. 217-219.—See also ENGLAND: 1919-1920: Ministerial changes.—"There has been in recent years considerable agitation for a Public Health Office, and, with the beginnings of a general reconstruction of the Cabinet following the armistice of November 11, 1918, this has been one of the first reforms to be enacted into law. The Ministry of Health Act of 1919 provides for the appointment of a minister and the transfer to him of most of the functions of the President of the Local Government Board. It will be his duty 'to take all steps that may be desirable to secure the effective carrying out and coordination of measures conducive to the health of the people,' including the prevention and cure of disease, the collection and preparation of information and statistics, and the training of persons engaged in health service. It is now believed that this minister will have authority over the administration of the poor laws, and some concern is felt in many circles lest the old system be entirely supplanted and transformed. It is possible, however, that subsequent legislation will make definite provision for the care of the poor."—A. P. Usher, *Industrial history of England*, p. 403.

ALSO IN: W. Bagehot, *English constitution*, chs. 1, 2, 7-10.—A. V. Dicey, *Law of the constitution*, chs. 1, 11.—A. L. Lowell, *Government of England*, chs. 1, 2, 3.—W. R. Anson, *Law and custom of the constitution* (3d ed.), v. 2, part 1, chs. 2, 3.—C. G. Robertson, *Select statutes, cases, and documents 1660-1832*, pp. 90-91.—J. Seeley, *Introduction to political science*, pp. 271-291.—J. Morley, *Walpole*, pp. 154-160, 163.—W. E. Gladstone, *Gleanings of past years*, v. 1, pp. 124 ff.—L. Courtney, *Working constitution of the United Kingdom*, pp. 115 ff.—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, v. 1, pp. 352 ff.—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, chs. 2, 3.—H. W. V. Temperley, *Inner and outer cabinet and the Privy Council*, (*English Historical Review*, Oct., 1912).—H. D. Traill, *Central government*, pp. 24-25.—E. Jenks, *Parliamentary England; the evolution of the cabinet system*.—F. W. Maitland, *Constitutional history of England*, pp. 387-439.—H. Hallam, *Constitutional history of England*, 6th ed., v. 2, pp. 348-351.—C. Ilbert, *Parliament, its history, constitution and practice*, pp. 29, 78, 118, 145-151.—E. R. Turner, *Materials for the study of the English cabinet in the 18th century* (*American Historical Association Annual Report*, 1911).—E. R. Turner, *Lords of the committee of council* (*American Historical Review*, 1916).—E. R. Turner, *Development of the cabinet, 1688-1760* (*American Historical Review*, 1913).

American.—"The practice of consulting his principal officers together in a council was begun by President Washington in the early part of his first term. . . . To characterize Washington's department heads as a body of advisers, the English term 'cabinet' came into use in 1783. It was well enough known at the time as applicable to the important source of directive power in the English government, the Cabinet Committee. It had been used by Charles Pinckney as early as 1787 to characterize what he, almost alone among his contemporaries, seems to have foreseen as a probable development—an advisory committee to the American chief magistrate. . . . Not before Jefferson's administration were there any notable refer-

ences to the Cabinet in Congress. The term 'cabinet' may be found used in debate on February 27, 1802, in the House. It can be shown that the method of cabinet meetings which Washington had first suggested as far back as 1791, Jefferson for the most part followed. Of it he said: 'I practiced this method, because the harmony was so cordial among us all, that we never failed by a contribution of mutual views on the subject, to form an opinion acceptable to the whole. . . .' It was not a method sanctioned by a strict interpretation of the Constitution, as Jefferson was well enough aware. However, it accomplished things quickly and, in view of the many difficult problems before a President, it was inevitably the most satisfactory and natural method. [See U. S. A.: 1789-1792.] It is not necessary to follow the term farther in much detail. As early as 1803 it was used by Chief-Justice Marshall in the Supreme Court decision of *Marbury vs. Madison*. Jackson was the first President, as one might expect, to use the term in an annual message. [See U. S. A.: 1845: Polk's cabinet meetings.] . . . There was some further discussion of the term [in Congress in 1870]. But it amounted to nothing but the distinct recognition of the fact of the well-known existence of the institution. The law had as yet taken no notice of it. That the term *cabinet* has at last gained a place in the language of the federal statute law is remarkable enough to call for a brief explanation. In an act approved and signed by President Roosevelt on February 26, 1907, provision was made for increasing the salaries of the Secretaries, Attorney-General, and Postmaster-General from \$8,000—the sum at which they were fixed by law in 1874—to \$12,000. The part of the act with which we are concerned read as follows: 'Sec. 4. That on and after March fourth, nineteen hundred and seven, the compensation of the Speaker of the House of Representatives, the Vice-President of the United States and the heads of Executive Departments who are members of the President's Cabinet shall be at the rate of twelve thousand dollars per annum each.' . . . The significant result was this—that the term *cabinet* went consciously into the statute law of the United States."—H. B. Learned, *President's cabinet*, pp. 135-157.—"There is in the government of the United States no such thing as a Cabinet in the English sense of the term. But I use the term, not only because it is current in America to describe the chief ministers of the President, but also because it calls attention to the remarkable difference which exists between the great officers of State in America and the similar officers in the free countries of Europe. Almost the only reference in the Constitution to the ministers of the President is that contained in the power given him to 'require the opinion in writing of the principal officer in each of the executive departments upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices.' All these departments have been created by Acts of Congress. Washington began in 1789 with four only, at the head of whom were the following four officials: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney General. In 1798 there was added a Secretary of the Navy, in 1829 a Postmaster General, and in 1840 a Secretary of the Interior."—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, ch. 9.—See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF.—"In 1862 a separate Department of Agriculture was established. . . . In 1880 the head of the Department became Secretary of the Department of Agriculture and a Cabinet officer. A Bureau of Labor under the Interior Department was created in 1884. In 1888 Congress

constituted it a separate department, but did not make its head a Secretary, and therefore not a Cabinet officer."—W. W. and W. F. Willoughby, *Government and administration of the United States* (Johns Hopkins University Studies, Series ix, Nos. 1-2, ch. 10).—See U. S. A.: 1860 (December).—The Cabinet, as now constituted, consists of ten men. Two positions have been added since the beginning of this century, "in 1903 a Secretary of Commerce and Labour, and in 1913 a Secretary of Labour. [See INTERIOR, DEPARTMENT OF THE, UNITED STATES; JUSTICE, DEPARTMENT OF; LABOR, DEPARTMENT OF; TREASURY DEPARTMENT; POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT: Founding of American post office department.] These ten now make up what is called the Cabinet. Each receives a salary of \$12,000 (£2,400). All are appointed by the President, subject to the consent of the Senate (which is practically never refused), and may be removed by the President alone. Nothing marks them off from any other officials who might be placed in charge of a department, except that they are summoned by the President to his private council. None of them can vote in Congress, Art. xi. 6 of the Constitution providing that 'no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.' . . . The creation of the Department of Commerce and Labour was an evidence of that extension of the functions of government into new fields which is no less remarkable in the United States than it is in Europe. Among its duties are the supervision of corporations (other than railroads), doing interstate business, lighthouses, the coast and geodetic survey, merchant shipping, the census, trade and labour statistics, and the administration of the immigration laws. It will be observed that from this list of ministerial offices several are wanting which exist in Europe. Thus there is no minister of education, because that department of business belongs to the several States; no minister of public worship, because the United States Government has nothing to do with any particular form of religion; no minister of public works, because grants made for this purpose come direct from Congress without the intervention of the executive, and are applied as Congress directs. Neither was there, till the Philippine Isles and Puerto Rico were acquired, any Colonial Office. Since that date (1899) a Bureau of Insular Affairs has been established, and placed under the War department, to take charge of these dependencies."—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, pp. 85-86, 89-90.—See also STATE DEPARTMENT OF THE UNITED STATES; WAR DEPARTMENT.

ALSO IN: W. Wilson, *Congressional government*, pp. 257-291.—W. Wilson, *The state*, pp. 566-570.—M. L. Hinsdale, *History of the president's cabinet*.—H. B. Learned, *President's cabinet*.—G. Hunt, *Department of state*.—*Yale review*, v. 15, pp. 160 ff.—F. A. Ogg, *National progress*, pp. 131-134.

French.—"Unlike the President of the United States, the French President is not free to use his powers according to his own judgment, for in order to make him independent of the fate of cabinets, and at the same time to prevent his personal power from becoming too great, the constitutional laws declare that he shall not be responsible for his official conduct, except in case of high treason, and that all his acts of every kind, to be valid, must be counter-signed by one of the ministers. . . . The President, indeed, is not usually present at the cabinet consultations (*conseils de cabinet*) in which the real policy of the government is discussed, and as a rule he presides only over the

formal meetings (*conseils des ministres*) held for certain purposes specified by law. He has power, it is true, to select the ministers, and in this matter he can use his own discretion to some extent, but in fact he generally intrusts some one with the formation of a cabinet, and appoints the ministers this man suggests. . . . In a parliamentary system the ministers have two distinct functions. One of these is the same as that of the members of the President's Cabinet in the United States, and consists of the management of the departments of the administration. The other is the duty of representing the government in the Chambers, urging the adoption of its measures, and defending its policy against the attacks of its adversaries. These two functions are not necessarily united, and in fact it has been a common habit in some countries to appoint ministers without portfolios, as it is called, that is, without any executive duties at all, in order that they may devote their whole energy to the battles in Parliament. Although there is nothing to prevent such a practice in France, it is not followed to-day, each minister being at the head of a particular branch of the administration. The number of departments, however, and the distribution of the public business among them is not fixed by law, but is regulated from time to time by decree of the President of the Republic. The number of ministers is, therefore, constantly liable to change according to the immediate needs of the public service. At present there are twelve departments or ministries: those of the Interior; of Justice; of Foreign Affairs; of Finance; of War; of the Navy; of Education and the Fine Arts; of Public Works; of Labor; of Commerce, Industry, and Posts and Telegraphs; of Agriculture; and of the Colonies. The constitutional law of February 25, 1875 (Art. 6), declares that the ministers are collectively responsible to the Chambers for the general policy of the government, and individually for their personal acts. The object of this clause was, of course, to establish the parliamentary system, and in fact the French ministry is responsible to the Chamber of Deputies, as the English is to the House of Commons, and resigns on a hostile vote on any matter of importance. Except, indeed, for the Ministers of War and of the Navy, who are usually military men, the cabinet officers are almost always selected from among the members of Parliament, although the reason for this practice in England does not apply in France, because the ministers have a right to be present and speak in either Chamber, whether members of it, or not. . . . When we consider the paternal character of the government, the centralization of the state, and the large share of the authority vested in the executive department, we cannot fail to see that the ministers in whose hands this vast power is lodged must be either very strong or very weak. If they are able to wield it as they please, and are really free to carry out their own policy, they must be far stronger than any officer or body in Great Britain, and immeasurably stronger than any in our federal republic. But, on the other hand, the very immensity and pervasiveness of their power, the fact that it touches closely every interest in the country, renders them liable to pressure from all sides. It becomes important for every one to influence their action, provided he can get a standpoint from which to bring a pressure to bear. This standpoint is furnished by the Chamber of Deputies, for the existence of the ministry depends on the votes of that body. The greater, therefore, the power of the minister, and the more numerous the favors he is able to bestow, the fiercer will be the struggle for them, and the less will he

be free to pursue his own policy, untrammelled by deputies, whose votes he must win if he would remain in office."—A. L. Lowell, *Governments of France, Italy and Germany*, pp. 28-29, 32-33, 64-65.

Italian.—"He [the Italian King] is, indeed, seldom present at cabinet meetings, and has little or no direct influence over current domestic politics, although it is said that his personal opinion has a good deal of weight on the relations with foreign states. When, however, a cabinet crisis occurs and the ministry resigns, the King has a great deal of latitude in the appointment of its successor; for the Chamber is not divided into two parties, one of which naturally comes into power when the other goes out, but, as in France, it is split up into a number of small groups, so that every ministry is based upon a coalition. The King can, therefore, send for almost any one he pleases and allow him to attempt to form a cabinet. It often happens, moreover, that the man selected feels that he cannot get the support of a majority in the existing Chamber, but, hoping for a favorable result from a new election, is willing to undertake to form a cabinet if allowed to dissolve Parliament. In such cases the King exercises his own discretion, and grants permission or not as he thinks best; for, contrary to the habit in France, dissolutions in Italy are by no means rare. Thus the Italian King, although strictly a constitutional monarch tied up in a parliamentary system, is not quite so powerless as the French President or the English King. In the selection of his ministers the King is not limited by law to members of Parliament, but if a man is appointed who is not a member of either House, he is obliged by custom to become a candidate for the next vacant seat in the Chamber of Deputies, unless he is created a Senator. As in other parliamentary government on the Continent, however, the ministers and their under-secretaries have a right to be present and speak in either Chamber, although they can vote only in the one of which they happen to be members. The work of the Parliament is, indeed, chiefly directed by them; for, while individual members have a right to introduce bills, the power is used only for matters of small importance. As a rule, each minister has charge of a department of the administration; but it is allowable, and was at one time not uncommon, to appoint additional ministers without portfolios, whose duties consisted solely in helping to shape the policy of the government, and defending it in the Chambers."—*Ibid.*, pp. 126-128.

Cabinet system of government.—FRENCH AND ENGLISH SYSTEMS CONTRASTED.—The cabinet system of government is a system of government which originated in England, the essential feature of which is the union of the supreme direction in both legislation and administration in a ministry taken from the legislature. The smooth working of the cabinet system in England is secured by the unquestioned right of Parliament to control the Crown, the equally unquestioned predominance of the House of Commons over the House of Lords, and the two-party system. In France a modified form of the system operates on a basis of equal responsibility to both chambers. "The Cabinet system involves a division of the executive into partisan and non-partisan elements. It places the non-partisan functions in the hands of a monarch or, as in the case of France, a president, while the partisan functions pass into the hands of the chief ministers of state. The body of chief ministers constitutes the Cabinet. They are usually members of the legislature and as party leaders, whether members of it or not, they con-

trol the legislature. Separately each member of the Cabinet, with an occasional exception, administers a department of the executive, but they are jointly responsible for the conduct of the government. At the head of the Cabinet is the Prime Minister who presides at its meetings and is its chief spokesman in the legislature and before the country. The system thus requires two official heads. The King or President is the nominal head, or ruler of the entire people, and his duties are non-partisan. The Prime Minister speaks with authority on all matters of disputed party politics. 'Parliamentary government' is a term often used as a synonym for Cabinet government. . . . There is a sense in which it may be said that the Cabinet controls the legislature, because it must command the continuous support of a majority of the legislature. The legislature also in a sense controls the Cabinet, because at any time the majority may be changed to a minority, thus forcing the Cabinet to resign. The term 'Cabinet government' is suggestive of the control of the Cabinet over both administrative and legislative business. The term 'Parliamentary government' emphasizes the authority of the legislature. . . . The chief advisers of the President are, as a body, called a Cabinet, but they are not a Cabinet in the English sense of the term. They advise the President on matters of general executive policy, but he may entirely disregard their advice. Each member of the President's Cabinet is responsible to his chief for the administration of a separate department as, for example, the war, navy, or post-office department; but there is no such thing as joint cabinet responsibility. The English Cabinet is itself a sort of corporate personality. As a body it is held responsible both to the legislature and to the people. The Cabinet and not a chief person rules and governs. It is true that most members of the Cabinet are the heads of separate departments of the executive; but this fact is obscured by the emphasis given to the joint responsibility of the body as a whole, for both legislative and executive policies. . . . Again, the two systems of government are contrasted in respect to origin and nature. One is derived from a process of evolution; the other is a product of logical analysis and artificial construction. Bagehot is surely correct in saying that a Cabinet government could never have been the result of deliberate plan and intention. It could have originated only through a long process of adjustment of forces to solve temporary difficulties. The system as known to-day is of recent origin. The distinctive features of the presidential system are the result of conscious logical analysis. The system could never have come into existence except as the result of a deliberate plan. Each of the systems stands for certain well-known and enduring qualities found in all governments, the artificial and the natural. The English . . . Cabinet developed unconsciously as a by-product of continuous striving for limitations on the Crown. Only the English type of Cabinet government identifies government with a party. On the Continent of Europe cabinets are composed of combinations of leaders of various parties. The cabinet is not itself the organ of a party, it usually represents a number of party groups. No single party commands a majority in the legislature. Temporary majorities are made by coalitions of parties. The Cabinets are, indeed, made up of party leaders, but leaders of different parties. The parties influence government, but they do not govern. No 'Shadow Cabinet' confronts the government ready to take office as soon as the ruling Cabinet is defeated. After a cabinet

crisis often a number of the same party leaders will reappear in the newly organized Cabinet."—J. Macy and J. W. Gannaway, *Comparative free government*, pp. 395-401.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Development of the city as a local business unit.

ALSO IN: J. E. C. Bodley, *France*, v. 2, bk. 3-4.—F. A. Ogg, *Governments of Europe*, ch. 16.—W. Wilson, *The state*, pp. 206-210, 588-592.—A. L. Lowell, *Governments and parties in continental Europe*, v. 1, ch. 2.

CABINET, KITCHEN (1820-1837), a group of President Jackson's friends who had more influence over him than the members of his official cabinet. See U. S. A.: 1820.

CABIRI, a group of Greek deities, the nature of whose cult is obscure. See SAMOTHRACE.

CABLES, Submarine. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony; TELEGRAPH: 1754-1866; 1855-1917; TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1908: United States.

CABOCHIENS, French political faction. See FRANCE: 1380-1415.

CABOT, George (1751-1823), American politician. Senator from Massachusetts, 1791-1796; president of the Hartford Convention, 1814.

CABOT, John (1450-1498), Italian navigator and explorer in the service of England. His native name was Giovanni Caboto. First voyage, 1497; took possession of Cape Breton island, passed Cape Ray, St. Pierre, Miquelon, Cape Race, 1498, sailed to Labrador, Greenland through Davis strait reaching the modern Baffin land; mistook Newfoundland for the main shore.

CABOT, Sebastian (1475-1557), English navigator, one of the three sons of John Cabot. 1526, Charles V gave him the command of an expedition, which proved disastrous, intended to promote trade with the Spice Islands; 1548, returned to England, and was pensioned for services as a pilot; 1553-1556, governor of the Company of Merchant Adventurers. See AMERICA: Map showing voyage of discovery; 1497; 1498; PARAGUAY: 1515-1557.

CABRAL, Pedro Alvarez (c. 1460-1526), Portuguese navigator. Received command of fleet bound for the East Indies, 1500; sailed too far to the west and was carried to the coast of Brazil, took possession in the name of Portugal, and called it Santa Cruz; continued his voyage and reached India where he established a trading post at Calicut. On his return to Europe he sank into obscurity. See AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery; 1500-1514.

CABRERA, Manuel Estrada (1857-), President of Guatemala, 1898-1911.—See also GUATEMALA: 1898-1920; 1907-1917; 1920; 1921; 1922.

CABRERA, Ramon (1806-1877), Carlist general. Joined a small band of Carlist guerrillas in the civil war of 1833; captured Valencia, 1837, and Morella, 1839; created count of Morella and lieutenant-general, 1839; fled to Paris, 1840; instigated an unsuccessful Carlist rebellion, 1848-1849; finally recognized Alfonso as king of Spain, 1875. See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

CABRERA BOBADILLA CERDA Y MENDOZA, Luis Gerónimo (1590-1647), Spanish administrator and viceroys of Peru, 1629-1639. He suppressed revolt among Uru Indians.

CABRILLO, Juan Rodríguez (d. 1543), Portuguese navigator who entered the service of Spain. In 1542 he made discoveries in Lower California and later in the same year he entered San Diego harbor, thus becoming the discoverer of Alta California. He discovered the islands of San Clemente and Santa Catalina, the Bay of Pueblo de las Ca-

noas, the islands of Santa Cruz, Santa Rosa, and San Miguel, Point Pinos, Point Conception, Monterey Bay and Point Año Nuevo. He died on San Miguel Island.

CABUL. See KABUL.

CACCINI, Giulio, or Giulio Romano (about 1558-1615), Italian composer. Studied with Scipione della Palla; collaborated with Peri in the first operas, *Dafne* and *Euridice*, given in 1597 and 1600 respectively. See MUSIC: Modern: 1575-1676.

CACERES, Andrés Avelino (1836-1911), Peruvian soldier and statesman, president of Peru. See PERU: 1884-1908.

CACERES, Ramon (d. 1911), President of Santo Domingo. See SANTO DOMINGO: 1904-1907; 1911.

CACHET, Lettre de. See LETTRE DE CACHET.

CACHIN, Marcel, French communist leader. See SOCIALISM: 1904-1921.

CACIQUE, name applied to rulers or petty chiefs in Latin-American countries. See CURACA; REPARTIMIENTOS.

CACIQUISM. See SPAIN: 1900-1909.

CADDOAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area; Linguistic characteristics; PAWNEE FAMILY; TEXAS: Aboriginal inhabitants.

CADDOS. See BLACKFEET.

CADE'S REBELLION. See ENGLAND: 1450.

CADESLA, Battle of (636). See CALIPHATE: 632-651; KADISEYA, BATTLE OF.

"CADETS," members of the Russian Constitutional Democratic party. See RUSSIA: 1905-1907; 1917.

CADILLAC, Antoine de la Mothe (d. c. 1720), French soldier, founder of Detroit. See DETROIT: 1686-1701.

CADIZ: Location.—Cadiz (ancient Gades or Gadeira), a seaport of Andalusian Spain and the capital of the province of Cadiz, is ninety-five miles south-southwest of Seville. It is situated on a narrow neck of land on the Atlantic ocean. "It was originally founded, like so many other commercial settlements in the neighbourhood of more or less hostile populations, on a small island, and was not connected with the mainland till later Roman times when the severing channel was no longer required for security. Since then the town has been crowded on a long narrow peninsula between the Atlantic and its own spacious bay. Owing to the narrowness of the space on the peninsula a large number of daughter towns have grouped themselves round the shores of the bay."—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel*, v. 1, p. 328.—"In the Heracleæ, the island on which Gades was situated was called *Erythea*, and the ancients say that it consisted of two islands, a circumstance which has caused much difficulty to modern geographers, as it was impossible to find the two islands. But no Andalusian would be puzzled by it. Cadiz, together with Leon, now certainly forms one island, but originally Cadiz was an island by itself, and its present union with Isla de Leon is the consequence of a causeway, which was made at a time unknown to us, from Gades to the larger island; this artificial causeway is discernible even at the present day."—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient ethnography and geography*, v. 1, p. 287.—The estimated population of the city in 1918 was 65,362.

B. C. 1130.—City founded by the Phœnicians.—"The Phœnicians of Tyre, sailing westward in search of gain, founded, according to tradition, some eleven hundred and thirty years before Christ, the city of Gadesor Gadeira [perhaps derived from

Gadir, in Hebrew and Phœnician—a fence, i. e., a fenced city) on the site of the modern Cadiz.”—U. R. Burke, *History of Spain*, v. 1, p. 7.—See also PHœNICIANS: Origin.

B. C. 6th century.—Called on Carthage for aid against native tribes.—Center of trade.—In the sixth century B. C. “the people of Cadiz are said to have been engaged in a dangerous war with certain native tribes, wherefore they invited the Carthaginians to help them. The latter came, and as has so often occurred in history took over for themselves the land which they had entered as allies.”—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 10.—“In Phœnician and Carthaginian times Cadiz was a great center of trade in the mineral wealth of Spain, including the copper of the lower Guadiana region, probably also the lead and silver of Linares, the tin of the now exhausted mines of Galicia, as well as iron and other minerals.”—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel*, v. 1, p. 328.—See also COMMERCE: Ancient: B. C. 1000-600; UTICA.

ALSO IN: G. Rawlinson, *Phœnicia*, p. 67.

B. C. 206.—Hostility of Cadiz to Carthage.—Became ally of Rome.—“Gades was a Phœnician settlement, independent of Carthage, and as truly Punic as the latter city itself. But when the prosperity of Carthage rose higher and higher, and when, at the same time, that of the other Phœnician colonies was sinking more and more, then Gades also was obliged to acknowledge the supremacy of Carthage. Nothing is more natural and more in accordance with human passions and feelings, than that this Punic city was more hostile to the Carthaginians than any other place that had been subdued by them; we cannot, therefore, be surprised at finding that, in the course of the second Punic war, its hatred of Carthage led it to declare in favour of the Romans. . . . Hence Gades obtained very favourable terms from the Romans, and remained a privileged city until the time of the emperors, afterwards it received the Roman franchise.”—B. G. Niebuhr, *Lectures on ancient ethnography and geography*, v. 2, pp. 287-288.

B. C. 49.—Admitted to full Roman franchise.—“Gades became a favoured ally of Rome and was admitted [by C. Julius Caesar in 49 B. C.] to the full Roman franchise.”—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography*, p. 56.

A. D. 5th-8th centuries.—Occupied by Visigoths.—From the overthrow of the Roman dominion in Spain (402) to the battle of Guadalete (711) when the Moors took possession of the southern peninsula, Cadiz was occupied by the Visigoths.

711-1262.—Moorish rule in Cadiz.—Renamed Jezirat-Kadis.—For more than five centuries Cadiz was ruled by the Moorish conquerors, by whom it was renamed Jezirat-Kadis.

1262.—Taken and rebuilt by Alfonso X of Castile.—“Under Saint Ferdinand began [1236] the recovery of the great cities along the Guadalquivir. . . . Cadiz, eldest of Western cities passed again, as when she first entered the Roman world, from Semitic into Aryan hands [1262].”—E. A. Freeman, *Historical geography of Europe* p. 538.—It was rebuilt and re-peopled by Alfonso X of Castile, by whom it had been delivered from Moorish hands.

1493-1496.—Expedition of Columbus.—“On May 23, 1493, it was announced that a new and much larger expedition to the Indies would be sent out. . . . The adventurers set sail from Cadiz on September 25, 1493. . . . In the spring of 1496 things were in such evil case that Columbus determined that he must go back to Spain to seek help and

advice. Leaving his brother Bartholomew, who had come out in 1494, in command at Isabella in his absence, he set sail with two caravels, bearing about thirty Indians and upwards of two hundred homesick and discontented colonists and reached Cadiz on June 11.”—R. B. Merriman, *Rise of Spanish empire*, v. 2, pp. 205-207.

1587.—Shipping in harbor burned by English under Sir Francis Drake.—“Mary Stuart was persuaded to disinherit her son, who was a Protestant (the later James I of England), and to make Philip [II of Spain] her heir. The pope was induced to lend both financial and moral support to the undertaking, although it was necessary to deceive him as to Philip's intentions to acquire England for himself; the pope was told that Philip's daughter was to be made queen of England. The proposed descent upon England was no secret to Elizabeth, who made ready to resist. With a view to delaying Philip's preparations, Drake made an attack upon Cadiz in 1587, on which occasion he burned all the shipping in the bay.”—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, pp. 254-255.

1596.—Taken and sacked by English and Dutch.—“The intrigues continued between the English Catholics who wanted the Infanta for Queen on Elizabeth's death, and the Scots-Catholics who hoped to gain the crown for James; but with an exhausted treasury and depleted forces Philip could do no more than hamper Elizabeth by encouraging rebellion in Ireland. Tyrone and O'Donnell had sought his aid some time before they made an attempt to rise, and he had sent more than one little mission to report their position. He could not do much for them, and his aid was always scanty, tardy, and ineffective. But Perez was busy in England, and magnified it as much as possible. Essex was ambitious and warlike, as usual, and between them they made the Queen believe that a really dangerous expedition was fitting out in Spanish ports. The result was the raising of the fleet under Essex, which, after much misgiving on the part of the Queen, sailed from Plymouth on the 3rd June, 1596. It consisted of 17 royal ships, 76 freighted ships and a Dutch squadron of 24 sail. What was left of Philip's strength was concentrated in Cadiz, and before that port Essex's fleet suddenly appeared on the 20th June. The city was panic-stricken. No strength or resource was to be expected from Philip's officers, and the war-ships were withdrawn after the loss of two of them to the end of the bay (Puerto Real), where there were 40 rich galleons loading for the Indies. The city was taken almost without resistance. For 15 days the richest port in Spain was subjected to a systematic sack, and was left a heap of smoking ruin. The whole of the fleet and the 40 galleons were burnt by the Spaniards, with 11,000,000 ducats' worth of merchandise and Essex sailed out again practically un-molested.”—M. A. S. Hume, *Spain: its greatness and decay*, p. 103.—See also SPAIN: 1596.

1702.—Abortive English and Dutch expedition.—“In July, 1702, fifty ships under Sir George Rooke, with 12,000 men commanded by the Duke of Ormond, suddenly sailed into the bay and summoned the city to submit to King Charles III. As had happened in 1587 and 1586, the place, and indeed all the coast of Andalusia, were practically defenceless: 300 men only were in the garrison and the walls were crumbling beneath the rusty guns. There were no munitions of war and no naval force, and the whole south of Spain was apparently at the mercy of the enemy. But fortunately for the Spaniards there was no Drake, or Howard, or Raleigh [Raleigh] on the English fleet this time.

Whilst the commanders were wrangling over the plan of attack and sacking coast villages, the brave heart of the little 'Savoyarde' in Madrid was shaming the slothful Spaniards into action. . . . Her jewels and valuables were offered for the national defence, and her eloquence spurred . . . others to make similar sacrifices. Archbishops gave their revenues, nobles their lands, the people their poor savings, and soon Andaluca was in arms. A great silver fleet of 13 galleons with a convoy of 23 Spanish and French ships on its way to Spain heard that Cadiz was threatened by enemies and took refuge in Vigo. Whilst Andaluca was arming the English before Cadiz learnt the news and sailed away to Vigo. There they forced the harbour, and Château Renaud, the French admiral, was overpowered. Nine of the galleons were captured and the rest sunk, and all the convoy captured or destroyed."—*Ibid.*, pp. 325, 326.—See also SPAIN: 1702.

1718-1791.—Relation to Spanish trade.—Cadiz "entered upon a second period of pronounced prosperity after the discovery and settlement of the Spanish American states, and continued prosperous in spite of the English devastations in the end of the sixteenth century."—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel*, v. 1, p. 320.—"The later Spanish colonization of the Americas passed almost wholly through the ports of Seville and Cadiz."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 38.—"In 1718 the *Casa*, including the consulado, was transferred to Cadiz, which had been since 1680, the actual port of sailing."—*Cambridge modern history*, v. 10, p. 265.—"The transfer of the *Casa de Contratacion* (which handled Spain's commerce with the Americas) from Seville to Cádiz occasioned a decline of the former and a corresponding prosperity of the latter [see CASA DE CONTRATACION]. . . . The intervention of foreigners in the commerce of Spain . . . was [a great] . . . problem under the Bourbons. . . . In the Americas the English were the most prominent element, but in Spain the French were. The leading French merchants established themselves at Cádiz, the gateway of the Americas, whence they proceeded to absorb a great part of Spain's profits from the new world. In 1772 there were seventy-nine French houses in Cádiz, making an estimated annual profit of 4,600,000 *reales* (nearly \$300,000). In 1791 there were 2701 Frenchmen in that city out of a total foreign population of 8734. Numerically, the Italians were more in evidence, for there were 5018 of them, mostly Genoese. There were some Englishmen, too, whose aggregate capital made up for their small number."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, pp. 328, 469-470.—"The emancipation of the South American states from the yoke of Spain in the first half of the nineteenth century struck another blow at the well-being of the town; but once again she began to recover when the railways reached her."—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel*, v. 1, p. 320.

1805.—Port of Concentration of French and Spanish fleets under Villeneuve. See FRANCE: 1805 (March-December).

1809.—Seat of the central junta.—In 1809 Cadiz became the seat of the central junta and afterwards of the Cortes.

1810-1812.—Besieged by the French. See SPAIN: 1810-1812.

1819-1823.—Revolt.—Siege, bombardment and capture by the French.—"Danger of war with the United States, before the cession of Florida, had caused King Ferdinand of Spain to assemble an army at Cadiz to embark for America. It was now proposed to send these troops to South Amer-

ica to quell the revolutionary movements there. The return of a number of soldiers stricken with yellow fever in the colonies filled the troops at Cadiz with consternation. The common soldiers, lying in squalor and inaction at their barracks, came to regard their expected order of embarkation as a sentence of death. Their officers plotted with the secret societies in Cadiz. . . . Abisbas, the commandant of Cadiz, to safeguard his own interests pretended to encourage these plots. Then, convinced of their ultimate failure, he arrested the principal leaders by a stratagem and hurried to Madrid to reveal all and claim credit for saving the crown. The ringleaders were imprisoned and the troops were distributed into cantonments. . . . New Year's day was fixed for the outbreak of revolt by the revolutionists of Spain. The chosen leaders were Riego, Cabazes, and Quiroga. It was arranged that Quiroga, who was held in light confinement at Medina, east of Cadiz, should gather the battalions outside of Cadiz, throw himself into the city, and there await the co-operation of his fellow conspirators. . . . Riego on the first day of January [1820], proclaimed the Constitution of 1812, and falling upon headquarters, seized the general officers, and rallied the men to his standard. Quiroga was less successful. After gaining possession of San Fernando at the eastern point of the peninsula of Leon, he failed to get into Cadiz. . . . By the time Riego arrived, there were but 5,000 insurgents wherewith to overcome the strong garrison and fortifications of Cadiz. Leaving Quiroga before Cadiz, Riego set himself to raise the people of the surrounding towns. . . . Strong forces were sent in pursuit. . . . He had only some two hundred followers left. The little band took to the mountains and there dispersed."—E. Emerson, *History of the 19th century year by year*, v. 2, pp. 653-655.—The revolution spread throughout Spain. The king, Ferdinand VII, was imprisoned at Cadiz, which again became the seat of the Cortes. In 1823 the duc d'Angoulême, with his French troops, besieged, bombarded and captured Cadiz, and released Ferdinand. See SPAIN: 1814-1827.

ALSO IN: H. B. Clarke, *Modern Spain*, 1815-1898.

1868.—Center of revolution.—The Spanish revolution of 1868 which effected the dethronement of Queen Isabella originated in Cadiz. "In December, serious conflicts occurred at Cadiz, where the people declared for a Republic, and organized a militia, who styled themselves 'Volunteers of Freedom.' They refused to disarm, and, after a contest in the streets, government troops marched upon the town from Madrid under General Caballero de Rodas. The government troops took peaceable possession."—E. Emerson, *History of the 19th century year by year*, v. 3, p. 1472.—See also SPAIN: 1814-1827.

CADMEA, Cadmean citadel. See BEOTIA; GREECE: B. C. 399-387; B. C. 383; THEBES, GREECE.

CADMUS, a semi-historic Bœotian hero of the prehistoric period, who is fabled to have been a colonist from Phœnicia, to have introduced the alphabet into Greece, and to have founded the famous city of Thebes. See BEOTIA.

CADORNA, Count Luigi (1851-), Italian general. Until replaced in November, 1917, by General Diaz, he was commander-in-chief of the Italian armies in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: IV. Italy: c; d; 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: b, 2; 1917: I. Summary: b, 9; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, 2; c; d, 3, 6.

CADURCI.—The Cadurci were one of the tribes of ancient Gaul whose chief place was Di-

vona, now Cahors on the Lot.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 4, ch. 17.

CADUSIANS.—An ancient people so-called by the Greeks, whose territory was on the southwestern border of the Caspian sea,—the district of modern Persians called Ghilan or Ghulan. Their native name was "Gæls."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 8, ch. 1.

CADWALLAWN, Cadwallow, or Cædwalla (d. 634), king of North Wales. In 629 his invasion of Northumbria, then the most powerful of the Anglo-Saxon Kingdoms, was checked at Morpeth, but in 633 in alliance with Penda, king of Mercia, he was victorious over them at Hatfield Chase. Defeated and killed in the battle of Hefenfeld. See HEFENFELD, BATTLE OF.

CÆDMON (d. c. 680), early English poet. Bede portrays him as an unlettered herdsman, who by divine inspiration transcribed incidents of the Scripture into verse. His work is the first Christian poem native to English soil. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: 7th-8th centuries; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 6th-11th centuries.

CÆLIAN HILL. See SEVEN HILLS OF ROME.

CAEN, a city of northwestern France. The date of its founding is not known, but it was in existence as early as the 9th century; it became the capital of Normandy, and was besieged and captured in 1346 by Edward III of England; in 1417 it was again taken by England, in 1450 capitulated to the French; in 1793 the Girondist movement centered in Caen. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December): Civil war.

CAER GWENT. See WINCHESTER.

CAER WISC. See EXETER: Origin of.

CAERLAVEROCK, Siege of.—Famous siege and reduction of the Scottish castle of Caerlaverock, in Dumfriesshire, by Edward I, 1300.

CAERLEON.—"Caer," like the "Caester" of the Saxons, is a corruption by Celtic tongues of the Roman "Castrum." "In memory of the second legion, which had been so long established at the Silurian Isea, they [the Welsh] gave to the ruins of that city the name of Caer-Legion, the city of the legion, now softened to Caerleon."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

CAERWAN. See KAIRWAN.

CAERVORDEN, Battle of (1590). See NETHERLANDS: 1588-1593.

CAESALPINUS (Cesalpino), Andreas (1519-1603), Italian natural philosopher, the most distinguished botanist of his day. His book "De Plantis libri xvi" (1583), was acknowledged by Linnaeus as the source of much of his knowledge. See SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance: 16th century.

CÆSALPINA BRAZILIENSIS. See BRAZIL: Origin of name.

CÆSAR, Augustus (63 B. C.-14 A. D.), Roman emperor. See AUGUSTUS; SPAIN: B. C. 31-A. D. 180.

CÆSAR, Caius (Caligula). See GAIVS CÆSAR (CALIGULA); Rome: Empire: 37-41.

CÆSAR, Gaius Julius (102-44 B. C.), Roman statesman and soldier. In 63 B. C. elected *pontifex maximus*; in 60, returning from Spain, formed the so-called first triumvirate with Pompey and Crassus; as consul, went into Gaul in 59 to subdue the tribes across the Alps (see VENITI OF WESTERN GAUL; SUEVI; B. C. 58; GAUL: 58-51; POMPEIUS, GNAEVS MAGNVS: Cæsar in Gaul), and after pursuing them through what is now France (see HELVETII; USIPETES AND TENCHERI), made two expeditions (55 and 54) to Britain. (See BRITAIN: B. C.: 55-54.) Finding that Pompey was attempting to cut off his political power, he invaded Italy,

driving Pompey to the east; defeated his opponents in Spain (see ROME, REPUBLIC: B. C. 49; SPAIN: B. C. 61), and in Asia Minor, and was declared dictator, 46. (See IMPERATOR.) Murdered in 44, in the senate. (See ROME, REPUBLIC: B. C. 44: Assassination of Cæsar.) "From early youth Cæsar was a statesman in the deepest sense of the term, and his aim was the highest which man is allowed to propose to himself—the political, military, intellectual, and moral regeneration of his own deeply decayed nation, and of the still more deeply decayed Hellenic nation intimately akin to his own."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, v. iv, p. 453.—See also BELGE: B. C. 57; CARTHAGE: B. C. 44; CORINTH: B. C. 44; EGYPT: B. C. 48-30; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 9; 10; ROME, REPUBLIC: B. C. 60-63; 63-58; 57-52; 54-44; 52-50; 50-49; 48; 47-46; 45, 44: Genius and character of Cæsar; MYTHOLOGY: Celtic mythology: Roman period; CHRONOLOGY: Julian era; HISTORY: 17.

CÆSAR, Title.—"Octavius was the adopted heir of Julius Cæsar; from the moment of his adoption the surname Cæsar became appropriated to him, and it was by this name accordingly that he was most familiarly known to his own contemporaries. Modern writers for the sake of distinction have agreed for the most part to confine this illustrious title to the first of the Cæsarian dynasty; but we should doubtless gain a clearer conception of the gradual process by which the idea of a dynastic succession fixed itself in the minds of the Romans, if we followed their own practice in this particular, and applied the name of Cæsar, not to Augustus only, but also to his adopted son Tiberius, to the scions of the same lineage who succeeded him, and even to those of later and independent dynasties. As late indeed as the reign of Diocletian, the Roman monarch was still eminently the Cæsar. It was not till the close of the third century of our era that that illustrious title was deposed from its preeminence, and restricted to a secondary and deputed authority. Its older use was however revived and perpetuated, though less exclusively, through the declining ages of the empire, and has survived with perhaps unbroken continuity even to our own days."—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 31.—See also ROME: B. C. 31-A. D. 14.—The word *tsar* which was formerly thought to have been derived from Cæsar is now considered to have come from a word of Tartar origin.—See also FLAVIAN FAMILY; JULIAN FAMILY.

CÆSAR AUGUSTA.—One of the fortified posts established in Spain by the emperor Augustus, 27 B. C., and in which the veterans of the legions were settled. The place and its name (corrupted) survive in modern Saragossa.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 34.

CÆSAREA, in Cappadocia, ancient city in Cappadocia, formerly called Mazaca (q. v.), now the modern city of Kaisariyeh.

260.—Capture, massacre and pillage by Sapor, king of Persia. See PERSIA: 226-627.

CÆSAREA PALAESTINA, ancient seaport of Palestine, built by Herod I about the beginning of the Christian era. See CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine in the time of Christ.

Massacre of Jews. See JEWS: 66-70.

Capital of Palestine. See CHRISTIANITY: 33-70.

Church in. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Syrian churches.

In kingdom of Jerusalem. See JERUSALEM: 1100.

Capture by Saladin. See JERUSALEM: 1144-1187.

CÆSAREAN INDICTIONS. See INDICIONS.

CÆSARION, son of Cleopatra and Julius Cæsar. See EGYPT: B. C. 48-30.

CÆSAROMAGUS, in Britain, a Roman town identified, generally, with modern Chelmsford.—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

CÆSAROMAGUS, in Gaul, modern Beauvais, France. See BELGÆ.

CÆSAR'S TOWER. See TOWER OF LONDON.

CAETANI, Gelasio, Italian-American mining engineer. See WORLD WAR: 1916: IV. Austro-Italian front: 2.

CAFFA, ancient name of the town Theodosia, in the Crimea. See GENOA: 1261-1299.

CAGAYAN, or **Kagayan**, a northern province of Luzon, Philippine islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Native inhabitants; U. S. A.: 1898 (July-December).

CAGNI, Umberto, Italian explorer and soldier. He was in charge of the sledge party, in the 1899 Arctic expedition of the Duke of Abruzzi, which attained a latitude of $86^{\circ} 33'$, or 239.15 statute miles from the Pole. In 1911 he was in command of sailors at Tripoli. See ITALY: 1911-1913.

CAGNICOURT, small town in France in region between Arras and Cambrai, taken by British in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: 1, 1.

CAHIERS, lists of grievances or reports made by legislative bodies of the villages and towns of France just before the Revolution of 1789. See FRANCE: 1787-1789.

CAHOKIA, town in Illinois, originally in the Northwest Territory. It was taken by George Rogers Clark in his conquest of the Northwest. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: Clarke's conquest.

CAHORS, city of southwestern France, capital of the department of Lot.

Origin. See CADURCI.

Capture by Henry of Navarre. See FRANCE: 1578-1580.

CAHROC TRIBE. See MODOCS (KLAMATHS).

CAICOS ISLANDS, a group of small islands at the southeastern extremity of the Bahamas. See BAHAMA ISLANDS: 1492-1783; TURKS AND CAICOS ISLANDS.

CAILLAUX, Joseph (1863-), French statesman. Entered Chamber of Deputies, 1898; minister of finance 1899-1902, 1906-1909, 1911, establishing the income tax; president of the council (premier), July, 1911-January, 1912, resigning on account of the Moroccan crisis (see MOROCCO). In 1913 became minister of finance, resigning March, 1914, after his wife had killed Gaston Calmette, his political opponent, editor of the *Figaro*; acquitted of any connection with the murder (see FRANCE: 1910-1914, 1913-1914). Re-elected to Chamber of Deputies, 1914; January, 1918, accused of defeatism (see BOLOISM; FRANCE: 1918: Defeatism); later imprisoned without trial until January, 1920; convicted of "commerce and correspondence with the enemy" and deprived for ten years of the right to hold office. (See FRANCE: 1918.)

CAILLETET, Louis Paul (1832-1913), French chemist and ironmaster. In 1877 his experiments resulted in the liquefaction of both oxygen and nitrogen. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: Liquefaction of gases.

CAILLOUX FAMILY. See WAILLATPUAN FAMILY.

CAINITES.—A gnostic sect of the second century. "Probably these heretics were one of those many early sects of Asia Minor which were so adulterated, first with the dualism, and secondly,

with the licentious theories and practices of Oriental heathenism, that what Christian elements of belief had been originally current among them became all but obliterated in the course of a few years. Such were the Sethites, the Ophites, and the Nicolaitanes, with all three of which sects the Cainites are vaguely associated by ancient writers. . . . Like the Gnostic sects in general they evidently professed to have some special revelation respecting their religion which had not been communicated to other Christians, and their practical antichristianism is very evident."—J. H. Blunt, *Dictionary of sects*, pp. 94-95.—"The Ophites with . . . kindred sects . . . were hostile to the Old Testament religion. This hostility was carried so far by another sect, that they called themselves Cainites, and pronounced the evil characters of the Old Testament to be those who were really deserving of honor."—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Christian church*, pp. 76-77.

ÇA IRA: Origin of the cry and the song.—"When the news of the disastrous retreat [of Washington, in 1776] through the Jerseys and the miseries of Valley Forge reached France, many good friends to America began to think that now indeed all was lost. But the stout heart of Franklin never flinched. 'This is indeed bad news,' said he, 'but ça ira, ça ira [literally, 'this will go, this will go'], it will all come right in the end.' Old diplomats and courtiers, amazed at his confidence, passed about his cheering words. They were taken up by the newspapers; they were remembered by the people, and, in the dark days of the French Revolution, were repeated over and over again on every side, and made the subject of a stirring song which, till the Marseillaise Hymn appeared, had no equal in France."—J. B. McMaster, *History of the people of the United States*, v. 2, p. 80.—L. Rosenthal, *America and France*, p. 263.—"The original words (afterward much changed) were by Ladré, a street singer; and the music was a popular dance tune of the time composed by Bécourt, a drummer of the Grand Opera."—*Century dictionary*.—"The original name of the tune to which the words were written is 'Le Carillon National,' and it is a remarkable circumstance that it was a great favourite with the unfortunate Marie Antoinette, who used to play it on the harpsichord."—J. Oxenford, *Book of French songs* (note to "Ça ira").—See also MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: France.

CAIRNS, or Mounds of stone. See BARROW.

CAIRO, the capital of modern Egypt, "is situated on the right bank of the Nile, 131 miles by railway from Alexandria and near the apex of the Delta—in the figurative language of the East, it is the brightest gem in the handle of the green fan of Egypt. In the present day (1900) it covers about 11 square miles of the sandy plain, and extends from Mount Mukattam to the port of Boulak (Bûlâk); but only a small part of the modern city belongs to the Cairo of history, which consisted originally of little more than an immense palace with its attendant buildings. Modern Cairo is . . . situated about twenty miles from the Delta on the east bank of the Nile, and contains [1917] a population of about [700,939], some 40,000 of which are Europeans of different nationalities. Cairo may be said to be the most cosmopolitan city, next to Constantinople: and at every step the observer is entertained by the variety of the scenes he gazes at and by the wonderful medley of human life pouring along its thoroughfares."—H. J. Kemeid, *Cairo and Egypt and life in the land of the Pharaohs*, pp. 42-45.—"The history of the City of Cairo, as distinct from that of Egypt, is simple and

easily mastered, being confined within reasonable limits. It does not go back further than mediæval times. Unlike the history of Egypt, which is concerned mainly with the rise and fall of alien states, Cairo, whether Arabic or Turkish, is a wholly Mohammedan creation. . . . The history of Cairo, then, falls naturally into two periods: that of Arab rule when it was virtually the seat of the Caliphate; and the period of Turkish dominion, from its capture by the Ottoman Turks in 1517 down to the present time. In short, we need consider it under two aspects merely,—first as the capital of the Caliphs, and next as the chief city of a Turkish pachalic [pashalic, the jurisdiction of, or territory under, a pasha].—E. A. Reynolds-Ball, *City of the caliphs*, p. 5.—“If Cairo should ever indulge in the taste for historical pageants which is so characteristic of our country at this time, it would not be difficult to find a number of scenes worth reproducing, some of them graced with figures that loom large in the vista of the centuries. Ahmad Ibn Tulun’s architect summoned from his prison to solve the problem of the mosque; Jauhar drawing the lines of his city at an auspicious moment; Saladdin rejecting the splendours of the Fatimide Palace; Shajar al-durr receiving the homage of the Emirs behind her curtain; Baibars receiving his investiture from the Caliph of his own appointment; Kala’un’s Hospital inaugurated by a disloyal preacher; Cairo decorated to celebrate the fall of Constantinople, and presently itself entered in triumph by the Ottoman Sultan; al-Azhar, stormed by Bonaparte’s soldiers; the Mamelukes surrendering to Mohammed Ali in the Baruk Mosque—these might be suggested as a characteristic and not wholly uninteresting selection. And if scenes from yet later times were included, there might be a few in which great Englishmen figured also: Baker, sent by Isma’il Pasha to suppress the slave-trade in the Soudan; Gordon, hastening to his heroic defence of Khartoum; and last, but not least, the farewell address of the statesman [the late Lord Cromer] to whom the present financial and administrative prosperity of Cairo is due.”—D. S. Margoliouth, *Cairo, Jerusalem and Damascus*, p. 174.

Medieval commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries; 12-16th centuries.

641.—Origin. See CALIPHATE: 640-646.

967-1171.—Capital of the Fatimite caliphs. See CALIPHATE: 908-1171.

1220.—Siege by Christians. See CRUSADES: 1216-1220.

1517.—Capture, sack and massacre by the Ottoman Turks. See TURKEY: 1481-1520.

1798.—Occupied by the French under Bonaparte. See FRANCE: 1798 (May-August).

1800.—Revolt suppressed by the French. See FRANCE: 1800 (January-June).

1801-1802.—Surrender to the English.—Restoration to Turkey. See FRANCE: 1800 (January-June); 1801-1802.

1805-1811.—Massacres of the Mamelukes. See EGYPT: 1803-1811.

1879-1883.—Revolt against the khedive and the foreign control.—Occupation by the British. See EGYPT: 1875-1882, and 1882-1883.

1919.—Revolt against British at Zaghlul’s arrest. See EGYPT: 1918-1919.

1921.—Native riots. See EGYPT: 1921-1922.

Cape-to-Cairo Railway. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914: Summary of European occupation; Modern railway and industrial development; CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY.

CAIROAN. See KAIRWAN.

CAISSE DE LA DETTE, French name applied to the Treasury of the Public Debt established in Egypt by the London convention of 1885. See EGYPT: 1885-1896.

CAISSON GATES, Panama Canal. See PANAMA CANAL: 1914.

CAIUS, called Caligula, Roman emperor. See GAIUS CÆSAR (CALIGULA) 37-41.

CAIX, in France in region of Amiens, taken by Allies in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: j, i.

CAJAL, Ramon y (b. 1852), Spanish histologist. See NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1906.

CAKCHIQUELS. See MAYAS; QUICHES AND CAKCHIQUELS.

CALABRIA, the southernmost peninsula of Italy. See ROME: Map of ancient Italy.

Transfer of the name.—“After the loss of the true Calabria [to the Lombards] the vanity of the Greeks substituted that name instead of the more ignoble appellation of Bruttium; and the change appears to have taken place before the time of Charlemagne.”—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 45, note.

1808-1809.—Civil War. See ITALY (Southern): 1808-1809.

CALAIS, seaport of northern France; a manufacturing center and strongly fortified passage port between France and England. It was originally a fishing village, but its situation on the English channel opposite Dover, England, did much to give it its present importance. Its population in 1911 was 72,322.

1346-1347.—Siege and capture by Edward III.—Immediately after his great victory won at Crecy, the English king, Edward III, laid siege to the strong city of Calais. He built a town of huts round the city, “which he called ‘Newtown the Bold,’ and laid it out with a market, regular streets and shops, and all the necessary accommodation for an army, and hither were carried in vast stores of victuals and other necessaries, obtained by ravaging the country round and by shipment from England.” Calais held out for a year, and angered the king so by its obstinacy that when, in August, 1347, starvation forced its people to surrender, he required that six of the chief burgesses should be given up to him, with halters round their necks, for execution. Eustache St. Pierre and five others nobly offered themselves for the sacrifice, and it was only by the weeping intercession of Queen Philippa that Edward was induced to spare their lives. He expelled all the inhabitants who refused to take an oath of fealty to him and repopulated the town with Englishmen.—W. Warburton, *Edward III, second decade*, ch. 3.—See also FRANCE: 1337-1360.

1348.—Staple for English trade. See STAPLE, STAPLERS.

1360.—Ceded to England. See FRANCE: 1337-1360.

1520.—Meeting of Henry VIII and Francis I. See FIELD OF THE CLOTH OF GOLD.

1558.—Capture by the French. See FRANCE: 1547-1559.

ALSO IN: P. van Dyke, *François de Guise and the taking of Calais (American Historical Association Annual Report, 1911, v. 1, pp. 101-107)*.

1562.—Elizabeth of England offers an army to aid Huguenots if Calais is restored. See FRANCE: 1560-1563.

1564.—Final surrender of English claims. See FRANCE: 1563-1564.

1596-1598.—Surprise and capture by the Spaniards.—Restoration to France. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1875-1911.—**Modern changes.**—"Calais is nevertheless to be warmly congratulated on what it has accomplished since 1875, when the scheme of harbour improvement . . . received the sanction and support of the French Government. An examination of the plan of the port will show that it is practically surrounded by water. The channel gives direct access to the Eastern Tidal Basin, whence the largest floating dock—named after the late President Carnot—is reached by means of a pair of capacious locks. At the end of the Carnot Dock there is a dry dock 500 ft. long and 60 ft. wide; and at the south-westerly angle an inner basin leads to a canal dock, possessing a superficial area of ten acres and 5,250 ft. of quay frontage. To this dock lighters can come from all the internal waterways of France and Belgium, and therein wait, without causing any obstruction to navigation, until called upon to deliver the goods which they may bring for shipment in outgoing vessels. The Calais Canal enters the dock at the south, and by a series of basins and channels, intended to be useful for military as well as for commercial purposes, runs between the Esplanade and the Citadelle, connecting with the Western Tidal Basin, in immediate proximity to the West Dock. The Crabes Canal appears in the port near the goods depot of the Central Railway Station, and the Asfeld Canal forms on the west another means of barge communication which might, if necessary, be turned to good account. East and west of the entrance channel of the port are extensive sluicing basins. That to the east—the construction of which necessitated a diversion of the Marck Canal—covers an area of 220 acres, and extends parallel to the shore, while the four sluicing basins to the south-west together cover an area of 186 acres. A very extensive system of navigation is here represented. Indeed, the internal arrangement of the port is excellent, and had its deep water capacity been correspondingly satisfactory years ago Calais would unquestionably to-day have been one of the busiest and most successful ports on the Continent."—*Nautical Magazine and Journal of the Naval Reserves*, Oct., 1898, pp. 672-673.—"Calais is much altered, and not altogether for the better, but it has still a delightfully French aspect, paradoxically heightened by some few surviving traces of English rule. The great warehouse of the English merchants of the Staple has been let out in tenement dwellings, but its courtyard is still entered by a fine Tudor gateway, which a few trifling repairs would convert into a worthy entrance to an Oxford quadrangle. The Musée possesses the Tudor tower of the old Justice of the Staple of the English time, the wooden belfry of which has a pretty carillon. Close to this, in the Rue de la Citadelle, are ancient gabled houses with jutting upper storeys which would not be out of place in Norwich or Cambridge, and were probably built by Englishmen. But the most important survival of English rule is the curious Perpendicular Church of Our Lady, perhaps the only church of that style in which the Roman worship is still performed. It has little of the elegance and lightness which mark the latest development of English Gothic. Its grim central tower has something of the aspect of a mediæval keep, and the transepts are buttressed at the corners with loopholed turrets which tell eloquently that the English citizens of Calais went armed even at their devotions, and held their post across the Channel by a precarious tenure. Of the subsequent French period is a gorgeous Renaissance reded, splendid with painting and rococo alabaster pillars and allegorical statues in the taste of the eighteenth century. The

great west window, with its fine Perpendicular tracery, is blocked by an organ whose music is well worth hearing on Sundays and feast days. The streets of the old town are not much changed since Thackeray's time, and have all the pleasant picturesqueness that almost any old French town presents to English eyes. North of the ancient English 'petitparadis' a new boulevard goes right through the great Risban—the fort built by the English to guard the harbour mouth—to the plage and casino. The beach runs, all hard smooth sand, westwards to Sangatte, known to most of us by the exploits of aviators and as the point where the projected tunnel to Dover begins. Calais might well become a famous watering-place but for the numerous forts which lurk behind the sand dunes which line the beach and prevent the growth of the town towards the sea. Calais has become a great place of arms and the headquarters of one of the most novel developments of French naval enterprises. . . . In Calais, as elsewhere, there is industrial civil war, and military patrols warn the inquisitive traveller, good-naturedly enough, away from the great warehouses lest he should perchance to be a *saboteur* in disguise. But most of the citizens of Calais seem to take life easily enough, perhaps because the commercial and military importance of their town has brought them a modest prosperity."—*Spectator*, Oct. 7, 1911, pp. 542-543.

ALSO IN: R. B. Carlton, *Annals and legends of Calais* (1346-1852).—J. G. Nichols (ed.), *Chronicle of Calais* (1485-1540).

1914-1918.—**Importance of the city during the World War.**—During the World War Calais was a principal port of debarkation for the British Expeditionary Force and one of their main French supply bases. For this reason it was a constant object of German ambition. The German drive for Calais and the other two channel ports, Dunkirk and Boulogne, in 1914 and 1918 was checked by the Allies.—See also CHANNEL PORTS; WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 7; v, 1.

ALSO IN: A. Bennet, *In Calais harbor during mobilization*, (*Living Age*, Sept. 5, 1914, pp. 633-663).

CALAMOTTA, small island off Dalmatia in the Adriatic, promised to territory of Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, by Treaty of London, 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

CALASIRIES, ancient Egyptian cavalry corps. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 2.

CALATRAVA AND SANTIAGO DE COMPOSTELLA, Knights of.—"It was to repress the never-ceasing incursions of the Mohammedans, as well as to return these incursions with interest, that, in the time of Fernando [Fernando II of the early Spanish kingdom of Leon], two military orders, those of Calatrava and Santiago [or St. Jago—or St. James of Compostella], were instituted. The origin of the former order was owing to the devotion of two Cistercian monks; St. Raymond, abbot of Fitero, and his companion, the friar Diego Velasquez. These intrepid men, who had both borne arms previous to their monastic profession, indignant at the cowardice of the Templars, who resigned into the king of Castile's hands the fortress of Calatrava, which had been confided to their defense by the emperor Alfonso, proposed, in 1158, to the regency of that kingdom, to preserve that position against the assailants. The proposal was readily accepted. The preaching of the warlike abbot was so efficacious, that in a short time he assembled 20,000 men, whom he conducted to Calatrava, and among whom were not a few of his own monks. There he drew up the institutions of

the order, which took its name from the place, and which in its religious government long followed the Cistercian rule, and wore the same monastic habit,—a white robe and scapulary. [By pope Benedict XIII the habit was dispensed with, and the knights allowed to marry 'once.'—*Foot-note.*] The other order commenced in 1161. Some robbers of Leon, touched with their past enormities, resolved to make reparation for them, by defending the frontiers against the incursions of the Mohammedans. Don Pedro Fernandez—if the 'don' has not been added to give something like respectability to the origin—was the chief founder of the order. He engaged the brethren to assume the rule of St. Augustine, in addition to the ordinary obligations of knighthood. His military and monastic fraternity was approved by king Fernando; at whose suggestion the knights chose Santiago as their patron, whose bloody sword, in form of a cross, became their professional symbol. These two orders were richly endowed by successive kings of Leon and Castile, until their possessions became immense.—S. A. Dunham, *History of Spain and Portugal, bk. 3, sect. 2, ch. 1, div. 2.*—In 1396 the knights of the order of St. James of Compostella "received permission to marry. In 1493, the Grand Mastership was united to the crown of Spain." In 1523 the right of nomination to the grand mastership of the order of Calatrava was transferred from the pope to the crown of Spain, "and since that time the order has gradually merged into a court institution. The state dress is a white robe, with a red cross on the left breast. The permission to marry has been enjoyed since 1540."—F. C. Woodhouse, *Military religious orders, pt. 4.*—See also AVIS, KNIGHTS OF.

CALAURIA, Confederation of.—A naval confederation, formed at a very early period of Greek history, by the seven maritime cities of Orchomenus, Athens, Ægina, Epidaurus, Hermione, Prasia and Nauplia against the kings of Argos. The island of Calauria, off the eastern point of Argolis, was the center of the confederacy.—E. Curtius, *History of Greece, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3.*

CALCHAQUIAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

CALCINATO, Battle of (1706). See ITALY: 1701-1713.

CALCUTTA, capital of Bengal and until 1912 of British India; population in 1911 was 1,222,313; one of the greatest shipping ports in the world. It was founded by a representative of the British East India Company in 1690 (see BRITISH EMPIRE: Chronology of colonial expansion: 17th century), and has remained continuously in English possession, except for a few months in 1756-1757, when it was captured and sacked by the then ruling native prince of Bengal.—See also INDIA: Map; 1600-1702; 1755-1757.

1911.—Transfer of the capital to Delhi. See DELHI: 1911.

CALDER, Sir Robert, Bart. (1745-1818), British admiral. Commander of British fleet in battle off Cape St. Vincent, 1797; was knighted by George III; in 1805 was in the blockade of the ports of Ferrol and Corunna, against Napoleon.

CALDER, William M. (1869-), American legislator, member of Congress, 1905-1915; entered United States Senate, 1917, from New York, for a term of six years. As chairman of a Senate committee, he was active during the fall of 1920 in investigating coal prices and supply.

CALDERON, Conde de. See CALLEJA DEL REY, FÉLIX MARIA.

CALDERON, Battle of (1811). See MEXICO: 1810-1819.

CALDERON DE LA BARCA, Pedro (1600-1681), Spanish dramatist. Following Lope de Vega in the golden age of Spanish drama, his plays embody the artificial, brilliant life of the period. Always a court favorite, he wrote much spectacular drama to please the king. In 1650 he joined the Franciscan order of monks and wrote many *autos sacramentales* which were performed on feast days. See DRAMA: 1100-1681; SPANISH LITERATURE: 1590-1680.

CALDIERO, Battle of (Italy), French defeat at, 1796. See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April).

CALDONAZZO, village in the Trentino, Italy, occupied by Italians in 1918, during World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: e, 12.

CALDWELL vs. SIOUX FALLS COMPANY, United States Supreme Court case in which the blue sky law of South Dakota was upheld. The Sioux Falls Stock Yards Company was a Colorado corporation, engaged at the time of the case in constructing a stock yard in Sioux Falls, S. D., and in selling a certain amount of its capital stock in order to raise sufficient funds for that purpose. Clarence C. Caldwell, as attorney general of the state of South Dakota and ex officio member of the state securities commission, brought action against the dealers in this stock for violation of the law of the state regulating the sale of securities. It was alleged that the statute was an infraction of the fourteenth amendment of the constitution and imposed a burden upon and practically amounted to a prohibition of interstate commerce and that it attempted to vest in and delegate to the state securities commission judicial powers unauthorized by law. In a decision handed down January 22, 1917, the supreme court held the law to be constitutional. The opinion was delivered by Justice McKenna, Justice McReynolds dissenting. The decision was somewhat similar to that in the case of Hall vs. Geiger-Jones Company upholding the blue sky law of Ohio, and that in the Merrick vs. Halsey & Co. case upholding the Michigan law.

CALEB, according to biblical history, a spy sent to Canaan by Moses. See HEBRON.

CALEDONIA, ancient Roman name of North Britain. See SCOTLAND: name.

Ancient tribes. See BRITAIN, CELTIC TRIBES.
Wars of the Romans. See BRITAIN: 78-84; 208-211.

Settlement in north. See BRITAIN: 367-370.

CALEDONIA SYLVA, or Forest of Celyddon. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CALEDONIAN CANAL, Scotland. See CANALS: Principal European canals: British Isles.

CALEDONII, one of the wild tribes which occupied the Highlands of Scotland when the Romans held Britain, and whose name they gave finally to all the Highland tribes and to that part of the island.—W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland, v. 1.*—See BRITAIN, CELTIC TRIBES.

CALEND: Meaning of term. See CHRONOLOGY: Julian era.

CALENDAR BRETHREN (Frates Calendarii), clerical fraternity or guild existing in Germany and the neighboring countries in the Middle Ages. Its members took a firm stand against the Reformation.

ALSO IN: *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia, v. 2, p. 342.*

CALENDAR STONE. See MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples.

CALENDARS. See **ANNALS: Medieval annals; CHRONOLOGY; FASTI; RUSSIA: 1917-1920: Bolshevik laws.**

CALETI, tribe of the Gauls. See **BELGÆ.**

CALGARY, one of the most important towns of western Canada, oldest in the province of Alberta. It is the main railway center and chief distributing point between Winnipeg and the west coast. It was founded in 1883 near the site of an old French trading post. Situated as it is near extensive coal beds and wide stock-raising regions, it has become a large industrial city. Population in 1916 was 56,514.

CALHOUN, John Caldwell (1782-1850), American statesman, foremost champion of the South; 1807, admitted to bar; 1808-1809, member of South Carolina legislature; 1811-1817, member of Congress, active with Henry Clay in bringing about war with Great Britain (see **U. S. A.: 1810-1812**); 1817-1825, secretary of war in Monroe's cabinet where he showed unusual administrative abilities (see **U. S. A.: 1816**); 1824, elected Vice-President under John Quincy Adams (see **U. S. A.: 1824**); 1828, chosen vice-president under Andrew Jackson; wrote the South Carolina Exposition advocating nullification in opposition to the Tariff of Abominations (see **U. S. A.: 1828; 1828-1833**); 1832, resigned from Vice-Presidency and entered Senate from South Carolina; defended slavery and assailed the abolitionists (see **U. S. A.: 1837-1840; 1847**); 1844-1845, secretary of state under Tyler, secured annexation of Texas; active in movement for secession in South Carolina (see **SOUTH CAROLINA: 1847-1852**); opposed Mexican war, Wilmot Proviso, doctrine of squatter sovereignty, compromise of 1850, and the fugitive slave law. See **U. S. A.: 1850 (March).**

CALICO ACT (1721). See **TARIFF: 1689-1721.**

CALICUT, seaport in the southwestern part of British India and a town of some antiquity. When Portuguese travellers arrived there in the fifteenth century it was a city of considerable commercial importance, and for many years the word "Calicut" was used to indicate "India." Attempts of the Portuguese to establish a factory were repeatedly repulsed by the inhabitants between 1498 and 1500. A factory was finally built in 1510 only to be abandoned in 1525. In 1615 the first English expedition visited Calicut, and in 1664 the British East India Company established a trading settlement. During the native wars with England, it was twice destroyed by Hyder Ali (1765) and Tippu Sahib (1788), but later rebuilt. The population in 1911 was 78,417.

CALIFORNIA, state comprising almost the entire Pacific coast of the United States, with an area of 155,652 square miles and a population of 3,426,536.

Resources and industries.—California is a state rich in natural wealth. Although minerals were formerly its most important asset, its fertile soil has gradually made agriculture more important than mining. The state now produces hay, wheat, barley, beans, potatoes, rice, oats and beet sugar, together with fruits of many varieties, in great quantities. Stock-raising is still an important industry, while fisheries and forest regions yield abundant returns. There are seventeen national forests in California covering 20,339,337 acres. The state ranks fifth in the value of its mineral products and in 1919 the value of mining was over one hundred and fifty per cent greater than it was ten years earlier. After mining and agriculture, manufacturing is the next most important industry, and it is increasing steadily. The most important outputs are petroleum, dairy, and

lumber products, and canned and preserved goods.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See **CHIMARIKAN FAMILY; CHUMASHAN FAMILY; COPEHAN FAMILY; COSTANOAN FAMILY; ESSELENIAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: California area; KULANAPAN FAMILY; MARIPOSAN FAMILY; MODOCS; MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY; PUJUNAN FAMILY; WISHOSKAN FAMILY; YANAN FAMILY; YUKIAN FAMILY.**

1543-1781.—Origin of the name.—Early Spanish exploration and settlement.—**Founding of the Franciscan missions.**—"The settlements of the Spanish missionaries within the present limits of the State of California date from the first foundation of San Diego in 1769. The missions that were later founded north of San Diego were, with the original establishment itself, for a time known merely by some collective name, such as the Northern Missions. But later the name California, already long since applied to the country of the peninsular missions to the Southward, was extended to the new land, with various prefixes or qualifying phrases; and out of these the definitive name Alta [or Upper] California at last came, being applied to our present country during the whole period of the Mexican Republican ownership. As to the origin of the name California, no serious question remains that this name, as first applied, between 1535 and 1539 to a portion of Lower California, was derived from an old printed romance, the one which Mr. Edward Everett Hale rediscovered in 1862, and from which he drew this now accepted conclusion. For, in this romance, the name California was already before 1520 applied to a fabulous island, described as near the Indies and also 'very near the Terrestrial Paradise.' Colonists whom Cortes brought to the newly discovered peninsula in 1535, and who returned the next year, may have been the first to apply the name to this supposed island, on which they had been for a time resident. The coast of Upper California was first visited during the voyage of the explorer Juan Cabrillo in 1542-43. Several landings were then made on the coast and on the islands, in the Santa Barbara region. . . . In 1579 Drake's famous visit took place [see **AMERICA: 1572-1580**]. . . . It is . . . almost perfectly sure that he did not enter or observe the Golden Gate, and that he got no sort of idea of the existence of the Great Bay. . . . This result of the examination of the evidence about Drake's voyage is now fairly well accepted, although some people will always try to insist that Drake discovered our Bay of San Francisco. The name San Francisco was probably applied to a port on this coast for the first time by Cermeñon, who, in a voyage from the Philippines in 1595, ran ashore, while exploring the coast near Point Reyes. It is now, however, perfectly sure that neither he nor any other Spanish navigator before 1769 applied this name to our present bay, which remained utterly unknown to Europeans during all this period. . . . In 1602-1603, Sebastian Vizcaino conducted a Spanish exploring expedition along the California coast. . . . From this voyage a little more knowledge of the character of the coast was gained; and thenceforth geographical researches in the region of California ceased for over a century and a half. With only this meagre result we reach the era of the first settlement of Upper California. The missions of the peninsula of Lower California passed, in 1767, by the expulsion of the Jesuits, into the hands of the Franciscans; and the Spanish government, whose attention was attracted in this direction by the changed conditions, ordered the immediate prosecution of a long-cherished plan to provide the

Manilla ships, on their return voyage, with good ports of supply and repairs, and to occupy the northwest land as a safeguard against Russian or other aggressions. . . . Thus began the career of Spanish discovery and settlement in California. The early years show a generally rapid progress, only one great disaster occurring,—the destruction of San Diego Mission in 1775, by assailing Indians. But this loss was quickly repaired. In 1770 the Mission of San Carlos was founded at Monterey. In 1772, a land expedition, under Fages and Crespi, first explored the eastern shore of our San Francisco Bay, in an effort to reach by land the old Port of San Francisco [the evidence now shows that Fages made an expedition previous to this one, in 1770. See below: 1760-1770]. . . . After 1775, the old name began to be generally applied

matter according to his temperament and the mood affecting him. Some, seeing things in a favorable light, expected to find there every comfort and help; others grieved considering its weak state and the few resources we had left it. In truth, all of us were returning with a misgiving lest, through the continued force of the maladies, and the mortality among the people, the settlement had become a place of solitude. On the other hand, there was every reason to fear the evil disposition of the natives of San Diego, whose greediness to rob can only be restrained by superior power and authority, and we feared lest they had dared to commit some outrage against the mission and its small garrison. As we had obtained no news whatever along the coast concerning the ships, notwithstanding our efforts in that direction, we had fears in



SANTA BARBARA MISSION, CALIFORNIA

One of the best preserved missions in California, showing a view from the gardens

to the new Bay, and so, thenceforth, the name Port of San Francisco means what we now mean thereby. In 1775, Lieutenant Ayala entered the new harbor by water. In the following year the Mission at San Francisco was founded, and in October its church was dedicated. Not only missions, however, but pueblos, inhabited by Spanish colonists, lay in the official plan of the new undertakings. The first of these to be established was San José, founded in November, 1777. The next was Los Angeles, founded in September, 1781."—J. Royce, *California*, ch. 1, sect. 2.

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 13 (*California*, v. 1).—F. W. Blackmar, *Spanish institutions of the Southwest*, ch. 5-15.

1769.—Mission at San Diego.—Official visit.—Camino del Rey.—“We were nearing San Diego and varied were the opinions among us about the condition in which we should find the new settlement that we had left at its very beginning more than six months ago. Each one discussed the

anticipation that in San Diego we should meet with a like disappointment. While we were still engaged with these thoughts and discussions, which for days had been wearying us, we received an unexpected pleasure at the sight of fresh tracks of men and horses, at more than half a league from the presidio which we saw soon afterwards. As soon as we saw the palisade inclosure and the humble buildings which it contained, we gave a salute, discharging our arms—the first announcement to its occupants of our arrival. They immediately came out with the greatest joy to receive us in their arms. We found the missionary fathers, Fray Junipero Serra, president of the missions, Fray Juan Viscaino, and Fray Fernando Parron, in good health; the first and the last mentioned were still convalescing from the common sickness of scurvy which, even now, afflicted various soldiers—the veterans we had left behind as well as those of the presidio—and christianized Californian Indians. We learned from them how

a few weeks after our departure, God had taken to Himself all those we had left sick in their beds; but that, through the charitable and tireless devotion of the surgeon, Don Pedro Prat, those in whom the disease had not taken such a firm hold during the sea-voyage, had recovered. We also learned that those who had subsequently fallen sick, which included everyone, as the disease spared none, had been restored to health. Experience thus proved in this instance how opportune was the wise decision of him who sent a man of this profession and of such commendable ability (with the expedition), and how useful such persons are in any colony or new settlement."—*Academy of Pacific coast history, v. 2, pp. 323-325.*—"It is generally taken for granted that the original plan of Padre Serra was to establish a chain of Missions in California a day's journey apart. The number of the Indians and their location seemed peculiarly adapted to this plan. In travelling to and fro, prior to, and during their establishment, a trail, and eventually a road, would necessarily be made. It is claimed by Don Antonio Coronel that this road or highway became the 'recognized highway of official travel,' and that it commenced in Guatemala and ended first in Monterey; then, as the Missions reached San Francisco and Sonoma, it was extended thither. He says: 'it was called either the *Camino del Rey* or the *Camino Real* in our Spanish,' which being interpreted is 'the King's Highway.' It was never much of a road from the road-maker's standpoint, but to the historian, the romancer, the artist, it is one of the most fascinating highways in the world. It did not always stick exactly to the same narrow boundaries; when a tree fell across it, a slight detour was made; when rain fell and made a large puddle it branched off to right and left. Occasionally some one discovered a 'short cut,' and then a new road took the place of the old; but, in the main, it remained a king's highway, connecting the Missions one with another, and linking together the little picturesque settlements of Spaniards and Indians that clustered around them. When the Americans came it was necessarily their main line of travel; and though slight changes have been made in it by the rectangular system of denoting form and other boundaries, here and there compelling it to a more straight and rigid plan, it is still the *Camino Real* of the Mission days. And what a history it has had! Though less than a century and a half old, what changes it has seen! First the crude trail, doubtless, of the original aborigines, who in their skin costumes, with their simple gifts slung by means of rawhide bands from their foreheads, went on errands of friendship to neighboring rancherias. Now and again a band of deer or antelope would course upon it, having discovered that they were in danger from hunters. Occasionally a mountain lion, a black bear, or a grizzly, and often a coyote, a fox, a badger . . . would stroll leisurely on this man-made path, each and all sniffing significantly at the footprints of the upright animal whose 'scent' so often meant danger to them. Then came the padres, with their military escort. Aye, but prior to that, perhaps, in spots, this that was ultimately to be the *Camino Real* had felt the pressure of the feet of Cabrillo or Viscaino or Drake or Cavendish,—so that these new feet were not the first of white men to walk upon its length. But they soon became the most familiar. Serra, Crespi, Portolá, Fages, Rivera,—what a list of names of the earliest travellers, the real explorers who gave our California to the world. . . . From the beginning of its real history, over this King's Highway, again and again, back and forth, happily or wearily, ac-

ording as his extensive plans prospered or dragged, walked the sainted Serra. Here he sang aloud; there he sunk upon his knees in prayer; yonder he wept in anguish as the news of some delay in his beloved work, or some Indian outburst reached him. This road saw the coming of the colonists from Mexico; heard their openly expressed hopes, fears, expectations. As the years rolled on it heard the squeak and rattle of the lumbering carreta as elderly señoras rode, accompanied by gay *caballeros* clad in zarape and sombrero, riding on saddles of price, carved in exquisite design and skilfully inlaid with silver. And the señoritas, did they stay at home? No! the historic road saw them ride also, always, of course, accompanied by their duennas, but by no means the less happy and joyous, though perhaps somewhat less exuberant. Indeed to know the history of the *Camino Real* is to know the history of the California of those days. Don Antonio Coronel might well say he had a separate legend of this highway for every day in the year."—G. W. James, *In and out of the old missions of California, pp. 379-381.*

1769-1770.—Portolá's discovery of San Francisco bay.—Monterey expedition.—Fages' expedition along the eastern shore of San Francisco bay (1770).—To effect the occupation of Alta California, "in 1769, five expeditions were despatched [from Mexico], two by land up the peninsula, and three by sea. A junction of four of them was effected at San Diego, one of the ships having been lost. From there the commander-in-chief, Gaspar de Portolá, proceeded northward in search of Monterey, and actually visited that port but failed to recognize it from the description of González Cabrera Bueno. Pushing on he reached and discovered San Francisco Bay."—C. E. Chapman, *Founding of Spanish California, p. 84.*—"The Puerto of San Francisco had long been known to the Spaniards, but by that name they meant the modern Drake's Bay. What we now call San Francisco Bay was discovered by Portolá in 1769, taking the name of the *Estero* of San Francisco. For several years thereafter, expeditions in that direction aimed to get around the *Estero* in order to reach the Puerto. The distinction seems to have been lost sight of in Mexico, possibly because the name and location were so nearly the same. Very soon the name San Francisco became understood as connecting the site of the present city and bay of that name. Scarcity of provisions and the consequent necessity of returning to San Diego had prevented an exploration of the bay by Portolá. Thenceforth, however, the project of exploring and occupying the new port was constantly in the minds of the authorities and missionaries, until it was achieved in 1776 by the founding of San Francisco. Rivera, who had accompanied the Portolá expedition, wrote to Croix [Viceroy of Mexico], March 2, 1770, that the newly discovered port, if deep enough, might prove better than that of San Diego. Moreover, it was a good site for settlement, as it had timber and firewood, running water, good lands, and numerous Indians. Doubtless, he was considering the availability of the Indians as laborers in referring to their numbers as an advantage. News of the achievements of the 1769 expeditions had hardly been received in Mexico, when orders were sent by Croix, November 12, 1770, to explore the port of San Francisco and to found a mission there to secure it from foreign occupation. This order was not received until May, 1771. Meanwhile, Fages had paid a brief visit to San Francisco Bay in November, 1770, but had made no extensive exploration. From the first, Serra [head of the Franciscan mission at San Diego] was

most eager to establish a mission there, but Fages regarded it as impossible, owing to his lack of troops for mission guards. Serra would not be satisfied, and voiced his complaint in a long letter to the viceroy, who had ordered an exploration of its port beforehand, but Fages and Perez, the latter being captain of the *San Antonio*, had decided that there were not enough people for the attempt to be made by land, and that it would occasion too great a delay to the *San Antonio*, if made by sea. Serra wished to see the mission placed there as soon as possible; there would be no delay on his part. This letter must have reached Mexico at about the time that Bucarely became viceroy, or only shortly before. Its statements are confirmed by Fages, who wrote to Croix that he could not find the mission at San Francisco until he got more soldiers. Exploration of the port of San Francisco was also urged by Father Verger in his petition of December, 1771. 'They say that Monterey is not a port, and that San Francisco may be a very good one; but there is need of exploring its entrance and (ascertaining) its depth.' Knowing Verger's objections to making new settlements, we may conclude that he was recommending exploration rather than a too early attempt at settlement. At length, in March and April, 1772, Fages made an overland expedition to explore the *Puerto* of San Francisco, but failing to get around the *Estero* returned. He made no examination of San Francisco Bay, and its merits remained unknown."—*Ibid.*, pp. 113-114.

In the spring of 1770 another attempt was made to reach and locate Monterey. Portolá and Fages, travelling by land, left San Diego on April 17, while Perez, in the *San Antonio*, departed the day before. The following extract from the diary of Costansó gives a description of the bay of Monterey before the Spaniards settled the country. "The engineer, Don Miguel Costansó, in accordance with his orders, embarked in the packet *San Antonio*, which also carried Father Junipero Serra [and Perez]. This ship put to sea on the 16th of April of the same year. They all reached Monterey—the land-expedition on the 23rd of May, and the *San Antonio* on the 31st of the same month cast anchor in the same port and anchoring ground, where one hundred and sixty-eight years before had anchored the squadron of General Vizcayno, sent by the Count of Monterey for the discovery of these coasts, by order of Philip III. As has been said, this port lies in 36 degrees 40 north latitude, at the foot of the northern slope of the Sierra de Santa Lucia. Its principal shelter is the Punta de Pinos extending, not as the pilot Cabrera Bueno puts it, from northeast to southwest, but from northwest to southeast. On the northeast side of it is the anchorage, where any vessel can anchor in four, six, or eight fathoms, with a bottom of fine sand, and good holding, according as it is more or less close to the shore. The Punta de Pinos, which protects the anchorage to the northwest, is entirely surrounded by rocks and cliffs, but behind the rocks there extends a beautiful beach, bordered on the east by sand-banks, which soon turns to the northeast and north as far as a very large estuary with several arms, at a distance of over three leagues from the beginning of the beach. Thence the coast turns to the northwest and west as far as the Punta de Año Nuevo, which terminates in the ocean at 37 degrees 3 latitude (north). The soil is rather heavy and covered with trees and steep in places. In this manner the anchorage is on all sides surrounded by land, except on the northwest, where alone it lacks shelter. The land surrounding this immense bay offers,

when seen from the sea, a very pleasing view. For, looking South, one sees the Sierra de Santa Lucia, sending out its foothills which grow lower as they approach the shore and whose ridges, crowned with pines and covered with pasturage, form a magnificent amphitheatre. Its beauty is enhanced by the verdure of the different canyons which intersect the country, presenting an admirable variety and harmony to the eyes. This port has no running water but enough of it is found in a bottom or low place to the southeast of the landing, where the beach begins. . . . The natives of Monterey live in the hills, the nearest about one and a half leagues from the beach. They come down sometimes and go out fishing in little rafts of reeds. It seems, however, that fishing does not furnish their chief means of subsistence, and they have recourse to it only when hunting has yielded little. Game is very plentiful in the mountains, especially antelopes and deer. These mountaineers are very numerous, extremely gentle and tractable. They never came to visit the Spaniards without bringing them a substantial present of game, which as a rule consisted of two or three deer or antelopes, which they offered without demanding or (even) asking for anything (in return). Their good disposition has given the missionary fathers well-founded hopes of speedily winning them over to the faith of Christ. . . . In compliance with the order, a military post and a mission under the protection of San Carlos were established in that country. Everybody—soldiers, sailors and their respective officers—co-operated with equal effort and devotion in the humble beginnings of so important a settlement. Having finished the provisional work which was most necessary for the missionary fathers and the garrison, and having planned the other work which was to follow, the cargo of the packet was stored away. The commander, Don Gaspar de Portolá, then determined to embark in the packet with the engineer, Don Miguel Costansó, leaving in command the lieutenant of infantry, Don Pedro Fages, according to his instructions; and, in order to assist the soldiers in their tasks, nine sailors remained in Monterey as a reinforcement."—*Academy of Pacific coast history*, v. 1, pp. 63-67.

"It has been thought hitherto that the first inland exploration of the country between Monterey and the head of the bay of San Francisco, and of the eastern shore—except for the short distance which may have been traversed by the reconnoitering party sent out in 1766 by Portolá—was that made by Pedro Fages in March, 1772. But the diary here published shows that in November, 1770, Fages led a party of explorers northwestward from Monterey to the Santa Clara Valley ('La Canada del Puerto de San Francisco'), down that valley to the head of the bay, thence along the eastern shore two days' journey to a point not far from Alameda, the course to this place being much the same as that followed in 1772. Before turning back the party ascended a hill and described the north arm of the bay projecting far to the east and communicating with that at their left. Fages' statement in the letter of transmittal of the diary to the viceroy, to the effect that his men went about seven leagues farther than the explorers had gone in the previous year, helps to fix the limit of the exploration of 1769 on the eastern shore. The expedition of 1770 was undertaken independently of the viceroy's order of November 12 of the same year, requiring that the port of the bay of San Francisco should be explored (that order did not reach Monterey until May 21, 1771), and appears to have been made at Fages's own initiative. It seems strange that, in their diaries of the expedi-

tion of 1772, over much the same ground as that traversed in 1770, neither Crespi nor Fages mentions the earlier journey. Aside from the references to it in the two letters of transmittal herein mentioned, one contemporary allusion to the 1770 diary has been noted by the present writer. This is in an unsigned manuscript description of the bay of San Francisco made in the year 1776 and now preserved in the archives of the College of Santa Cruz, of Querétaro."—*Ibid.*, v. 2, pp. 143-144.—The following document is a translation of the report sent by commander Pedro Fages to Croix, the viceroy of Mexico:

"JUNE 20, 1771.

"MOST EXCELLENT SIR,—

"SIR:

"On the 27th of November of last year I decided to explore, with six soldiers and one muleteer, the country surrounding this royal presidio, leaving the camp, which could be locked up, entirely secure. I did this on the day mentioned, going northeast, and after two days' travel we struck the valley of the port of San Francisco. Following this for five days we succeeded in going about seven leagues beyond the place where the explorers of the expedition of the previous year were. From the top of a hill at this place there was seen a large estuary mouth, which as it appeared to me and to the soldiers, was about three hundred yards (wide) and reached about the same distance inland, and another a little narrower. Through these mouths ran a great quantity of water from the sea, forming two large estuaries. The one which we had at our left must have turned south about fifteen leagues. Of the course of the other to the east, we saw about twenty (leagues). From all this we inferred that it was the estuary of the port of San Francisco of which the itinerary of Cabrera Bueno speaks. Of it we could not see the end, which made it necessary for us to turn back, for it lay across our path. Fourteen days after setting out we arrived at camp, finding that nothing whatever had happened. I enclose for Your Excellency a diagram of the works of the camp, which does not include the house of the gardener or that of the guard of the powder store, both of which, and each one separately, are being made four yards square. All of the houses are plastered and white-washed inside and outside. I enclose also a statement of the progress which has been made in the cultivation of wheat, together with a report of what the master black-smith, Juan Chacon, has done, and the diary of the (expedition to) the port of San Francisco.

"May God preserve the important life of Your Excellency the many years which I desire. Royal Presidio of San Carlos de Monterey, June 20, 1771. Most Excellent Sir, at the feet of Your Excellency your most attentive servant and subject.

"PEDRO FAGES. (Rubric)"

—*Ibid.*, v. 2, pp. 157-159.

1806-1846.—Russian expedition.—American consulate in Mexican California.—Attitude of the government towards Americans.—"In 1806 the first Russian ship came to the port of San Francisco, from Sitka, under the direction of Rezánof, an official of high position, who had gone to Sitka as inspector of the establishments there. His purpose at the moment was to purchase supplies for the now nearly starving colony at Sitka. Although such transactions with foreigners were forbidden to the Californians, still, after long and vain negotiations with Governor Arrillaga, and with the commandant of the presidio, Argüello, Rezánof at last gained his commercial purpose by

dint of making successful love to the beautiful daughter of Argüello, the Doña Concepcion of the well-known and highly romantic tale that has since grown up out of this incident. Rezánof was actually betrothed, in the end, to the fair young daughter: and when he set out, with his purchases made, it was under the solemn promise to return and marry his new beloved as soon as possible. He died, however, while on the way across Siberia, during his return to St. Petersburg. The story, told in several versions, and immortalized in . . . Bret Harte's best poem, has won many tears. Rezánof himself describes the affair, in his reports, as a purely business-like stroke of diplomacy, whereby he gained the decisive official help of the Argüello family. Whether he was sincere in his love or not, Doña Concepcion undoubtedly was in hers. She died, as nun, at Benicia, in 1857.

"The first Russian visit was followed, in 1812, by the founding of a Russian colony under the auspices of the Fur Company at 'Ross,' as the newcomers named their own settlement, which was on the coast, about eighteen miles above Bodega Bay, and a little north of the mouth of Russian River. Here the company built a fort, negotiated and traded with the natives, secured from the latter what the Russians later affected to consider a title to the land, and remained in the place for some thirty years, until 1841. The colony was especially useful as a trading and supply station for the Fur Company. Its inhabitants numbered, as time went on, from 150 to 400, of mixed Russian, Aleutian, and, later, California Indian blood; the force was always under the control of military officers, and was kept in strict discipline. Notwithstanding the numerous official obstacles in their way, the Russians managed to get a good deal of grain and provisions, by trade, from the Spaniards, and, later, raised some grain themselves. These supplies were sent to various Russian northern stations. But in the end the settlement proved a failure for its purposes, and was abandoned. A colony, in the strict sense, this establishment never became, and such plans of territorial acquisition as originally had to do with its foundation were never developed to any noteworthy result. The establishment excited, from the first, just indignation and considerable apprehension on the part of the Spanish authorities, and later, of the Mexican authorities; but there was never an open collision."

—J. Royce, *California*, pp. 17-10.—See also OREGON: 1741-1836.—"It is impossible to study the documents of the period without being struck by the generous concessions often made to Americans and other foreigners by the officials of the California government. Of course there were times when a temporary show of rigor toward foreigners was necessary to satisfy the demands of the supreme government of Mexico. Again, some personal matter would make the way of the foreigners in the department less smooth. But, as a rule, law and custom might bend or give way entirely at almost any point by the official courtesy of the local government. Of course the motive of personal gain often entered into the granting of such concessions, but that does not alter the facts of the case. Perhaps various motives at different times combined to affect the result, but certain it is that these motives, fused with the natural politeness of the Spanish people, often brought about an extreme of courtesy in the attitude of the Californian officials toward foreign citizens and especially toward the official representatives of other governments. This fact is amply illustrated in Larkin's dealings with the officials of California, especially in the matter of securing justice for citizens of the United

States who were traveling or residing in the department. Larkin's official activities in this respect fall under two headings that of his own judicial authority as consul and that of his influence on the proceedings of the departmental courts. His activities in trying seamen for crimes committed on shipboard have been discussed. Aside from this Larkin states, in a despatch to the State Department, that Alcaldes from every part of California send cases involving Americans to him for confirmation, sometimes even asking him to decide the case. This, he adds, he was unable to do. If Larkin's statement in this matter is strictly correct, he was offered powers of extra territoriality. However, no confirmatory evidence has been found as to how these cases were brought to him. It is possible that Governor Micheltorena, or other departmental officials to whom cases were appealed, merely talked them over with him in an informal way, asking his advice. However, with the evidence at hand, it cannot be said that the United States consul in California ever exercised powers of extra territoriality."—R. W. Kelsey, *United States consulate in California (Academy of Pacific coast history, v. 1, pp. 163-267)*.

1846.—President Polk and the conquest of California.—"It has long been charged that Polk brought on the Mexican war in order to obtain California, and also, for the same purpose, engaged in an intrigue; and these accusations have been pressed with as much zeal as if patriotism required us to prove or at all events proclaim them. Now in the first place it must be remembered that Polk was unpopular, and that anything said against an unpopular man—no matter how honorable the real facts of the case may be—is believed if it has the least show of plausibility. Secondly, the Mexican war, for reasons that have not yet been fully made known, was detested by many people, especially in New England; and any statement regarding the motive behind it was hailed as proven if calculated to make the affair odious. We should, therefore, be carefully on our guard, in approaching the subject before us, against inherited prejudices. One thing is doubtless true. Polk, as President of the United States, desired strongly to acquire California. But so did the country in general. Indeed our people were profoundly interested in the matter. As early as 1839 a congressional report on Oregon said enough about the territory farther south to excite attention; and Forbes's history of California, published the same year, did much to fix it and create the fear that European powers might encroach there. The seizure of American residents in 1840, the appearance of Dana's *Two Years Before the Mast* and the incidents connected with Jones's landing at Monterey deepened the impressions. By 1842 glowing letters from American settlers began to appear in our newspapers, and the suspected purposes of England received ample notice. Gold existed there, it was reported; the country was attractive, salubrious and rich; the port of San Francisco had a value that words could not represent, and the British already held a mortgage on the country. Our Pacific whaling fleet was said by the New Bedford member of Congress to include before the end of 1844, 650 vessels, which had cost twenty millions and employed 17,000 men; and not only was this harbor most important, since the bar at the Columbia River hampered navigation, but American control was needed there, since the uncertain and vexatious Mexican regulations caused great annoyance. Besides, it was pointed out, we required a fortified port on that coast, else in case of war with England the whalers would be unable

to avoid capture. All these ideas took root, and in the spring of 1845—about the time Polk was inaugurated—the press from New York to St. Louis and New Orleans broke into quite a furor about California. Its value was dwelt upon; that English holders of Mexican bonds had their eyes upon it was truthfully stated; the designs of the English government seemed to be made clear; and annexation was not only urged, but represented as near at hand. Our government was even in advance of the people. In 1835 an attempt was made to purchase the Bay of San Francisco. The next year Powhattan Ellis expressed the opinion that northern California would be of 'immense importance to us.' In 1842 while Daniel Webster was Secretary of State, our minister at Mexico not only expatiated on the value of the territory, but reported that England was endeavoring to forestall us, and he was instructed to ascertain whether an offer from this country would be acceptable. Our strained relations with Mexico and especially Jones's occupation of Monterey, which occurred in that year, made it unwise to follow up the matter; but after an interval Tyler and Webster planned an arrangement which, had it been carried through, would have given us the port of San Francisco. The record of England, remarks from British writers, numerous warnings received from our diplomatic and consular agents at Mexico and the consensus of opinion in California, Mexico, France and the United States were quite enough to warrant suspicions of Great Britain, and the circumstances connected with the visit of Duflot de Mofras, attaché of the French legation at Mexico, to California and the publication of his book by order of the king hinted at danger from another quarter; but neither country took any positive action, and our government—doubtless noting that a tide of emigration to the far west had begun—refrained from every move that could excite the jealousy of Mexico or Europe. In short, the sentiment of the nation and the policy of the government had for years been focussing upon California, and Polk entertained the same feeling and the same design."—J. H. Smith, *Polk and California (Massachusetts Historical Society, v. 50, p. 83-85)*.

1846-1847.—Conquest of California.—"As early as 1835 President Jackson had ordered Butler, *chargé d'affaires* in Mexico, to purchase the Bay of San Francisco as a port for the numerous United States vessels engaged in the whaling business on the Pacific coast. The price to be paid, according to one authority, was \$5,000,000. There is some indication that the proposition might have been favorably received had it not been for the opposition of the British. A few years later, when the diplomatic relations between the United States and Mexico were becoming more complicated over Texas, Commodore Thomas Catesby Jones was sent to take command of the Pacific squadron. His instructions ordered him to 'afford . . . every aid, protection and security consistent with the law of nations,' to Americans and American interests on the Pacific coast. Doubtless he also had verbal instructions from the secretary of war which were to govern his actions provided certain contingencies should arise. Anyway, under the impression that war had begun between the United States and Mexico, Jones entered the harbor of Monterey on the 10th of October, 1842, and took possession of the town. Two days later, having been convinced that the relations between his country and Mexico were peaceable, he restored the Mexican flag, withdrew his troops, fired a salute and, after a brief delay, sailed away. On March 4th, 1845, James K. Polk became President. His policy of territorial

acquisition was determined when he came into power. The minister, sent to Mexico to adjust the boundary between the United States and that country, was further authorized 'to purchase for a pecuniary consideration Upper California and New Mexico.' The amount to be paid was of secondary importance. The President thought these two territories might be had for fifteen or twenty million dollars, but he was ready to pay forty million if necessary. The relations between the two governments became even more strained during the first months of Polk's term, and in May, 1846, war began. By June the President had expressed a desire to get possession of all the territory north of the twenty-sixth degree of north latitude in the treaty of peace with Mexico. At the suggestion of Benton a regiment of volunteers was raised to go from New York to California with the understanding that they should be mustered out of service in the latter place after the war was over. According to orders sent out from Washington to Colonel Stevenson of New York City, the regiment was to consist of men of various pursuits and regular habits. The object is obvious."—C. Goodwin, *Establishment of state government in California*, pp. 15-16.—"Early in 1846, the Americans in California numbered about 200, mostly able-bodied men, and who in their activity, enterprise, and audacity, constituted quite a formidable element in this sparsely inhabited region. The population of California at this time was 6,000 Mexicans and 200,000 Indians. We now come to a period in the history of California that has never been made clear, and respecting which there are conflicting statements and opinions. The following facts were obtained by careful inquiry of intelligent parties who lived in California during the period mentioned, and who participated in the scenes narrated. The native Californians appear to have entertained no very strong affection for their own government, or, rather, they felt that under the influences at work they would inevitably, and at no very distant period, become a dismembered branch of the Mexican nation; and the matter was finally narrowed down to this contested point, namely, whether this state surgery should be performed by Americans or English, the real struggle being between these two nationalities. In the northern part of the territory, such native Californians as the Vallejos, Castros, etc., with the old American settlers, Leese, Larkin, and others, sympathized with the United States, and desired annexation to the American republic. In the south, Pio Pico, then governor of the territory, and other prominent native Californians, with James Alexander Forbes, the English consul, who settled in Santa Clara in 1828, were exerting themselves to bring the country under English domination. . . . This was the state of affairs for two or three years previous to the Mexican War. For some months before the news that hostilities between the United States and Mexico had commenced [see MEXICO: 1846-1847] reached California, the belief that such an event would certainly occur was universal throughout the territory. This quickened the impulses of all parties, and stimulated the two rivals—the American and English—in their efforts to be the first to obtain a permanent hold of the country. The United States government had sent Colonel Fremont to the Pacific on an exploring expedition. Colonel Fremont had passed through California, and was on his way to Oregon, when, in March, 1846, Lieutenant Gillespie, of the United States marine service, was sent from Washington with dispatches to Colonel Fremont. Lieutenant Gillespie went across Mexico to Mazatlan, and from thence by sea to California. He finally overtook

Fremont early in June, 1846, a short distance on the road to Oregon, and communicated to him the purport of his dispatches, they having been committed to memory and the papers destroyed before he entered Mexico. What these instructions authorized Colonel Fremont to do has never been promulgated, but it is said they directed him to remain in California, and hold himself in readiness to cooperate with the United States fleet, in case war with Mexico should occur. Fremont immediately returned to California, and camped a short time on Feather River, and then took up his headquarters at Sutter's Fort. A few days after, on Sunday, June 14th, 1846, a party of fourteen Americans, under no apparent command, appeared in Sonoma, captured the place, raised the Bear flag, proclaimed the independence of California, and carried off to Fremont's headquarters four prominent citizens, namely, the two Vallejos, J. P. Leese, and Colonel Prudhon. On the consummation of these achievements, one Merritt was elected captain. This was a rough party of revolutionists, and the manner in which they improvised the famous Bear flag shows upon what slender means nations and kingdoms are sometimes started. From an estimable old lady they obtained a fragmentary portion of her white skirt, on which they painted what was intended to represent a grizzly bear, but not being artistic in their work . . . the Mexicans, with their usual happy faculty on such occasions, called it the 'Bandera Colchis,' or 'Hog Flag.' This flag now ornaments the rooms of the Pioneer Society in San Francisco. On the 18th of June, 1846, William B. Ide, a native of New England, who had emigrated to California the year previous, issued a proclamation as commander-in-chief of the fortress of Sonoma. This proclamation declared the purpose to overthrow the existing government, and establish in its place the republican form. . . . General Castro now proposed to attack the feebly manned post at Sonoma, but he was frustrated by a rapid movement of Fremont, who, on the 4th of July, 1846, called a meeting of Americans at Sonoma; and this assembly, acting under his advice, proclaimed the independence of the country, appointed Fremont Governor, and declared war against Mexico. During these proceedings at Sonoma, a flag with one star floated over the headquarters of Fremont at Sutter's Fort. The meaning of this lone-star flag no one seems to have understood [see also BEAR FLAG WAR]. . . . Just as Fremont, with his company, had started for the coast to confront Castro, and act on the aggressive generally, he was suddenly brought to a stand by the astounding intelligence that Commodore Sloat had arrived at Monterey, and that, on the 7th of July, 1846, he had raised the American flag and taken possession of the place; also, that, by command of Commodore Sloat, Commander Montgomery, of the United States sloop-of-war *Portsmouth*, then lying in San Francisco Bay, had, on the 8th of July, taken possession of Yerba Buena and raised the American flag on the plaza. This of course settled the business for all parties. The Mexican flag and the Bear flag were lowered, and in due time, *nolens volens*, all acquiesced in the flying of the Stars and Stripes. . . . Commodore Sloat . . . had heard of the commencement of hostilities on the Rio Grande, . . . sailed from Mazatlan for California, took possession of the country and raised the American flag on his own responsibility. These decisive steps on the part of Commodore Sloat were not taken a moment too soon, as on the 14th of July the British man-of-war *Colingwood*, Sir George Seymour commanding, arrived at Monterey," intending, as Sir George ac-

knowledge, "to take possession of that portion of the country." In August, Commodore Sloat relinquished the command of the Pacific squadron to Commodore Stockton, who "immediately instituted bold and vigorous measures for the subjugation of the territory. All his available force for land operations was 350 men—sailors and marines. But so rapid and skilful were Stockton's movements, and so efficient was the coöperation of Fremont with his small troop, that California was effectually conquered in January, 1847. During all this period the people of the United States were ignorant of what was transpiring in California and vice versa. But the action of Commodore Sloat . . . and . . . Commodore Stockton . . . did but anticipate the wishes of the United States Government, which had, in June, 1846, dispatched General Kearny across the country from Fort Leavenworth [see NEW MEXICO: 1846], at the head of 1,600 men, with orders to conquer California, and when conquered to assume the governorship of the territory."—E. E. Dunbar, *Romance of the age*, pp. 29-42.—"He [General Kearny] arrived at Warner's ranch on the 2nd of December, 1846. As already indicated the conquest was deemed complete the previous August. Later developments showed, however, that so far as war affected the subjugation of California, the real struggle did not begin until September. On the 24th of that month Gillespie, whom Stockton left in command of the south with orders to maintain martial law, suddenly found that his indiscretionary measures had stirred up a revolt, which rapidly spread over the southern part of the territory. On September 30th, Gillespie was forced to accept the terms Flores offered him and withdraw from the south. Meantime the messenger sent northward by the besieged commander reached Commodore Stockton, and the latter moved southward, arriving at San Diego by November. While here he received a letter from General Kearny. To meet the General and conduct him to San Diego, Stockton sent Gillespie (Gillespie had joined Stockton at San Pedro) with thirty men. On December 6th, after the union of these troops with Kearny's, the battle of San Pascual was fought, an engagement that came near proving disastrous to the Americans. A few other minor skirmishes resulted in the triumph of the American cause, and on the 10th of January, 1847, the stars and stripes were permanently raised at Los Angeles."—C. Goodwin, *Establishment of state government in California*, p. 16.

Also in: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 17 (*California*, v. 5), ch. 1-16.—J. C. Fremont, *Memoirs of my life*, v. 1, ch. 14-15.—J. H. Smith, *War with Mexico*.

1848.—Cession to the United States. See MEXICO: 1848.

1848-1849.—Discovery of gold and the immigration of the gold-hunters.—"In the summer of 1847 the American residents of California, numbering perhaps 2,000, and mostly established near San Francisco Bay, looked forward with hope and confidence to the future. Their government held secure possession of the whole territory, and had announced its purpose to hold it permanently. . . . It so happened that at this time one of the leading representatives of American interests in California was John A. Sutter, a Swiss by his parentage; a German by the place of his birth in Baden; an American by residence and naturalization in Missouri; and a Mexican by subsequent residence and naturalization in California. In 1839 he had settled at the junction of the Sacramento and American rivers, near the site of the present city of Sacramento." His rancho became known as Sutter's

Fort. In the summer of 1847 he planned the building of a flour-mill, and "partly to get lumber for it, he determined to build a saw-mill also. Since there was no good timber in the valley, the saw-mill must be in the mountains. The site for it was selected by James W. Marshall, a native of New Jersey, a skilful wheelwright by occupation, industrious, honest, generous, but 'cranky,' full of wild fancies, and defective in some kinds of business sense. . . . The place for his mill was in the small valley of Coloma, 1,500 feet above the level of the sea, and 45 miles from Sutter's Fort, from which it was accessible by wagon without expense for roadmaking." Early in 1848 the saw-mill was nearly completed; "the water had been turned into the race to carry away some of the loose dirt and gravel, and then had been turned off again. On the afternoon of Monday, the 24th of January, Marshall was walking in the tail-race, when on its rotten granite bed-rock he saw some yellow particles and picked up several of them. The largest were about the size of grains of wheat. . . . He thought they were gold, and went to the mill, where he told the men that he had found a gold mine. At the time, little importance was attached to his statement. It was regarded as a proper subject for ridicule. Marshall hammered his new metal and found it malleable; he put it into the kitchen fire, and observed that it did not readily melt or become discolored; he compared its color with gold coin; and the more he examined it the more he was convinced that it was gold." He soon found an opportunity to show his discovery to Sutter, who tested the metal with acid and by careful weighing, and satisfied himself that Marshall's conclusion was correct. "In the spring of 1848 San Francisco, a village of about 700 inhabitants, had two newspapers, the 'Californian' and the 'California Star,' both weeklies. The first printed mention of the gold discovery was a short paragraph in the former, under date of the 15th of March, stating that a gold mine had been found at Sutter's Mill, and that a package of the metal worth \$30 had been received at New Helvetia. . . . Before the middle of June the whole territory resounded with the cry of 'gold!' . . . Nearly all the men hurried off to the mines. Workshops, stores, dwellings, wives, and even ripe fields of grain, were left for a time to take care of themselves. . . . The reports of the discovery, which began to reach the Atlantic States in September, 1848, commanded little credence there before January; but the news of the arrival of large amounts of gold at Mazatlan, Valparaiso, Panama, and New York, in the latter part of the winter, put an end to all doubt, and in the spring there was such a rush of peaceful migration as the world had never seen. In 1849, 25,000—according to one authority 50,000—immigrants went by land, and 23,000 by sea from the region east of the Rocky Mountains, and by sea perhaps 40,000 from other parts of the world. . . . The gold yield of 1848 was estimated at \$5,000,000; that of 1849 at \$23,000,000; that of 1850 at \$50,000,000; that of 1853 at \$65,000,000; and then came the decline which has continued until the present time [1890] when the yield is about \$12,000,000."—J. S. Hittell, *Discovery of gold in California* (*Century Magazine*, Feb., 1891).—The gold output for 1918 was valued at \$16,520,162.

Also in: E. E. Dunbar, *Romance of the age, or the discovery of gold in California*.—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 18 (*California*, v. 6) ch. 2-4.

1848-1849.—Trouble over water rights. See RIPARIAN RIGHTS: Theories of water law.

1849.—**Constitutional convention.—Origin of the constitution.**—“On the third day of the session, Wednesday, September 5th, McCarver offered a resolution that the Convention resolve itself into a committee of the whole and take the constitution of Iowa into consideration as a basis for that of California. He was immediately followed by Gwin, who explained that he had exerted himself to have a printing press there, but found it impracticable. After consulting with various members of the Convention, he had done the next best thing; he had provided copies of the constitution of Iowa so that each member might have one and write in the margin any amendments which should occur to him. He had selected that particular constitution because it was one of the latest and shortest. Sherwood thought there would be enough to do in discussing propositions consolidated by a committee without bringing the whole of any single constitution before the entire convention. Furthermore he opposed following any single state constitution; ‘It was desirable to have the cream of the whole—the best material of the constitution of the thirty states.’ This was also Gilbert’s opinion. He opposed adopting any one constitution as a basis unless it came through the hands of the Committee. The best thing to do would be to let the Committee ‘take all the constitutions and report what they deemed best.’ It was a mere matter of convenience, Gwin explained. ‘He wanted nothing better than to form a constitution from the thirty constitutions of the Union.’ He had lived in three of the old states and had carefully examined all the state constitutions. He preferred the constitution of Iowa to that of any other. No vote seems to have been taken on McCarver’s resolution, but doubtless the Committee on the Constitution made use of the various copies of the Iowa constitution prepared by Gwin. That they also used other constitutions appears equally true. Certainly they did not pretend to originate one. The document completed at Monterey was practically a compilation of articles and sections from other state constitutions. The suggestions of Sherwood and Gilbert appear to have been adopted, but the labors of Gwin were not exercised in vain as we shall see.

“The Convention was admirably suited for compiling just such a document as it finally submitted. Thirty-eight of the forty-eight delegates had been citizens of twenty-one different states in the Union. Of the total number fourteen were lawyers who were natives of eleven of the twenty-one states represented. Of the twenty members of the Committee on the Constitution five were lawyers, two of whom came from New York, and one each from Missouri, Wisconsin, and Vermont. Gwin had taken part in the convention that drew up the constitution of Iowa in 1846, and came to Monterey supplied with printed copies of that document which, it has been said, he hoped to have the Convention adopt, after introducing slight changes, as the constitution for the new state of California. While the Convention did not adopt the Constitution of Iowa, the one completed resembled that document more than any other. There are, however, traces of half a dozen different state constitutions in the California constitution of 1849, and references show that the constitutions of the thirty states of the Union were doubtless available and that they were probably used. Both Ord and Tefft, during the first week of the Convention, while the bill of rights was under discussion, imply that they had used them. The former says distinctly that he ‘had looked over the whole thirty constitutions.’ On September 8th Shannon pro-

posed two additional sections to be placed at the beginning of the bill of rights. In connection with these, he said that he ‘had carefully examined the constitutions of the different states’ before making his selection. And during the third week of the Convention, September 25th, Halleck states clearly that the Committee appointed to draw up the constitution was doing its work with the constitutions of every state in the Union before it. There can be little doubt therefore, that the Convention that drew up the constitution of California had available for making their compilation the constitutions of practically all the states in the Union.”—C. Goodwin, *State government in California*, pp. 230-231.

1850.—**Admission to Union as a free state.—The Compromise.** See U. S. A.: 1850 (April-September).

1856.—**San Francisco vigilance committee.**—“The association of citizens known as the vigilance committee, which was organized in San Francisco on the 15th of May, 1856, has had such an influence on the growth and prosperity of that city that now [1877], at the end of 21 years, a true account of the origin and subsequent action of that association will be read with interest. For some time the corruption in the courts of law, the insecurity of the ballot-box at elections, and the infamous character of many of the public officials, had been the subject of complaint, not only in San Francisco, but throughout the State of California. It was evident to the honest and respectable citizens of San Francisco that . . . it would become the duty of the people to protect themselves by reforming the courts of law, and by taking the ballot-box from the hands of greedy and unprincipled politicians.” The latter were represented by a newspaper called the *Sunday Times*, edited by one James P. Casey. The opinion of the better classes of citizens was voiced by the *Evening Bulletin*, whose editor was James King. On May 14, 1856, King was shot by Casey, in the public street, receiving a wound from which he died six days later, and intense excitement of feeling in the city was produced. Casey surrendered himself and was lodged in jail. During the evening of the 14th some of the members of a vigilance committee which had been formed in 1851, and which had then checked a free riot of crime in the suddenly populated and unorganized city, by trying and executing a few desperadoes, came together and determined the organization of another committee for the same purpose. “The next day (the 15th) a set of rules and regulations were drawn up which each member was obliged to sign. The committee took spacious rooms, and all citizens of San Francisco having the welfare of the city at heart were invited to join the association. Several thousands enrolled themselves in a few days. . . . The members of the vigilance committee were divided into companies of 100, each company having a captain. Early on Sunday (the 18th) orders were sent to the different captains to appear with their companies ready for duty at the headquarters of the committee, in Sacramento Street, at nine o’clock. When all the companies had arrived, they were formed into one body, in all about 2,000 men. Sixty picked men were selected as a guard for the executive committee. At half-past eleven the whole force moved in the direction of the jail. A large number of spectators had collected, but there was no confusion, no noise. They marched through the city to Broadway, and there formed in the open space before the jail. . . . The houses opposite the jail were searched for men and arms secreted there, the committee wishing to prevent any chance of a

collision which might lead to bloodshed. A cannon was then brought forward and placed in front of the jail, the muzzle pointed at the door." The jailer was now called upon to deliver Casey to the committee, and complied, being unable to resist. One Charles Cora, who had killed a United States marshal the November previous, was taken from the jail at the same time. The two prisoners were escorted to the quarters of the vigilance committee and there confined under guard. Two days afterwards (May 20) Mr. King died. Casey and Cora were put on trial before a tribunal which the committee had organized, were condemned to death, and were hanged, with solemnity, on the 22d, from a platform erected in front of the building on Sacramento street. "The executive committee, finding that the power they held was perfectly under control, and that there was no danger of any popular excesses, determined to continue their work and rid the country of the gang of ruffians which had for so long a time managed elections in San Francisco and its vicinity. These men were all well known, and were ordered to leave San Francisco. Many went away. Those who refused to go were arrested and taken to the rooms of the committee, where they were confined until opportunities offered for shipping them out of the country. . . . The governor of California at this time was Mr. J. Neely Johnson. . . . The major-general of the second division of state militia (which included the city and county of San Francisco) was Mr. William T. Sherman [afterwards well known in the world as General Sherman] who had resigned his commission in the United States army and had become a partner in the banking house of Lucas, Turner & Co., in San Francisco. . . . Toward the end of May, Governor Johnson . . . appealed to General Sherman for advice and assistance in putting a stop to the vigilance committee. At this time General Wool was in command of the United States troops, and Commodore Farragut had charge of the navy yard." General Wool was applied to for arms, and Commodore Fairagut was asked to station a vessel of war at anchor off San Francisco. Both officers declined to act as requested, having no authority to do so. "When Governor Johnson returned to Sacramento, a writ was issued, at his request, by Judge Terry of the supreme court, commanding the sheriff of San Francisco to bring before him one William Mulligan, who was then in the hands of the vigilance committee." The vigilance committee refused to surrender their prisoner to the sheriff, and General Sherman was ordered to call out the militia of his division to support that officer. At the same time the governor issued a proclamation declaring the city of San Francisco in a state of insurrection. General Sherman found it impossible to arm his militia for service, and resigned the command. The governor sought and obtained arms elsewhere; but the schooner which brought them was seized and the arms possessed by the committee. On attempting to arrest the person who had charge of the schooner, one of the vigilance committee's policemen, named Hopkins, was stabbed by the afterwards notorious Judge Terry, who, with some others, had undertaken to protect the man. "The signal for a general meeting under arms was sounded, and in a short time 1,500 men were reported ready for duty. In an hour 4,000 men were under arms and prepared to act against the so-called law-and-order party, who were collected in force at the different armories. These armories were surrounded." Judge Terry was demanded and delivered up, and all the arms and ammunition in the armories were removed. "In this way

was settled the question of power between the vigilance committee, who wished to restore order and were working to establish an honest judiciary and a pure ballot, and their opponents, the law-and-order party, who wished to uphold the dignity of the law by means of a butcher's knife in the hands of a judge of the supreme court. Although the committee were masters in San Francisco, their position was made more precarious by the very fact of their having disarmed their opponents. The attention of the whole Union was attracted to the state of things in California, and it was rumored that instructions had been sent from Washington to all the United States vessels in the Pacific to proceed at once to San Francisco; and that orders were on the way, placing the United States military force in California at the disposal of Governor Johnson. The committee went on steadily with their work. . . . All the important changes which they had undertaken had been carried out successfully, and they would gladly have given up the responsibility they had assumed had it not been for the case of Judge Terry. . . . At last the physicians announced that Hopkins was out of danger, and on the 7th of August Judge Terry was released. . . . Having got rid of Judge Terry the committee prepared to bring their labours to a close, and on the 18th of August the whole association, numbering over 5,000 men, after marching through the principal streets of San Francisco, returned to their headquarters in Sacramento Street, where after delivering up their arms they were relieved from duty. . . . In the following November there was an election of city and county officers. Every thing went off very quietly. A 'people's ticket', bearing the names of thoroughly trustworthy citizens, irrespective of party, was elected by a large majority, and for the last 20 years San Francisco has had the reputation of being one of the best governed cities in the United States."—T. G. Cary, *San Francisco vigilance committee* (*Atlantic Monthly*, Dec. 1877).

ALSO IN: H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 18 (*California*, v. 6), ch. 25.—W. T. Sherman, *Memoirs*, v. 1, ch. 4.—P. Garnett, *Papers of the San Francisco committee of vigilance of 1851* (*Academy of Pacific Coast History*, v. 2, pp. 123-139).

1860-1861.—Communication with the East. See PONY EXPRESS.

1861.—Attitude toward the Civil War.—"The record of all the California troops, in fact, is one of which her sons and daughters can well be proud. In northern California the First Battalion of Mountaineers kept down the hostile Indians. The Second Cavalry guarded the Overland mail route in Utah, and kept down the Snake and Shoshone Indians. Part of the Third Infantry, sent to Humboldt county, settled Indian troubles there. And Colonel Connor, sent with his regiment to Salt Lake City, kept the Mormons from causing the Union trouble. The California 'Hundred' and 'Battalion' troops raised in California, which became a part of the Second Massachusetts Cavalry, left a brave record after them in their active service in the East. And the troops stationed throughout California during the entire war, rendered great service to the State, and to the Union in keeping down secessionists at home. To sum up the work of the Pacific Coast troops, and especially of the California troops, in the words of Bancroft: "The population of the whole Pacific Coast, including Utah and Colorado, was not equal to one-fourth of the single State of Pennsylvania. Yet to the volunteers of this sparse population was entrusted the labor of awing avowed secession at home, guarding against foreign

interference and fighting numerous Indians from Oregon in New Mexico.' In conclusion, we may say that the loyal attitude which California as a State took towards the Civil War, although a profound disappointment to the Confederacy, had a powerful effect upon the whole country. Nothing could have been more opportune or more effective. Although the furthest off of all the states, the heartiness and readiness with which California responded to all requisitions made on her, her unhesitating and determined language in reference to the Union cause, the important services rendered by California troops,—in short, her whole attitude to the Civil War was as praiseworthy and of as much value to the Union as that of many a Northern State closer to the scene of action. . . . Throughout the winter of 1860-61, the establishment of a Pacific Republic was talked about in a threatening manner. And when the Southern States seceded and the Civil War had actually begun, and it became evident that California could not by any possibility be carried over to join the seceded states, an extra effort was made to have California assume an attitude of neutrality between the North and South, although this meant, of course, resistance to Lincoln's administration, and virtual secession. The inside workings of the conspiracy to form a Pacific Republic, however, were not divulged. It is known that the 'Knights of the Golden Circle,' one of the secret pro-slavery organizations, helped carry on the idea. And enough came to be known of this movement at Washington to cause the President to recall Brigadier-General A. S. Johnston (a Southern man with pronounced sympathy for the Pacific), and to dispatch General Sumner to relieve him (April 25, 1861). Overt acts on the part of advocates of a Pacific Republic were few and inconsequential—due usually to individual enthusiasm. A Pacific Republic flag was hoisted on board a surveying schooner at Stockton, January 16, 1861, creating much excitement and demonstrating the fact that 'it was not safe to trifle with the loyal sentiment of the people.' The *Alta California* in commenting on this fiasco said, 'A few dozen men, all of them repudiated as leaders by the public opinion of the street, and most of them unknown and without influence, will hardly succeed in establishing a Pacific Republic! Any fool can buy a flag and burn powder.' In San Francisco, the palmetto flag was raised in February and hauled down. In May, the Bear Flag was raised at Los Angeles, and also for a short time, at Sonoma and San Bernardino. Rumors were afloat that the presidio and fort on Alcatraz island would be captured, and the custom house, mint, post-office, and all United States property, after which the rebels would proceed to invade Sonora and add that territory to the Pacific Republic. If such a plot there was, it was revealed and nothing came of it."—*Historical Society of Southern California publications*, p. 130.

1877-1880.—Denis Kearney and the Sand Lot party.—New state constitution.—"Late in 1877 a meeting was called in San Francisco to express sympathy with the men then on strike at Pittsburg in Pennsylvania. . . . Some strong language used at this meeting, and exaggerated by the newspapers, frightened the business men into forming a sort of committee of public safety. . . . The chief result of the incident was further irritation of the poorer classes, who perceived that the rich were afraid of them, and therefore disposed to deal harshly with them. Shortly after came an election of municipal officers and members of the State legislature. The contest, as is the custom in America, brought into life a number of clubs and

other organizations, purporting to represent various parties or sections of a party, and among others a body calling itself 'The Working men's Trade and Labor Union,' the Secretary of which was a certain Denis Kearney. When the election was over, Kearney declared that he would keep his union going, and form a working man's party. He was a drayman by trade, Irish by birth, brought up a Roman Catholic, but accustomed to include his religion among the established institutions he reviled. He had borne a good character for industry and steadiness till some friend 'put him into stocks,' and the loss of what he hoped to gain is said to have first turned him to agitation. He had gained some faculty in speaking by practice at a Sunday debating club called the Lyceum of Self Culture. . . . Kearney's tongue, loud and abusive, soon gathered an audience. On the west side of San Francisco, as you cross the peninsula from the harbor towards the ocean, there is (or then was) a large open space, laid out for building, but not yet built on, covered with sand, and hence called the Sand Lot. Here the mob had been wont to gather for meetings; here Kearney formed his party. At first he had merely vagabonds to listen, but one of the two great newspapers took him up. These two, the *Chronicle* and the *Morning Call*, were in keen rivalry, and the former seeing in this new movement a chance of going ahead, filling its columns with sensational matter and increasing its sale among working men, went in hot and strong for the Sand Lot party. . . . The advertisement which the *Chronicle* gave him by its reports and articles, and which he repaid by advising working men to take it, soon made him a personage; and his position was finally assured by his being, along with several other speakers, arrested and prosecuted on a charge of riot, in respect of inflammatory speeches delivered at a meeting on the top of Nob Hill, one of the steep heights which make San Francisco the most picturesque of American cities. The prosecution failed, and Kearney was a popular hero. Clerks and the better class of citizens now began to attend his meetings, though many went from mere curiosity, as they would have gone to a circus; the W. P. C. (Working man's Party of California) was organized as a regular party, embracing the whole State of California, with Kearney for its President. . . . The Sand Lot party drew its support chiefly from the Democrats. . . . hence its rise was not unwelcome to the Republicans, because it promised to divide and weaken their old opponents; while the Democrats, hoping ultimately to capture it, gave a feeble resistance. Thus it grew the faster, and soon began to run a ticket of its own at city and State elections. It carried most of the city offices, and when the question was submitted to the people whether a new Constitution should be framed for California, it threw its vote in favor of having one and prevailed. . . . Next came, in the summer of 1878, the choice of delegates to the convention which was to frame the new Constitution. The Working man's Party obtained a substantial representation in the convention, but its nominees were ignorant men, without experience or constructive ideas. . . . However the working men's delegates, together with the more numerous and less corruptible delegates of the farmers, got their way in many things and produced that surprising instrument by which California is now (with amendments) governed. . . . 1. It restricts and limits in every possible way the powers of the State legislature, leaving it little authority except to carry out by statutes the provisions of the Constitution. It makes 'lobbying,' i. e., the attempt to

corrupt a legislator, and the corrupt action of a legislator, felony. 2. It forbids the State legislature or local authorities to incur debts beyond a certain limit, taxes uncultivated land equally with cultivated, makes sums due on mortgage taxable in the district where the mortgaged property lies, authorizes an income tax, and directs a highly inquisitorial scrutiny of everybody's property for the purposes of taxation. 3. It forbids the 'watering of stock,' declares that the State has power to prevent corporations from conducting their business so as to 'infringe the general well-being of the State'; directs the charges of telegraph and gas companies, and of water-supplying bodies, to be regulated and limited by law; institutes a railroad commission with power to fix the transportation rates on all railroads and examine the books and accounts of all transportation companies. 4. It forbids all corporations to employ any Chinese, debars them from the suffrage, forbids their employment on any public works, annuls all contracts for 'coolie labour,' directs the legislature to provide for the punishment of any company which shall import Chinese, to impose conditions on the residence of Chinese, and to cause their removal if they fail to observe these conditions. It also declares that eight hours shall constitute a legal day's work on all public works. When the Constitution came to be submitted to the vote of the people, in May 1879, it was vehemently opposed by the monied men. . . . The struggle was severe, but the Granger party commanded so many rural votes, and the Sand Lot party so many in San Francisco (whose population was nearly a third of that of the entire State) that the Constitution was carried, though by a small majority, only 11,000 out of a total of 145,000 citizens voting. . . . The next thing was to choose a legislature to carry out the Constitution. Had the same influences prevailed in this election as prevailed in that of the Constitutional Convention, the results might have been serious. But fortunately there was a slight reaction. . . . A series of statutes was passed which gave effect to the provisions of the Constitution in a form perhaps as little harmful as could be contrived, and certainly less harmful than had been feared when the Constitution was put to the vote. Many bad bills, particularly those aimed at the Chinese, were defeated, and one may say generally that the expectations of the Sand Lot men were grievously disappointed. While all this was passing, Kearney had more and more declined in fame and power. He did not sit either in the Constitutional Convention or in the legislature of 1880. The mob had tired of his harangues, especially as little seemed to come of them, and as the candidates of the W. P. C. had behaved no better in office than those of the old parties. He had quarreled with the Chronicle. He was, moreover, quite unfitted by knowledge or training to argue the legal, economical, and political questions involved in the new Constitution so that the prominence of these questions threw him into the background. . . . Since 1880 he has played no part in Californian politics."—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, v. 2, ch. 90, and *app. to v. 1 (containing the text of the Constitution of California)*.

1882.—Immigration act. See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1864-1920.

1891.—Arbitration board created. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: United States: 1886-1920.

1894.—International mid-winter exposition in San Francisco.

1900.—Industrial development in the early twentieth century.—"In pre-American days the

chief and in fact the only industry was the production of hides and tallow. Hundreds of thousands of cattle grazed the hills, receiving practically no care and worthless for meat, but yielding vast quantities of hides and tallow. These were disposed of to the American trading vessels. Only enough planting and cultivating was done to sustain the inhabitants. The mission and pueblo lands were the centers of this limited agricultural development, the ranches being smaller oases in the otherwise desert country. Incoming foreigners began production on a larger scale. Sutter in 1840 started an extensive agricultural development in the Sacramento Valley. With the increasing difficulty of obtaining gold when surface mining passed, more and more men turned to agriculture, which promised large returns at the then current prices. By 1854 the state had become practically self-supporting so far as foodstuffs were concerned. This was for the most part in the line of staple cereals and garden truck. While orchards and vineyards were early understood to be a possibility, the rather indifferent success at the missions with both oranges and grapes had discouraged any large effort in that direction. In the later fifties, however, began a widespread experimentation in what could be done in California. Every country in the world was levied upon for seeds and experience. The climatic conditions were ideal; the ground fairly level and in many instances ready for the plow; the farmers of the state boldly experimented in every direction. It was soon discovered that wheat could be raised in the great interior valleys which had hitherto been condemned as arid. This discovery gave a tremendous impetus to agricultural development in all parts of the state. But it was found that for other products than the grains, water in addition to the annual rainfall was a necessity. This difficulty was overcome by irrigation. Once introduced, the use of this method of watering spread rapidly. It had been used in a small way at the missions but never much developed. In 1871 the great San Joaquin and Kings River canal was commenced. When finished this canal was seventy miles long and carried water to 190,000 acres of land. Many such irrigating canals have since been built, the most noted system being that in the Imperial Valley which carries the waters of the Colorado River to thousands of acres of land. Irrigation projects are constantly in course of construction in all parts of the state. . . . The cereals are the great staple product of California. They are grown in all parts of the state under the process known as "dry-farming," without irrigation. . . . A more recent crop is alfalfa. It has been extensively planted of late years especially in the irrigated districts of the southern part of the state. . . . Gardening became prominent during the first reaction from the gold excitement. The high prices prevalent during the early fifties led many into it with a consequent lowering of the price level. There was still a large yield, however, and the recent growth of the large cities has caused the acreage given over to truck farming to increase steadily. Cotton was first planted in 1865, but was confined to a small area in Merced and Kern counties. . . . Fruit and grapes are among the greatest of California products. The yield per acre is about twice that of other countries. . . . Oranges and lemons are by far the best known crops of California. These fruits were first planted by the missionaries, but they never met with much success in their cultivation. The real development of the modern orange industry began in 1873 with the introduction of two seedless orange trees from Brazil. . . . All parts of the

world have been levied upon to furnish varieties of grapes, and all varieties flourish in California. . . . [See also AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1886-1910.] Cattle-raising was an important industry in the early days but later declined to an adjunct of ranching. Latterly the cultivation of pasture has been introduced and cattle are raised more and more for dairying instead of for their hides. There are still many thousand head upon the ranges of the more mountainous districts. California horses, while not raised in great numbers, are among the finest in the country. The raising of sheep for wool was introduced by Americans in 1853 and has since become an important industry. Hogs are raised on the tule lands of the San Joaquin and Sacramento Valleys and of late years on the irrigated lands of the Imperial Valley, where they are allowed to run loose in immense fields of alfalfa and barley. Poultry-raising has never assumed a very prominent place though it is at present on the increase. . . . In the northern part of the state the production of lumber is an important industry. The red-wood and sequoia forests have furnished millions of feet. . . . Other native growths are the Douglas fir, the sugar pine, and the Oregon pine. In the south planting of eucalyptus has received much attention in recent years. It takes from six to ten years to grow a tree of marketable size, and after cutting new trunks will spring from the same stump. The principal use of this wood in the past has been for firewood but it is now used to some extent for furniture and cabinet work. Ever since the gold days California has retained her pre-eminent position in the production of the precious metals. Up to the year 1910 she had added over two billion dollars to the world's gold supply. She has also been a large producer of silver. All the quicksilver produced in the United States comes from this state and one mine in Oregon. Iron ore is present in large quantities in various parts of the state. . . . There is a small output of copper, borax and salt. Coal is mined in several of the coast counties but not in large quantities. Oil promises to become the most important mineral product of the state if the recent enormous development is continued. The first attempts to secure oil were made by Andres Pico in Pico Cañon near Los Angeles in 1856. But the real growth of the industry has taken place in the last twenty years and in 1907 the production exceeded that of gold for that year. Los Angeles county was for many years the chief producer but is now giving way before Kern and Fresno counties in the San Joaquin Valley. California oil differs in general from the eastern product in that it has an asphaltum instead of a paraffin base. It is not good for illuminating, nor where rapid combustion is necessary as in automobile engines. It is, however, a splendid fuel and is extensively used not only in the household but almost exclusively in locomotives and steamships. . . . Manufacturing development has been much hampered by the scarcity of raw materials and the extremely high cost of labor. Fuel has also been difficult to obtain in the past but the recent development of petroleum and the utilization of water power for the generation of electricity have overcome this obstacle. The first manufacturing enterprises arose from the need of repairs to machinery and equipment during the mining days. Special needs at the mines developed local industries and the general growth of the country led to the establishment of larger manufactories in and about San Francisco. The large production of wheat has resulted in the erection of mills, which

export most of their product. The Civil War gave an added impulse to California manufactures. It caused a large immigration to the Pacific Coast and influenced many people to remain here who otherwise would have returned to the East. By cutting off other sources of supply it greatly increased the demand for local products. This new impulse centered in San Francisco and gave that city a lead in manufactures which it has since maintained. One of her shipyards has constructed eight vessels for the United States navy. The present [1913] outlook for manufacturers is of the brightest. The rapidly increasing population is creating a large home market. To this is added the force of the local sentiment in favor of using home products wherever possible. The large acreage which has within the last few years been planted to eucalyptus promises to remedy in time the lack of hard and elastic woods. The 'homeseeker' immigration is bringing in more and more laborers. . . . With more and cheaper labor, and a large and growing home market, the manufactures of California will soon surpass in value both the mineral and agricultural products.

"The first foreign commerce of California was represented by the supply ships from Mexico. After these came the trading and smuggling vessels, and barter with the Russians in the north. The gold rush with its high prices became a magnet for the surplus goods of the entire world. Anything was considered good enough to send to California. Hundreds of vessels sailed into San Francisco harbor with absurd and unusable cargoes which were left to rot on the wharves. Many of the ships were never even unloaded for they were without a single deckhand within a few hours after arriving. The high prices sent up the cost of doing business to almost prohibitive figures. The few warehouses were quickly filled. Auction sales were the only remedy, and goods sold for little or nothing in huge quantities. The result was failure after failure which brought on a widespread commercial panic. The gold rush of course practically put an end to what little export trade there was for the time being. The vast herds of cattle which had formerly been raised for their hides and tallow only, suddenly became extremely valuable for their meagre supply of meat. California was wholly unable to support the enormous numbers of newcomers and great quantities of foodstuffs were imported for several years. Most of the imports came by sea. The completion of the Central Pacific or other railroads has never decreased the volume of this traffic. The increase in population has been sufficient to keep it on the increase. . . .

"More than one half of the people of California live in the cities about San Francisco Bay, Los Angeles, San Diego, and Sacramento. While the development of the agricultural districts of the state has been phenomenal, the greatest growth in population [since 1880] has been in these centers. This may be ascribed in part to the tendency toward city life which is perceptible all over the country but in greater measure to the development of California's commercial side as distinguished from the increase of production. In order to understand the California of today it is desirable therefore to review the growth of the cities. There are a number of smaller cities which are worthy of mention but to which much space cannot be given here. El Centro is the growing center of the great Imperial Valley in the southern orange-growing districts. San Bernardino is a large interior railroad center. Pasadena is one of the most beautiful residence cities in the world. Bakersfield, the

largest city in the great oilfields of the San Joaquin Valley, is one of the busiest cities in the state. Fresno is the center of a vast fertile agricultural area. Stockton and Marysville are the interior distributing centers for the river traffic of California's two great rivers. San Jose is the commercial center of the beautiful and exceedingly fertile Santa Clara Valley. Eureka, on Humboldt Bay in the northern part of the state, is one of the largest lumber shipping ports in the world."—H. K. Norton, *Story of California*, pp. 333-345.—See also EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL: Statistics of agricultural colleges; BEET SUGAR; and U. S. A.: Economic map.

1900-1920.—Japanese question.—“Anti-Japanese agitation in California has been virtually constant since 1900, in which year Japanese immigration, which totalled only 2844 in 1899, suddenly leaped to the alarming total of 12,635. But it was in 1907, when Japanese immigration reached the staggering figure of 30,645, that Californians began to feel the full import of the Asiatic flood. Since that time the story of the Japanese in California has grown increasingly serious. Let us summarize the history of these fifteen years, indicating the year-to-year change in the number of Japanese immigrants entering the United States (about four fifths of whom, it is estimated, live in California), suggesting the activities of the Japanese in California, stating the reaction of Californians in general agitation, municipal regulations, and state legislation, together with a record of Federal action. Such a summary may best be made chronologically. The period of 1900-1905 may be roughly described as a period of general awakening to the seriousness of the problem. Until 1900, Japanese immigration had not attained menacing proportions. In 1882 only five Japanese entered this country. Not until 1891 did the figure pass 1000. When 12,635 Japanese came in 1900, California began to sense danger. For the five years following, general agitation, mass-meeting protests, and demands for restrictions upon Japanese immigration were the order of the day. In 1905 the agitation began to express itself more concretely. In that year the Asiatic Exclusion League was organized. Its particular purpose was to urge the extension of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 to apply to the Japanese. It was about this time also that the San Francisco Board of Education issued an order segregating Asiatic students from white students, placing the Asiatic children in schools of their own. At this time the initiating force in the anti-Japanese agitation was union-labor, which resented Asiatic competition. It was a labor-unionist mayor and an anti-Japanese school board appointed by him who were responsible for this segregation order and for the ‘Jim Crow’ schools for Japanese [see also RACE PROBLEMS: 1904-1909]. There were 11,021 Japanese arrivals in the United States in 1905. The period of 1905-1907 was marked by a rapid increase in Japanese immigration; 14,243 Japanese arrived in 1906, and 30,645 in 1907. . . . Two specific moves were made by the Federal Government in 1907. First, President Roosevelt, having been empowered by Congress to act, issued an executive order under which ‘Japanese or Korean laborers, skilled and unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, and come therefrom’ were to be denied admission to the United States. This was to checkmate the many Japanese who were getting into the United States in these round-about ways. Second, the American and Japanese governments arrived at the ‘Gentlemen’s Agreement.’ This agreement was not made in the form of a treaty, resting rather upon a number of in-

formal notes which passed between our State Department and the Japanese ambassador at the time. Under this agreement the Japanese Government pledged itself to refuse passports to Japanese laborers desiring to come to the United States, but the agreement did not forbid the entrance into the United States of Japanese who were (1) former residents in the United States, (2) parents, wives, or children of residents, (3) settled agriculturists, (4) transients who could be classified as non-laborers. The idea of the American Government was to restrict Japanese immigration, as we had restricted Chinese immigration, to travelers, teachers, students, scientists, trades-folk, and the like. The Japanese Government, by concurrence in the agreement, avoided a Federal exclusion law such as applied to Chinese. . . . The year following the conclusion of this agreement, Japanese immigration dropped from 30,645 to 18,238, and in 1909 it dropped still further to 3295. . . . During the period of 1909-1913 . . . Japanese immigration began to swell again. Japanese came in increasing numbers: 4125 in 1910; 6441 in 1911; 8580 in 1912; 11,672 in 1913. . . . The agreement had not resulted in more than a passing reduction of Japanese incomers. Charges flew thick and fast that the Japanese were evading the terms of the agreement. These charges were probably false,—to a great degree, at any rate,—and whatever of truth there may have been in the charges was bent to the services of the Jingo element. The trouble lay not in the infraction of the ‘Gentlemen’s Agreement,’ but in its inadequacy. At the time the agreement was concluded California’s great fear was a union-labor fear of Japanese laborers. By 1913 California’s fear had become a farmer fear of Japanese landowners, for, by the terms of the agreement, farmers as distinguished from farm-laborers did not come under the ban. Whereas earlier Japanese immigrants had ‘hired out’ to work under white employers on railroads, fruit-ranches, truck-farms, and in lumber-mills, mines, and canneries, the later Japanese immigrants had begun to buy up lands, whole districts being turned into Japanese agricultural colonies. To strike at this menace, California passed the Heney-Webb land law in 1913. This law prohibited the purchase and ownership of land by any alien ‘ineligible to citizenship’ and, to such, limited the right to lease land to three years. This covered the Japanese, at whom it was aimed, since our citizenship laws recognize white men and ‘Africans’ as eligible to citizenship, but do not mention ‘Mongolians.’ This law was easily evaded by the Japanese in two ways: first, Japanese parents, who were themselves ineligible to land-ownership, contrived to reap all the benefits of ownership by deeding land to their children who had been born in this country, and were therefore citizens and eligible to land-ownership, and then assuming guardianship of the children; second, Japanese evaded the restriction of leases to three years by taking stock in corporations that could legally lease land for unrestricted periods [see also RACE PROBLEMS: 1913-1921]. It is the land situation that has brought the Japanese question in California to the present inflamed state. There are 27,931,444 acres of farm-land in California. Of this, 11,389,804 acres are improved; 3,803,500 acres of this improved part are irrigated. Japanese land holdings are mostly in this irrigated part; 623,752 good acres are in the hands of Orientals—Japanese, Chinese, and Hindus. The total acreage operated by the Japanese is 458,056, of which 74,700 acres are owned, and about 383,287 acres are under lease or crop contract.”—G. Frank, *Century Magazine*,

Dec., 1920, pp. 280-283.—See also IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1920-1921; JAPAN: 1918-1921: As third of the great world powers; U. S. A.: 1910-1921.

20th century.—Prison reform. See PRISON REFORM: Results of prison reform movement.

20th century.—Coöperative societies. See COÖPERATION: United States.

1900-1909.—Constitutional changes.—“Amendments to the state constitution originate with the legislature, and are placed before the voters of the state at the biennial state elections. Dissatisfaction with parts of the state constitution is manifested by an increasing number of proposed amendments. So long as property interests are not antagonized, the voters show a willingness to make changes by ratifying a large majority of the amendments proposed. Among the important subjects upon which amendments have been adopted within the past ten years are the following: authorization of legislation for the control of primary elections; providing for the use of voting machines; the establishment of a system of state highways; increasing the salaries of judges and of state executive officers; changing the pay of members of the legislature from \$8.00 per diem for a period not to exceed 60 days to the sum of \$1000 for the regular session; authorizing the legislature to provide a state tax for the support of high schools; permitting exemption from taxation of various forms of property, such as buildings used exclusively for religious purposes and the endowments of the Leland Stanford Junior University, the California School of Mechanical Arts, and the Cogswell Polytechnical College,—also personal property at the will of the owner to the amount of \$100; eight hours made a legal day’s work on all public work throughout the state; authorization for the depositing of public funds in banks. An important change in the state judiciary was made in 1904 by the creation of district courts of appeal for the relief of the congested condition of the business of the State Supreme Court. The state was divided into three judicial districts, in each of which was established a court of appeal consisting of three judges elected from within the district for a term of twelve years.

“A plan for the reorganization of the revenue system of the state was placed before the voters in 1908, but failed of adoption. The proposed amendment was the outcome of a movement that began in 1905 with the appointment of a special commission on taxation. This commission employed expert assistance and made a thorough study of the subject of public revenues. Its work was placed before the next meeting of the legislature from which came the proposed amendment. Its central object was to discover new sources of revenue for the state treasury, leaving the direct property tax for the maintenance of local government alone.”—F. H. Clark, *History Department, Lowell High School, San Francisco, 1909.*

1902-1907.—San Francisco’s effort to free itself from corrupt rule. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1901-1909.

1906.—Earthquake of April 18.—Destruction of San Francisco by fire following the shock.—See SAN FRANCISCO: 1906.

1906-1909.—Rebuilding of San Francisco after earthquake. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1906-1909.

1908.—Outdoor poor relief developed. See CHARITIES: United States: 1853-1908.

1910.—Times building in Los Angeles dynamited.—This led to a series of legal proceedings and several convictions. There was much bitter feeling aroused.

1910-1911.—Short ballot reform. See SHORT BALLOT: 1908-1921.

1911.—Tax Reform in California.—“The State outgrew the old general property tax twenty years ago. For ten years ‘the people’ suffered in silence. Sometimes the suffering farmers growled, but then—they also growled about the weather, with just as much effect. Slowly the dissatisfaction spread. For the past ten years the farmers in their ‘Grange’ meetings, the county assessors in their annual conventions, and other bodies have been ‘whereasing’ and ‘resolving’ on tax reform with somewhat more concrete purposes in mind. In 1899 a special committee of the Senate reported that: ‘From Maine to Texas and from Florida to California there is but one opinion as to the workings of the present system of taxation. That is, that it is inequitable, unfair, and positively unjust.’ . . . A definite campaign for tax reform began, which was crowned with success. This campaign had none of the picturesque, riotous features of the movement which gave birth to the constitution. It was a sober, serious upheaval, an orderly legal revolution. The army of tax reform was manned by the overtaxed farmers and real estate owners, led and officered by two successive Governors—George C. Pardee and James N. Gillett—and by the most experienced tax officials of the State. The measure eventually adopted was carefully prepared by a commission composed of the Governor, members of the legislature, and the Professor of Finance in the State University, which had been created by one legislature; it was debated and unanimously proposed to the people by a second legislature; it was freely discussed and voted down by the people; then it was revised again to meet the specific objections raised, and again formally proposed by a third legislature, and eventually approved by the people by a majority of 40,000 out of a total of 160,000 votes cast. At the very eve of the . . . election a special session of the legislature was called to make certain minor corrections, and at that same special session certain features, to which popular objection had been made, were amended. It was discussed at length and in detail by all the leading papers of the State, and every voter received by mail lengthy printed arguments pro and con. Large display advertisements, mostly in opposition, were run in all the papers of the State, and innumerable posters, ‘stickers,’ and hand bills called attention to its merits. The farmers and real estate men used for the most part the direct and simple appeal:—The forces against the amendment were, naturally, those corporations whose taxes would be raised. For the most part they worked in the dark, because it is generally believed that the voters of California have ‘corporation-phobia’ and will vote against anything the ‘interests’ are known to favor. But some of the national bankers came more or less into the open and through the large display advertisements above mentioned advanced certain ‘reasons’ against the amendment and certain alleged statistics, both without strict regard to the truth. Their main endeavor was to ‘throw a scare’ into the mercantile and financial interests by claiming that such ‘excessive’ taxation would drive away capital, and they even went so far as to claim that the new system of taxation would jeopardize the school system and the State University. The special cause of the opposition of these bankers appears to have been the action of the legislature, at the last moment, in restoring the tax on bank capital to one per cent as recommended by the commission, although it had been at one time fixed at six-tenths of one per cent. But they had stulti-

fied themselves by favoring the amendment when the rate was low. The evils that were complained of were much the same as those that are felt in all other states which continue the general property tax as a means for raising revenue for the support of all the different divisions of government, central and local. They are: (1) the over-taxation of real estate and especially of agricultural real estate; (2) grave inequalities between localities due largely to the effort of each county (in California the county is the local assessment district) to evade the State tax by under valuation of its taxable property; (3) inequalities and unfairness in the apportionment, under the 'where located' rule, of the revenues derived from enterprises of a general character, like the railroads; and (4) the evasion of taxation by the banks and Public service corporations. The remedies provided in the amendment are: (1) the abolition of the State tax on property in general, which was held to be the main cause of the inequalities between localities; (2) the taxation of public service corporations, whose property is of a general character by, and for the support of, the State alone, and that on the basis of gross receipts; also (3) the taxation of the banks by and for the State but on the basis of the book value of the stock. In short, it is the plan of 'separation' that has been so largely agitated as the first necessary step in tax reform."—C. C. Plehn, *Tax reform in California (Review of Reviews, Jan., 1911, pp. 86-87)*.

1911.—Divided legislature.—This was a unique plan by which the state legislature was to sit a period of thirty days, then adjourn and resume its sitting later. All bills were to be proposed in the first session and all discussion and voting was to be in the second session.

1911.—Direct election of senators.—This measure anticipated the Federal amendment and followed the plan originated in Oregon.

1912-1913.—Important legislation.—The Railroad Commission was created by act of legislature. Special measures were taken to protect fruit orchards against harmful insects, diseases, and animals destructive to trees. The Seventeenth Federal amendment, providing for direct election of senators, was ratified. Acts were passed providing for "blue sky laws," Mothers' pensions, the creation of a commission on minimum wages for women and children (see LABOR REMUNERATION: 1910-1920), and the conservation of water supply.

1914.—Eruption of Mount Lassen. See LASSEN PEAK.

1914.—Public defender in Los Angeles county.—The appointment of such an officer is unique. It will be his duty to defend citizens, in cases brought against them.

1915.—Panama-Pacific international exposition, February 20-December 4.—The occasion for this exposition was the opening of the Panama canal. The grounds set aside by San Francisco for the exposition consisted of 635 acres along the water front inside the Golden Gate. Much effort was expended on beautifying the grounds and the best architects and artists were employed on the buildings. The expense was met by the state, the federal government and private contributions. Many foreign nations were represented but the war interfered somewhat with outside exhibits.

1915.—San Francisco and San Diego expositions. See U. S. A.: 1915 (January-December).

1916.—Presidential campaign.—The defeat of Charles E. Hughes, the Republican candidate for president and the election of Hiram Johnson as senator constituted a unique feature of the campaign.

1916.—Women granted suffrage. See SUFFRAGE, WOMAN: United States: 1851-1920.

1916.—County Home Rule in California.—"Officially, the movement for county home rule in California had its inception in the initial message of Governor Hiram W. Johnson to the legislature, in January, 1911. . . . An amendment closely following the suggestions of the Governor was adopted by the legislature and was submitted to the people at the special election of October 10, 1911. The amendment was approved and at once went into effect. Under the new amendment a charter for a given county is to be prepared by a board of fifteen freeholders, themselves first elected by the people of the county at a special election called for the purpose. The election may be held pursuant to ordinance passed by the board of supervisors, a body which is the counterpart of the board of county commissioners in other states, or by initiative petition signed by fifteen per cent of the qualified electors. It is required that the free holders shall complete and file a draft of a charter within one hundred and twenty days after the official declaration of their election. The proposed charter must then go through a ten days' publication and must be submitted to the electorate of the County not less than thirty nor more than sixty days after the completion of publication. It must then be adopted by a majority of the votes cast. Before it becomes finally operative it must go to the legislature, at the next session after its adoption by the electors, for ratification. It is made mandatory upon the people, by the constitutional provision, to incorporate certain features in their county charters. The movement for a charter for the county of Los Angeles was inaugurated by the county board of supervisors. A resolution was passed by that body in March, 1912, requesting the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce, the leading unpartisan civic organization of the county, to take measures for the nomination of fifteen candidates for freeholders. The chamber accordingly issued a call for a convention to be composed of delegates from the various civic bodies of the county. The response was immediate and the convention speedily held. The convention named a committee of twenty-five to circulate petitions among the people for the formal nomination of the fifteen persons selected. Their names were thus placed upon the ballot and they were elected as a board of freeholders at a special election held May 14."—L. R. Works, *County government. (Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, May, 1913, pp. 229-232)*.

"The final circumstance upon which California may lay claim to be the farthest outpost of advancing democracy is the extraordinary decision of Governor Johnson and the Legislature to make of her a completely non-partisan State. The new non-partisan Election Bill strikes from the ballot all party designations, so that the ballot will contain nothing but the title of the office and the list of the candidates running for election. Any one may compete at the primary, but the two highest will go on the ballot at the general election. In case any candidate receives a majority at the primary, his name will be the only one to be printed on the ballot for the general election. This system had already been adopted by the smaller cities in 1909, by San Francisco in 1911, and for counties and judicial offices in 1913. Now it will be supplied to the entire State. This complete revolt against the party system for State purposes, which is a development and not a sudden irrational impulse in California, is another bit of evidence of the independent character of the population, and of the

gigantic steps which the State feels itself able to take. The argument for party efficiency and responsibility, so strong in most of the States, no longer appeals to California. California has never known genuine party responsibility. For forty years she has had to go outside the reigning machine organizations to get either efficiency or responsibility or justice. She has always found herself under the necessity of forming vigilance committees, or societies for the prosecution of grafters, or Lincoln-Roosevelt leagues, or something of a similar nature."—F. M. Davenport, *Farthest outpost of advancing democracy* (*Outlook*, Aug. 4, 1915).

1917.—**Breed Bill.**—"It is . . . a matter of pride and satisfaction that California has taken the leadership in this fundamental agrarian reform. It has been accomplished through the passage by the legislature of Senate Bill No. 584, popularly known as the 'Breed Bill.' This land legislation is the outcome of the report of the Commission on Colonization and Rural Credits. Its aim is to substitute carefully thought out plans of community development for the unorganized development of the individual settler. The reasons for this legislation are given in the first section of the act: 'The legislature believes that land settlement is a problem of great importance to the welfare of all people of the state of California and for that reason through this particular act endeavors to improve the general economic and social conditions of agricultural settlers within the state and the people of the state in general.' This act is intended to provide a demonstration of the value of scientific land settlement, which will show to the state and to the owners of great landed properties what can be accomplished through its use. It provides for the purchase by the state of 10,000 acres of land, which will furnish homes for about 250 families. . . . Under the Land Settlement Act, plans for farm buildings and estimates of cost will be secured in advance of settlement. Through the purchase of material at wholesale and supervision by competent builders . . . houses will be of better design and built at far less cost than would be possible under unorganized, unplanned development. . . . It makes possible the introduction at the outset of cooperative methods in buying and selling."—Mead, *Farming his own* (*Sunset*, Sept., 1917).

1918.—**Part played in the World War.**—The state furnished 102,000 men to the American forces and created a Council of Defense to cooperate with the National Council. There were two National Guard camps in California, Camp Fremont and Camp Kearney.

ALSO IN: *California in the war*, by the War History Committee of the California Council of Defense (*Bulletin No. 34a*).

1919.—**New child labor law.**—In 1919 a new child labor law was passed coordinating educational features with those of child labor legislation. "Briefly, the compulsory school law has been amended by adding to it all sections relating to work permits. The enforcing power is now vested in the authority which has always issued working permits, the educational department of the state. A new child labor law has been enacted covering the subjects of places, hours, occupations, and conditions of children's work. The subject matter, in ten sections, is arranged in logical sequence and in this respect is a great improvement over the old law in which related subjects were often widely separated. Reports are to be interchanged semi-annually between the state educational group and the bureau of labor statistics. This dovetailing

of the laws will bring about an understanding which must result in cooperation. . . . The following is a digest of California's 1919 child labor law: Sec. 1. No minor under 16 years shall work. Exemptions: (1) with work permit. (2) Street trades. See Sec. 3½. *Gain*; Age raised from 15 to 16. Sec. 2. No minor under 18 years shall work more than 8 hours a day or 48 hours a week, or before 5 a.m. or after 10 p.m. Exemptions: See Sec. 5. *Gain*; The straight 8-hour day. The old law permitted a different apportionment of hours to make a shorter day's work one day a week. In other words a half holiday was no holiday, as extra time could be added to the 8 hours on other days. Sec. 3. Covers messenger, telegraph and telephone service. No boy under 16 years may work during the day. No boy under 18 years may work after 9 p.m. or before 6 a.m. No girl under 18 years may work day or night. *Gain*; For boys and girls in day service. With shortage of labor during the last two years, the number of girls entering this work caused apprehension. We have always had the night regulation. Sec. 3½. Street Trades. No boy under 10 years and no girl under 18 years may work in cities of more than 23,000 population. This is the old law. Here we did the expedient thing. The public must help solve this problem by refusing to patronize children engaged in selling on the street. The work can be efficiently done by cripples, old persons, and those who need to work in the open air. In Oakland the newsboys themselves have established a union with a 15-year minimum for membership. We hope that the slogan 'Children in the streets need your protection, not your patronage,' will soon be regarded as a survival of the dark ages. Sec. 4. Specified trades dangerous to life, limb, health or morals are forbidden to minors under 16 years. The Bureau of Labor Statistics may make additional listings. Same as the old law. Sec. 5. This may be called the exemption section. In agriculture and domestic service minors of 16 years may work more than 8 hours a day and more than 48 hours a week during the time the public schools are not in session. Child actors with the written consent of the commissioners of the Bureau of Labor Statistics are exempted from hour and age regulations. Sec. 6. Provides that employers shall keep a separate register for minors under 18 years. *Gain*; 'Separate.' Permits are to be returned to the issuing authority five days after employment ceases. Under the old law permits were returned by the minor. Interchange of semi-annual reports between Board of Education and Bureau of Labor Statistics. Sec. 7. Penalties. Fine, \$50 to \$200, 60 days' imprisonment in county jail, or both. Provisions concerning distribution of funds between the departments. Sec. 8. Enforcement. Bureau of Labor Statistics shall enforce provisions of the act. Sec. 9 and 10. Assure validity of other sections of the law if any one section is declared invalid."—B. Schlesinger, *What California did in 1919 for child protection* (*American Child*, Aug., 1919, pp. 145, 147-148).

1920.—**General election.**—**Anti-alien land law.**—**Other measures.**—**Defeat of the community property law amendment.**—"California voters used the initiative and referendum for the sixth time at the November general election. Twenty propositions were before the people, ten of which were submitted by initiative petition, five were legislative acts passed in 1919 and suspended by the referendum, and five were constitutional amendments submitted by the legislature. Out of this number the voters gave their approval to eight measures and voted down twelve. The initiative

anti-alien land law carried by a majority of nearly 400,000. The law was in part a reënactment of the alien land law passed by the legislature in 1913, with added provisions withdrawing the present privilege of short leases of land and closing loopholes in the present law by which its objects were evaded."—*California*, 1920 (*Survey*, Nov. 27, 1920). "The chief surprise in California on November 2 was the strong opposition to the anti-Japanese referendum. Telegraphic reports state that 163,731 voted against it, while those for it numbered 481,015. This is really amazing because both principal parties, papers and candidates were avowedly anti-Japanese and for the referendum. . . . The new law not only rigidly forbids aliens ineligible to become citizens (Japanese and Chinese) from purchasing agricultural land, but also from leasing it, even for a single year. It also forbids their purchase of stock in any company, association or corporation that is entitled to possess or acquire agricultural land. Minor American-born children [who hold land] are denied the right to have their parents as guardians. This drastic land law inaugurated a new period in American-Japanese relations."—S. L. Gulick, *California's anti-Japanese laws* (*Independent*, Nov. 20, 1920, p. 267).—"The other propositions approved by the voters were those providing for the extension of the state mothers' pension law to families in which the father is incapacitated for gainful work or is suffering from tuberculosis, exempting orphanages from taxation, increasing the state apportionment for elementary and high schools to permit salary raises for teachers and aid for rural schools, tightening the provisions of the state narcotic drug law to prevent its abuse, levying a poll tax on aliens, raising the rate of interest on highway bonds to facilitate their sale and changing the procedure for the organization of irrigation districts. Of the measures which were defeated, the community property law, the state prohibition enforcement act and the University of California and valorem tax measure provoked the more widespread interest. The community property law amendment sought to give the wife equal power with the husband in the disposition by will of the community property. The California community property law rests on the theory that all property acquired after marriage is community property—a theory inherited from the old civil law of the Spanish occupation. The present law provides that upon the death of the wife all the community property shall pass to the husband, but upon the death of the husband only one-half of the community shall pass to the wife. The proposed law provided that upon the death of either spouse, one-half of the community property should go to the survivor and one-half was subject to the testamentary disposition of the deceased."—*California*, 1920 (*Survey*, Nov. 27, 1920).

CALIFORNIA, Lower. See **BAJA CALIFORNIA**.
CALIFORNIA, University of. See **EDUCATION**: Modern, 19th century; **UNITED STATES**: Beginning of commercial education; **EDUCATION**: Modern developments: 20th century; **General education**: **UNITED STATES**: Junior college.

CALIGULA, Gaius Cæsar Augustus Germanicus (12-41 A. D.), Roman emperor and nicknamed Caligula for the military shoes he wore as a soldier. As emperor he was willfully cruel, extravagant and barbarous.—See also **ROME**: **Republic**: A. D. 37-41, 41.

CALIPH, a title borne by the original civil and religious rulers of the post-Mohammedan state. It is used in the Koran as applied to Adam and David as vicegerents of God, and was adopted by Abu Bekr, who, on the death of Mohammed, was chosen

as leader of the hosts of Islam.—See also **CALIPHATE**: Origin and meaning of the term; **VIZIR**.

CALIPHATE.—Origin and meaning of term.—"The only succession for which provision had to be made, after the death of Mahomet, was that of the *sovereignty* over the whole Mussulman State, which, based on a common religion, had foundations radically different from those on which, before Islam, the various politico-social constructions of that part of Arabia were raised up. Should one consider the political work of the Prophet finished with his death, thus returning to the old particularism of the tribe? Or, should the State that had risen at Medina remain in vigor without changes? And if so, who should rule over it?—Neither the Koran (which for Mussulmans is the 'word of God,' not the word or work of the Prophet), nor Mahomet had given any instructions on the matter. On the very evening of the day on which the Prophet breathed his last, after many hours of violent discussion and tumult, the prevailing opinion was that the political unity of the Mussulmans should be maintained, and so Abu Bekr was elected as *head of the Mussulman State*; it seems that to him was then given the title of *Caliph* (*khalifa*), an Arab word that signifies both 'successor' in a public office and 'representative' or 'vicar' of a superior authority in a more restricted post. It seems not improbable that the choice of the word was influenced by two verses of the Koran referring to Adam and King David respectively. Historically then, the Caliphs are the successors of Mahomet in the *government of the whole Mussulman State, that is, of the entire body of Mussulmans*; presupposing (as was indeed the fact for several centuries) the non-existence of any Islamic peoples under a non-Islamic rule. But here one comes on a fact inexplicable at first sight to a European; while these universal Monarchs of Islam possessed, like any other Mussulman sovereign, limitless executive and judicial powers, they were *destitute of legislative powers*; legislation in the proper sense of the word could be nothing less than the divine law itself, the *sceria*, of which the only interpreters are the *ulama* or doctors.—In the religious field the only duty belonging to the Caliph, as to every other Islamic sovereign, is to defend the faith with the power of his secular arm against enemies within or without, and to see to it that public worship, consisting in the common prayers on Fridays, is regularly celebrated. . . . The Sunnite Islamism *has never admitted a supreme Head of the Islamic Church*. A Church, in the sense of a sacerdotal hierarchical organisation, does not exist. Religious unity is maintained, not by the Caliph, but by the *doctors* (the *ulama*), who are 'the heirs of the prophets'; they alone in the past have elaborated the *dogma*, the *ritual*, the *canon law*, without any interference from the Caliphs or other Sovereigns; to them alone it now belongs to preserve unaltered the traditional doctrine, and to decide on the orthodoxy or heterodoxy of new teachings and new usages. In all these matters, it is not the will of the Caliph that counts, but the consent of the Doctors; a consent that was naturally in certain cases the fruit of bitter disputes drawn out through several generations, from which a final common opinion was at last formed. . . . The Caliph is distinguished from other Mussulman sovereigns (Sultans, Kings, Emirs, etc.) only by the fact that his sovereignty extends, or at least should extend, over the whole Islamic world, and that his mission is to conserve the *political and territorial unity of all the Mussulmans*, and to bring to submission all the States of the Infidels as soon as he has the means to do so. Hence it comes that the

position of the Caliph in the Islamic world corresponds almost exactly to that of the *Emperor* or universal Monarch of Christendom, according to the conception of the mediæval Ghibelline jurists. And as, according to these last, Kings, Princes, Dukes, etc., are rightful sovereigns of a given region only when the Emperor has conferred on them the feudal investiture for that region, thus, according to Islamic public law, only those *Sultans, Kings or Emirs* are legitimate to whom the reigning Caliph has delegated his own authority over a determined region, that is, has granted the temporal or feudal investiture."—C. S. Nallino, *Notes on the nature of the "caliphate" in general and on the alleged "Ottoman caliphate,"* pp. 6, 7, 9-11.—See also MOHAMMEDANISM; SENUSSIA.

5th-8th centuries.—Trade with China. See COMMERCE: Mediæval: 5th-8th centuries.

7th century.—Rise of the cities of Kufa and Basra. See BASRA.

622.—Institution of new calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: Era of the Hejira.

632-639.—Abu Bekr.—Omar.—Founding of the caliphate.—Conquest of Syria.—The death of Mohammed left Islam without a head. The Prophet had neither named a successor (khalif or caliph), nor had he instituted a mode in which the choice of one should be made. His nephew and son-in-law—"the Bayard of Islam," the lion-hearted Ali—seemed the natural heir of that strangely born sovereignty of the Arab world. But its elders and chiefs were averse to Ali, and the assembly which they convened preferred, instead, the Prophet's faithful friend, the venerable Abu Bekr. This first of the caliphs reigned modestly but two years, and on his death, July, 634, the stern soldier Omar was raised to the more than royal place. By this time the armies of the Crescent were already far advanced beyond the frontiers of Arabia in their fierce career of conquest. No sooner had Abu Bekr, in 632, set his heel on some rebellious movements, which threatened his authority, than he made haste to open fields in which the military spirit and ambitions of his unquiet people might find full exercise. With bold impartiality he challenged, at once, and alike, the two dominant powers of the eastern world, sending armies to invade the soil of Persia, on one hand, and the Syrian provinces of the Roman empire, on the other. The invincible Khaled, or Caled, led the former, at first, but was soon transferred to the more critical field, which the latter proved to be. "One of the fifteen provinces of Syria, the cultivated lands to the eastward of the Jordan, had been decorated by Roman vanity with the name of 'Arabia'; and the first arms of the Saracens were justified by the semblance of a national right." The strong city of Bosra was taken, partly through the treachery of its commander, Romanus, who renounced Christianity and embraced the faith of Islam. From Bosra the Moslems advanced on Damascus, but suspended the siege of the city until they had encountered the army which the emperor Heraclius sent to its relief. This they did on the field of Ainzadin, in the south of Palestine, July 30, 634, when 50,000 of the Roman-Greeks and Syrians are said to have perished, while but 470 Arabs fell. Damascus was immediately invested and taken after a protracted siege, which Voltaire has likened to the siege of Troy, on account of the many combats and stratagems—the many incidents of tragedy and romance—which poets and historians have handed down, in some connection with its progress or its end. The ferocity of Khaled was only half restrained by his milder colleague in command, Abu Obeidah, and

the wretched inhabitants of Damascus suffered terribly at his hands. The city, itself, was spared and highly favored, becoming the Syrian capital of the Arabs. Heliopolis (Baalbec) was besieged and taken in January, 636; Emessa surrendered soon after. In November, 636, a great and decisive battle was fought with the forces of Heraclius at Yermuk, or Yermouk, on the borders of Palestine and Arabia. The Christians fought obstinately and well, but they were overwhelmed with fearful slaughter. "After the battle of Yermuk the Roman army no longer appeared in the field; and the Saracens might securely choose, among the fortified towns of Syria, the first object of their attack. They consulted the caliph whether they should march to Cæsarea or Jerusalem; and the advice of Ali determined the immediate siege of the latter. . . . After Mecca and Medina, it was revered and visited by the devout Moslems as the temple of the Holy Land, which had been sanctified by the revelation of Moses, of Jesus, and of Mahomet himself." The defense of Jerusalem, notwithstanding its great strength, was maintained with less stubbornness than that of Damascus had been. After a siege of four months, in the winter of 637, the Christian patriarch or bishop of Jerusalem, who seems to have been first in authority, proposed to give up the Holy City, if Omar, the caliph, would come in person from Medina to settle and sign the terms of surrender. Omar deemed the prize worthy of this concession and made the long journey, travelling as simply as the humblest pilgrim and entering Jerusalem on foot. After this, little remained to make the conquest of all Syria complete. Aleppp was taken, but not easily, after a siege, and Antioch, the splendid seat of eastern luxury and wealth, was abandoned by the emperor and submitted, paying a great ransom for its escape from spoliation and the sword. The year 639 saw Syria at the feet of the Arabs whom it had despised six years before, and the armies of the caliph were ready to advance to new fields, east, northwards, and west.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 51.—See also JERUSALEM: 637; TYRE: 638.

ALSO IN: W. IRVING, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 3-23.—S. Ockley, *History of the Saracens: Abubeker*.—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 2, II, 19-21.

632-651.—Conquest of Persia.—During the invasion of Syria, Abu Bekr, the first of the caliphs, sent an expedition towards the Euphrates, under command of the redoubtable Khaled (633). The first object of its attack was Hira, a city on the western branch of the Euphrates, not far from modern Kufa. Hira was the seat of a small kingdom of Christian Arabs tributary to Persia and under Persian protection and control. Its domain embraced the northern part of that fertile tract between the desert and the Euphrates which the Arab writers call Sawad; the southern part being a Persian province of which the capital, Obolla, was the great emporium of the Indian trade. Hira and Obolla were speedily taken and this whole region subdued. But, Khaled being then transferred to the army in Syria, the Persians regained courage, while the energy of the Moslems was relaxed. In an encounter called the battle of the Bridge, 635, the latter experienced a disastrous check; but the next year found them more victorious than ever (see also BRIDGE, BATTLE OF). The great battle of Cadesia (Kadisijeh) ended all hope in Persia of doing more than defend the Euphrates as a western frontier. Within two years even that hope disappeared. The new Arab general, Sa'ad Ibn Abi Wakas, having spent the interval in strength-

ening his forces, and in founding the city of Busrah, or Bassora, below the junction of the Euphrates and Tigris, as well as that of Kufa, which became the Moslem capital, advanced into Mesopotamia, 637, crossing the river without opposition. The Persian capital, Ctesiphon, was abandoned to him so precipitately that most of its vast treasures fell into his hands. It was not until six months later that the Persians and Arabs met in battle, at Jalula, and the encounter was fatal to the former, 100,000 having perished on the field. "By the close of the year 637 the banner of the Prophet waved over the whole tract west of Zagros, from Nineveh almost to Susa." Then a brief pause ensued. In 641 the Persian king Isdigerd—last of the Sassanian house—made a great, heroic effort to recover his lost dominions and save what remained. He staked all and lost, in the final battle of Nehavend, which the Arabs called "Fattah-ul-Futuh," or "victory of victories." "The defeat of Nehavend terminated the Sassanian power. Isdigerd indeed, escaping from Rei, and flying continually from place to place, prolonged an inglorious existence for the space of ten more years—from 641 to 651; but he had no longer a kingdom. Persia fell to pieces on the occasion of 'the victory of victories,' and made no other united effort against the Arabs. Province after province was occupied by the fierce invaders; and, at length, in 651, their arms penetrated to Merv, where the last scion of the house of Babek had for some years found a refuge. . . . The order of conquest seems to have been the following:—Media, Northern Persia, Rhagiana, Azerbaijan, Gurgan, Tabaristan, and Khorassan in 642; Southern Persia, Kerman, Seistan, Mekran, and Kurdistan in 643; Merv, Balkh, Herat, and Kharezmi in 650 or 652."—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 26, and foot-notes.

ALSO IN: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 25-34.—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 10-18, 25-26.

640-646.—**Conquest of Egypt.**—"It was in the nineteenth or twentieth year of the Hegira [640 or 641] that Amru, having obtained the hesitating consent of the Caliph, set out from Palestine for Egypt. His army, though joined on its march by bands of Bedouins lured by the hope of plunder; did not at the first exceed 4,000 men. Soon after he had left, Omar, concerned at the smallness of his force, would have recalled him; but finding that he had already gone too far to be stopped, he sent heavy reinforcements, under Zobeir, one of the chief Companions, after him. The army of Amru was thus swelled to an imposing array of from 12,000 to 16,000 men, some of them warriors of renown. Amru entered Egypt by Arish, and overcoming the garrison at Farama [ancient Pelusium], turned to the left and so passed onward through the desert, reaching thus the easternmost of the seven estuaries of the Nile. Along this branch of the river he marched by Bubastis towards Upper Egypt,"—and, so, to Heliopolis, near to the great ancient city of Misr, or Memphis. Here, and throughout their conquest of Egypt, the Moslem invaders appear to have found some goodwill towards them prevailing among the Christians of the Jacobite sect, who had never become reconciled to the Orthodox Greeks. Heliopolis and Memphis were surrendered to their arms after some hard fighting and a siege of no long duration. "Amru lost no time in marching upon Alexandria so as to reach it before the Greek troops, hastily called in from the outlying garrisons, could rally there for its defence. On the way he put to flight several columns which sought to hinder his

advance; and at last presented himself before the walls of the great city, which, offering (as it still does) on the land side a narrow and well-fortified front, was capable of an obstinate resistance. Towards the sea also it was open to succour at the pleasure of the Byzantine Court. But during the siege Heraclius died, and the opportunity of relief was supinely allowed to slip away." In the end Alexandria capitulated and was protected from plunder (see LIBRARIES: Ancient: Alexandria), paying tribute to the conquerors. "Amru, it is said, wished to fix his seat of government at Alexandria, but Omar would not allow him to remain so far away from his camp, with so many branches of the Nile between. So he returned to Upper Egypt. A body of the Arabs crossed the Nile and settled in Ghizeh, on the western bank—a movement which Omar permitted only on condition that a strong fortress was constructed there to prevent the possibility of their being surprised and cut off. The headquarters of the army were pitched near Memphis. Around them grew up a military station, called from its origin Fostat, or 'the Encampment.' It expanded rapidly into the capital of Egypt, the modern Cairo. . . . This name 'Cahira,' or City of the Victory, is of later date [see CALIPHATE: 908-1171]. . . . Zobeir urged Amru to enforce the right of conquest, and divide the land among his followers. But Amru refused; and the Caliph, as might have been expected, confirmed the judgment. 'Leave the land of Egypt,' was his wise reply, 'in the people's hands to nurse and fructify.' As elsewhere, Omar would not allow the Arabs to become proprietors of a single acre. Even Amru was refused ground whereupon to build a mansion for himself. . . . So the land of Egypt, left in the hands of its ancestral occupants, became a rich granary for the Hejaz, even as in bygone times it had been the granary of Italy and the Byzantine empire. . . . Amru, with the restless spirit of his faith, soon pushed his conquests westward beyond the limits of Egypt, established himself in Barca, and reached even to Tripoli. . . . Early in the Caliphate of Othman [646] a desperate attempt was made to regain possession of Alexandria. The Moslems, busy with their conquests elsewhere, had left the city insufficiently protected. The Greek inhabitants conspired with the Court; and a fleet of 300 ships was sent under command of Manuel, who drove out the garrison and took possession of the city. Amru hastened to its rescue. A great battle was fought outside the walls: the Greeks were defeated, and the unhappy town was subjected to the miseries of a second and a longer siege. It was at last taken by storm and given up to plunder. . . . The city, though still maintaining its commercial import, fell now from its high estate. The pomp and circumstance of the Moslem Court were transferred to Fostat, and Alexandria ceased to be the capital of Egypt."—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 24, with foot-note.

ALSO IN: E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 51.—W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 24 and 35.

644.—**Assassination of Caliph Omar.**—The death of Omar, the second of the caliphs, was a violent one. "It occurred in November, 644. One day a slave who worked for his master at the carpenter's bench came to see the Commander of the Faithful, and complained to him of being overworked, and badly treated by the citizen that owned him. Omar listened attentively, but arriving at the conclusion that the charges were false, sternly dismissed the carpenter to his bench. The man retired, vowing to be revenged. The follow-

ing day was Friday, 'the day of the Assembly.' Omar, as usual, went to lead the prayers of the assembly in the great mosque. He opened his mouth to speak. He had just said 'Allah,' when the keen dagger of the offended slave was thrust into his back, and the Commander of the Faithful fell on the sacred floor, fatally wounded. The people, in a perfect frenzy of horror and rage, fell upon the assassin, but with superhuman strength he threw them off, and rushing about in the madness of despair he killed some and wounded others, and finally turning the point of his dagger to his own breast, fell dead. Omar lingered several days in great agony, but he was brave to the end. His dying words were, 'Give to my successor this parting bequest, that he be kind to the men of this city, Medina, which gave a home to us, and to the Faith. Tell him to make much of their virtues, and to pass lightly over their faults. 'Bid him also treat well the Arab tribes, for verily they are the backbone of Islam. Moreover, let him faithfully fulfil the covenants made with the Christians and the Jews! O Allah! I have finished my course! To him that cometh after me, I leave the kingdom firmly established and at peace!' Thus perished one of the greatest Princes the Mohammedans were ever to know. Omar was truly a great and good man, of whom any country and any creed might be proud."—J. J. Pool, *Studies in Mohammedanism*, pp. 58-59.

647-709.—Conquest of northern Africa.—"While Egypt was won almost without a blow, Latin Africa [northern Africa beyond Egypt] took sixty years to conquer. It was first invaded under Othman in 647, but Carthage was not subdued till 698, nor was the province fully reduced for eleven years longer. And why? Doubtless because Africa contained two classes of inhabitants, not over-friendly to each other, but both of whom had something to lose by a Saracenic conquest. The citizens of Carthage were Roman in every sense, their language was Latin, their faith was orthodox; they had no wrongs beyond those which always afflict provincials under a despotism; wrongs not likely to be alleviated by exchanging a Christian despot at Constantinople for an infidel one at Medina or Damascus. Beyond them, in the inland provinces, were the native Moors, barbarians, and many of them pagans; they had fought for their rude liberty against the Cæsars, and they had no intention of surrendering it to the Caliphs. Romans and Moors alike long preferred the chances of the sword to either Koran or tribute; but their ultimate fate was different. Latin civilization and Latin Christianity gradually disappeared by the decay and extermination of their votaries. The Moors, a people not unlike the Arabs in their unconverted state, were at last content to embrace their religion, and to share their destinies and their triumphs. Arabs and Moors intermingled went on to further conquests; and the name of the barbarian converts was more familiarly used in Western Europe to denote the united nation than the terrible name of the original compatriots of the Prophet."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquests of the Saracens*, lecture 3.—"In their climate and government, their diet and habitation, the wandering Moors resembled the Bedouens [Beduins] of the desert. With the religion they were proud to adopt the language, name, and origin of Arabs; the blood of the strangers and natives was insensibly mingled; and from the Euphrates to the Atlantic the same nation might seem to be diffused over the sandy plains of Asia and Africa. Yet I will not deny that 50,000 tents [families] of pure Arabians might be transported

over the Nile and scattered through the Libyan desert; and I am not ignorant that five of the Moorish tribes still retain their barbarious idiom, with the appellation and character of 'white' Africans."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 51.—"By 647 the Barbary coast was overrun up to the gates of Roman Carthage; but the wild Berber population was more difficult to subdue than the luxurious subjects of the Sasanids of Persia or the Greeks of Syria and Egypt. Kayrawan was founded as the African capital in 670; Carthage fell in 693, and the Arabs pushed their arms as far as the Atlantic. From Tangier they crossed into Spain in 710."—S. Lane-Poole, *Mohammedan dynasties*, p. 5.—See also CARTHAGE: 698; MOROCCO: 647-1860.

ALSO IN: W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 35, 44, 54-55.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Arabs*, pt. 1, ch. 1-3.

657.—Organization of the Kharijite party by Ali. See KHARIJITES.

661.—Omayyad usurpation.—Omar, on his deathbed, appointed a council of six persons to elect his successor. The choice of the council fell upon Othman, who had been the secretary of the Prophet. The caliphate of Othman was troubled by many plots and increasing disaffection, which ended in his assassination, 656. It was not until then that Ali, the nephew and son-in-law of Mohammed, was permitted to take the Prophet's seat. But the dissensions in the Moslem world had grown more bitter as the fields of ambitious rivalry were widened, and the factions opposed to Ali were implacable. "Now begins the tragic tale of the wrongs and martyrdoms of the immediate family of the Prophet. The province of Syria was now ruled by the crafty Moawiyah, whose father was Abu-Sofian, so long the bitterest enemy of Mahomet, and at last a tardy and unwilling proselyte. . . . Such was the parentage of the man who was to deprive the descendants of the Apostle of their heritage. Moawiyah gave himself out as the avenger of Othman; Ali was represented as his murderer, although his sons, the grandsons of the Prophet, had fought, and one of them received a wound, in the defence of that Caliph. . . . Ayesha, too, the Mother of the Faithful, Telha and Zobeir, the Prophet's old companions, revolted on their own account, and the whole of the brief reign of Ali was one constant succession of civil war." Syria adhered to Moawiyah. Ayesha, Zobeir and Telha gained possession of Bussorah and made that city their headquarters of rebellion. They were defeated there by Ali in a great battle, 656, called the battle of the Camel, because the litter which bore Ayesha on the back of a camel became the center of the fight. But he gained little from the success; nor more from a long, indecisive battle fought with Moawiyah at Siffin, in July, 657. Amru, the conqueror of Egypt, had now joined Moawiyah, and his influence enlisted that great province in the revolt. At last, in 661, the civil war was ended by the assassination of Ali. His eldest son, Hassan, who seems to have been a spiritless youth, bargained away his claims to Moawiyah, and the latter became undisputed caliph, founding a dynasty called that of the Ommyades, or Omeyyads (from Ommiah, or Omeyya, the great grandfather of Moawiyah), which occupied the throne for almost a century—not at Medina, but at Damascus [see also DAMASCUS], to which city the caliphate was now transferred. "In thus converting the Caliphate into an hereditary monarchy he utterly changed its character. It soon assumed the character of a common oriental empire. . . . The Ommyads were masters of slaves instead of lead-

ers of freemen; the public will was no longer consulted, and the public good as little; the Commander of the Faithful sank into a earthly despot, ruling by force, like any Assyrian conqueror of old. The early caliphs dwelt in the sacred city of Medina, and directed the counsels of the Empire from beside the tomb of the Prophet. Moawiyah transferred his throne to the conquered splendours of Damascus; and Mecca and Medina became tributary cities to the ruler of Syria. At one time a rival caliph, Abdallah, established himself in Arabia; twice were the holy cities taken by storm, and the Kaaba itself was battered down by the engines of the invaders. . . . Such a revolution however did not effect itself without considerable opposition. The partizans of the house of Ali continued to form a formidable sect. In their ideas the Vicarship of the Prophet was not to be, like an earthly kingdom, the mere prize of craft or of valour. It was the inalienable heritage of the sacred descendants of the Prophet himself. . . . This was the origin of the Shiah sect, the assertors of the rights of Ali and his house."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquest of the Saracens*, lecture 3.

ALSO IN: W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 31-46.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Arabs*, pt. 3.—S. Lane-Poole, *Mohammadan dynasties*, pp. 9-11.

668-675.—First repulse from Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 668-675.

680.—Tragedy at Kerbela.—When Ali, or Aly, the nephew and son-in-law of Mohammed, had been slain, 661, and the caliphate had been seized by Moawiyah, the first of the Omniades, "the followers of 'Aly proclaimed his elder son, Hasan, Khalif; but this poor-spirited youth was contented to sell his pretensions to the throne. . . . On his death, his brother Hoseyn became the lawful Khalif in the eyes of the partisans of the House of 'Aly who ignored the general admission of the authority of the 'Omniades.' . . . For a time Hoseyn remained quietly at Medina, leading a life of devotion, and declining to push his claims. But at length an opportunity for striking a blow at the rival House presented itself, and Hoseyn did not hesitate to avail himself of it. He was invited to join an insurrection which had broken out at Kufa [680], the most mutinous and fickle of all the cities of the empire; and he set out with his family and friends, to the number of 100 souls, and an escort of 500 horsemen, to join the insurgents. As he drew nigh to Kufa, he discovered that the rising had been suppressed by the 'Omniade' governor of the city, and that the country round him was hostile instead of loyal to him. And now there came out from Kufa an army of 4,000 horse, who surrounded the little body of travellers [on the plain of Kerbela], and cut them off alike from the city and the river. . . . A series of single combats, in which Hoseyn and his followers displayed heroic courage, ended in the death of the Imam and the men who were with him, and the enslaving of the women and children."—S. Lane-Poole, *Studies in a Mosque*, ch. 7.—"The scene [of the massacre of Hoseyn and his band] . . . is still fresh as yesterday in the mind of every Believer, and is commemorated with wild grief and frenzy as often as the fatal day, the Tenth of the first month of the year [tenth of Mobarram—October 10], comes round. . . . The tragedy of Kerbela decided not only the fate of the Caliphate, but of Mahometan kingdoms long after the Caliphate had waned and disappeared. . . . The tragedy is yearly represented on the stage as a religious ceremony"—in the "Passion Play" of the Mobarram festival.—

W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 49, with foot-note.—See also MOHAMMEDANISM.—"The first three *de facto* Caliphs, though they are regarded as legitimate by the Sunni majority of the Moslem world, are rejected by the Shia minority, who begin with the fourth actual Caliph, Ali, recognise his descendants (who mostly lived as fugitives from Ali's *de facto* successors) as lawful Caliphs through twelve generations, and believe that the twelfth 'Imam' disappeared mysteriously and, though now invisible, has never ceased to reign. Since his disappearance, no living man can be an orthodox Caliph in the eyes of the Shia, and the Shia denomination, though a minority in the Moslem world, is after all the state religion of Persia, and is followed by perhaps hardly less than 20 per cent. of the Moslems of India."—A. J. Toynbee, *Question of the caliphate* (*Contemporary Review*, Feb., 1920, p. 102).

698.—Destruction of Carthage. See CARTHAGE: 698.

7th-11th centuries.—Fatimides and Omayyads: Universities founded in Moslem lands. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 7th-11th centuries: Medical art of the Arabs

8th century.—Military science of the Saracens. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 14.

710.—Subjugation of the Turks.—"After the fall of the Persian kingdom, the river Oxus divided the territories of the Saracens and of the Turks. This narrow boundary was soon overleaped by the spirit of the Arabs; the governors of Chorassan extended their successive inroads; and one of their triumphs was adorned with the buskin of a Turkish queen, which she dropped in her precipitate flight beyond the hills of Bochara. But the final conquest of Transoxiana, as well as of Spain, was reserved for the glorious reign of the inactive Waiid; and the name of Catibah, the camel-driver, declares the origin and merit of his successful lieutenant. While one of his colleagues displayed the first Mahometan banner on the banks of the Indus, the spacious regions between the Oxus, the Jaxartes, and the Caspian sea were reduced by the arms of Catibah to the obedience of the prophet and of the caliph. A tribute of two millions of pieces of gold was imposed on the infidels; their idols were burned or broken; the Mussulman chief pronounced a sermon in the new mosch [mosque] of Carizme; after several battles the Turkish hordes were driven back to the desert; and the emperors of China solicited the friendship of the victorious Arabs. To their industry the prosperity of the province, the Sogdiana of the ancients, may in a great measure be ascribed; but the advantages of the soil and climate had been understood and cultivated since the reign of the Macedonian kings. Before the invasion of the Saracens, Carizme, Bochara, and Samarcand were rich and populous under the yoke of the shepherds of the North."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 51.

ALSO IN: E. A. Freeman, *History and conquest of the Saracens*, lecture 3.

711-828.—Conquests in Asia. See BALUCHISTAN: 711-1030; INDIA: B. C. 100-A. D. 828.

711-950.—Conquest of Spain.—Struggle with Asturian Spaniards. See ASTURIAS; SPAIN: 711-713; 713-950.

715-732.—Repulse from Gaul.—"The deeds of Musa [in Africa and Spain] had been performed 'in the evening of his life,' but, to borrow the words of Gibbon, 'his breast was still fired with the ardor of youth, and the possession of Spain was considered as only the first step to the monarchy of Europe. With a powerful armament by sea and

land, he was preparing to pass the Pyrenees, to extinguish in Gaul the declining kingdoms of the Franks and Lombards, and to preach the unity of God on the altar of the Vatican. Thence, subduing the barbarians of Germany, he proposed to follow the course of the Danube from its source to the Euxine Sea, to overthrow the Greek or Roman empire of Constantinople, and, returning from Europe to Asia, to unite his new acquisitions with Antioch and the provinces of Syria.' This vast enterprise . . . was freely revolved by the successors of Musa. In pursuance of it, El Haur, the new lieutenant of the califs, assailed the fugitive Goths in their retreats in Septimania (715-718). El Zamah, who succeeded him, crossed the mountains, and, seizing Narbonne, expelled the inhabitants and settled there a colony of Saracens (719). The following year they passed the Rhone, in order to extend their dominion over Provence, but, repelled by the dukes and the militia of the country, turned their forces toward Toulouse (721). Eudo, Duke of Aquitaine, bravely defending his capital, brought on a decisive combat. . . . El Zamah fell. The carnage among his retreating men then became so great that the Arabs named the passage from Toulouse to Carcassone the Road of Martyrs (Balat al Chouda). Supporting their terrible reverses with the characteristic resignation of their race and faith, the Arabs were still able to retain a hold of Narbonne and of other fortresses of the south, and, after a respite of four years, spent in recruiting their troops from Spain and Africa, to resume their projects of invasion and pillage in Gaul (725). Under the Wali Anbessa, they ascended the Rhone as far as the city of Lyons, devastating the towns and the fields. . . . When, . . . at the close of his expeditions, Anbessa perished by the hands of the Infidels, all the fanaticism of the Mussulman heart was aroused into an eager desire for revenge. His successor, Abd-el-Rahman, a tried and experienced general, energetic and heroic as he was just and prudent, . . . entered into elaborate preparations for the final conquest of Gaul. For two years the ports of Syria, Egypt, and Africa swarmed with departing soldiery, and Spain resounded with the calls and cries to arms (727-729)." The storm broke first on Aquitaine, and its valiant duke Eudes, or Eudo, rashly meeting the enemy in the open field, in front of Bordeaux, suffered an irretrievable defeat (May, 731). Bordeaux was stormed and sacked, and all Aquitaine was given up to the ravages of the unsparing Moslem host. Eudes fled, a helpless fugitive, to his enemies the Franks, and besought the aid of the great palace-mayor, Karl Martel, practical sovereign of the Frankish kingdoms, and father of the Pepin who would soon become king in name as well as in fact. But, not for Aquitaine, only, but for all Gaul, all Germany, —all Christendom in Europe,—Karl and his Franks were called on to rally and do battle against the sons of the desert, whose fateful march of conquest seemed never to end. "During all the rest of the summer, the Roman clarions and the German horns sounded and groaned through all the cities of Neustria and Austrasia, through the rustic palaces of the Frankish leudes, and in the woody gaus of western Germany.' . . . Meanwhile, Abd-el-Rahman, laden with plunder and satiated with blood, had bent his steps toward the southwest, where he concentrated his troops on the banks of the Charente. Enriched and victorious as he was, there was still an object in Gaul which provoked alike the cupidity and the zeal of his followers. This was the Basilica of St. Martin of Tours, the shrine of the Gallic Christians, where the richest

treasures of the Church were collected, and in which the profoundest veneration of its members centred. He yearned for the pillage and the overthrow of this illustrious sanctuary, and, taking the road from Poitiers, he encountered the giants of the North in the same valley of the Vienne and Clain where, nearly three hundred years before, the Franks and the Wisigoths had disputed the supremacy of Gaul. There, on those autumn fields, the Koran and the Bible—Islamism and Christianity—Asia and Europe—stood face to face, ready to grapple in a deadly and decisive conflict. . . . Trivial skirmishes from time to time kept alive the ardor of both hosts, till at length, at dawn on Saturday, the 11th of October [732], the signal for a general onset was given. With one loud shout of Allah-Akbar (God is great), the Arab horsemen charged like a tempest upon their foe, but the deep columns of the Franks did not bend before the blast. 'Like a wall of iron,' says the chronicler, 'like a rampart of ice, the men of the North stood unmoved by the frightful shock.' All day long the charges were renewed." Still the stout Franks held their ground, and still the indomitable warriors of Islam pressed upon them, until late in the afternoon, when the latter were thrown into confusion by an attack on their rear. Then Karl and his men charged on them and their lines were broken—their rout was bloody and complete. When night put an end to the slaughter, the Franks slept upon their arms, expecting that the dreaded Saracens would rally and resume the fight. But they vanished in the darkness. Their leader, the brave Abd-el-Rahman had fallen in the wild mêlée and no courage was left in their hearts. Abandoning everything but their horses and their arms, they fled to Narbonne. "Europe was rescued, Christianity triumphant, Karl the hero forever of Christian civilization."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, ch. 14.—The booty found by the Franks in the Moslem camp "was enormous; hard-money, ingots of the precious metals, melted from jewels and shrines; precious vases, rich stuffs, subsistence stores, flocks and herds gathered and parked in the camp. Most of this booty had been taken by the Moslemah from the Aquitanians, who now had the sorrow of seeing it greedily divided among the Franks."—H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors*, bk. 6, ch. 1 (v. 2).

ALSO IN: E. S. Creasy, *Fifteen decisive battles of the world*, ch. 7.

715-750.—Omayyads and Abbasids.—Dividing of the caliphate.—The tragic death of Hosen and his companions at Kerbela kindled a passion which time would not extinguish in the hearts of one great party among the Moslems. The first ambitious leader to take advantage of the excitement of it, as a means of overthrowing the Omayyads, was Abdallah ibn Zobeir, who, posing first as the "Protector of the Holy House" of Ali, soon proclaimed himself caliph and maintained for thirteen years a rival court at Mecca. In the war which raged during a great part of those years, Medina was taken by storm and given over to pillage, while the holy city of Mecca withstood a siege of forty days, during which the sacred Caaba was destroyed. Zobeir fell, at last, in a final battle fought under the walls of Mecca. Meantime, several changes in the caliphate at Damascus had taken place and the throne was soon afterwards [705] occupied by the caliph Welid, whose reign proved more glorious than that of any other prince of his house. "Elements of disorder still remained, but under the wise and firm sceptre of Welid they were held in check. The arts of peace prevailed;

schools were founded, learning cultivated, and poets royally rewarded; public works of every useful kind were promoted, and even hospitals established for the aged, lame, and blind [see MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 7th-11th centuries: Medical art of the Arabs]. Such, indeed, at this era, was the glory of the court of Damascus that Weil, of all the Caliphs both before and after, gives the precedence to Welid. It is the fashion for the Arabian historians to abuse the Omeyyads as a dissolute, intemperate, and godless race; but we must not forget that these all wrote more or less under Abbasside inspiration. . . . After Welid, the Omeyyad dynasty lasted six-and-thirty years. But it began to rest on a precarious basis. For now the agents of the house of Hashim, descendants of the Prophet and of his uncle Abbas, commenced to ply secretly, but with vigour and persistency, their task of canvass and intrigue in distant cities, and especially in the provinces of the East. For a long time, the endeavour of these agitators was directed to the advocacy of the Shiya right; that is to say, it was based upon the Divine claim of Aly, and his descendants in the Prophet's line, to the Imamate or leadership over the empire of Islam. . . . The discomfiture of the Shiyas paved the way for the designing advocates of the other Hashimite branch, namely, that of the house of Abbas, the uncle of the Prophet. These had all along been plotting in the background, and watching their opportunity. They now vaunted the claims of this line, and were barefaced enough to urge that, being descended from the uncle of Mahomet through male representatives, they took precedence over the direct descendants of the Prophet himself, because these came through Fatima in the female line. About the year 130 of the Hegira, Abul Abbas, of Abbasside descent, was put forward in Persia, as the candidate of this party, and his claim was supported by the famous general Abu Muslim. Successful in the East, Abu Muslim turned his arms to the West. A great battle, one of those which decide the fate of empires, was fought on the banks of the Zab [750]; and, through the defection of certain Kharejite and Yemen levies, was lost by the Omeyyad army. Merwan II., the last of his dynasty, was driven to Egypt, and there killed in the church of Bussir, whither he had fled for refuge. At the close of the year 132 [Aug. 5, 750], the black flag, emblem of the Abbassides, floated over the battlements of Damascus. The Omeyyad dynasty, after ruling the vast Moslem empire for a century, now disappeared in cruelty and bloodshed. . . . So perished the royal house of the Omeyyads. But one escaped. He fled to Spain, which had never favoured the overweening pretensions of the Prophet's family, whether in the line of Aly or Abbas. Accepted by the Arab tribes, whose influence in the West was paramount, Abd-el-Rahman now laid the foundation of a new Dynasty and perpetuated the Omeyyad name at the magnificent court of Cordova. . . . Thus, with the rise of the Abbassides, the unity of the Caliphate came to an end. Never after, either in theory or in fact, was there a successor to the Prophet, acknowledged as such over all Islam. Other provinces followed in the wake of Spain. The Aghlabite dynasty in the east of Africa, and, west of it, the Edrisites in Fez, both of Alyite descent; Egypt and Sicily under independent rulers; the Tahirite kings in Persia, their native soil; these and others, breaking away from the central government, established kingdoms of their own. The name of Caliph, however it might survive in the Abbasside lineage, or be assumed by less legitimate pretenders, had now altogether lost its virtue and significance."

—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 50.—See also BARMECIDES.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *Mohammadan dynasties*, pp. 12-14.—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the Arabs*, pt. 3.

717-718.—Second repulse from Constantinople. See CONSTANTINOPLE: 717-718.

750.—Extent of territory. See CRUSADES: Map of Mediterranean lands in 1097.

752-759.—Final expulsion from southern Gaul.—During the year of his coronation (752) Pepin the Short—the first of the Carolingians to assume the Frankish crown—having taken measures to reduce Aquitaine to obedience, was diverted, on his march towards that country, into Septimania. The discord prevailing among the Moslems, who had occupied this region of Gaul for more than thirty years, "opened the prospect of an easy conquest. With little fighting, and through the treachery of a Goth named Ansemond, who commanded at Beziers, Agde, Maguelonne, and Nismes, under an Arabian wali, he was enabled to seize those strongholds, and to leave a part of his troops to besiege Narbonne, as the first step toward future success." Then Pepin was called away by war with the Saxons and in Brittany, and was occupied with other cares and conflicts, until 759, when he took up and finished the task of expelling the Saracens from Gaul. "His troops left in occupation of Septimania (752) had steadily prosecuted the siege of Narbonne. . . . Not till after a blockade of seven years was the city surrendered, and then through the treason of the Christians and Goths who were inside the walls, and made secret terms with the beleaguers. They rose upon the Arabs, cut them in pieces, and opened the gates to the Franks. A reduction of Elne, Caucoliberis, and Carcassone followed hard upon that of Narbonne. . . . In a little while the entire Arab population was driven out of Septimania, after an occupation of forty years; and a large and important province, equivalent nearly to the whole of Languedoc, held during the time of the Merovingians by the Wisigoths, was secured to the possession of the Franks. The Arabs, however, though expelled, left many traces of their long residence on the manners and customs of Southern Gaul."—P. Godwin, *History of France: Ancient Gaul*, ch. 15.

756-1031.—Omayyad caliphs of Cordova.—When the struggle of the house of Abbas with the house of Omayya, for the throne of the caliphate at Damascus, was ended by the overthrow of the Omayyads (750), the wretched members of the fallen family were hunted down with unsparing ferocity. "A single youth of the doomed race escaped from destruction. After a long series of romantic adventures, he found his way into Spain [756]; he there found partizans, by whose aid he was enabled to establish himself as sovereign of the country, and to resist all the attempts of the Abbassides to regain, or rather to obtain, possession of the distant province. From this Abderrahman [or Abdalrahman] the Ommiad proceeded the line of Emirs and Caliphs of Cordova, who reigned in splendour in the West for three centuries after their house had been exterminated in their original possessions. . . . When the Ommiad Abdalrahman escaped into Spain . . . the peninsula was in a very disordered state. The authority of the Caliphs of the East was nearly nominal, and governors rose and fell with very little reference to their distant sovereign. . . . The elevation of Abdalrahman may have been the result, not so much of any blind preference of Ommiads to Abbassides, as of a conviction that nature designed the Iberian peninsula to form an independent state. But at that early

period of Mahometan history an independent Mahometan state could hardly be founded, except under the guise of a rival Caliphate. . . . And undoubtedly nothing is more certain than that the Ommiads of Cordova were in every sense a rival dynasty to the Abbassides of Bagdad. The race of Moawiyah seem to have decidedly improved by their migration westward. The Caliphs of Spain must be allowed one of the highest places among Mahometan dynasties. In the duration of their house and in the abundance of able princes which it produced, they yield only to the Ottoman Sultans, while they rise incomparably above them in every estimable quality. . . . The most splendid period of the Saracen empire in Spain was during the tenth century. The great Caliph Abdalrahman Annasir Ledinallah raised the magnificence of the Cordovan monarchy to its highest pitch. . . . The last thirty years of the Ommiad dynasty are a mere wearisome series of usurpations and civil wars. In 1031 the line became extinct, and the Ommiad empire was cut up into numerous petty states. From this moment the Christians advance, no more to retreat, and the cause of Islam is only sustained by repeated African immigrations."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquest of the Saracens*, lecture 4-5.—See also EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Saracen and Moorish learning.

ALSO IN: H. Coppée, *Conquest of Spain by the Arab-Moors*, bk. 6, ch. 5; bk. 7, ch. 1-4; bk. 8, ch. 1.

763.—Caliphate transferred to Bagdad.—"The city of Damascus, full as it was of memorials of the pride and greatness of the Ommiad dynasty, was naturally distasteful to the Abbassides. The Caliph Mansur had commenced the building of a new capital in the neighbourhood of Kufa, to be called after the founder of his family, Hashimiyeh. The Kufans, however, were devoted partisans of the descendants of Ali. . . . The growing jealousy and distrust between the two houses made it inadvisable for the Beni Abbas to plant the seat of their empire in immediate propinquity to the headquarters of the Ali faction, and Mansur therefore selected another site [about 763]. This was Bagdad, on the western bank of the Tigris [fifteen miles above Medain, which was the ancient Seleucia and Ctesiphon]. It was well suited by nature for a great capital. The Tigris brought commerce from Diyar Bekr on the north, and through the Persian Gulf from India and China on the east; while the Euphrates, which here approaches the Tigris at the nearest point, and is reached by a good road, communicated directly with Syria and the west. The name Bagdad is a very ancient one, signifying 'given or founded by the deity,' and testifies to the importance of the site. The new city rapidly increased in extent and magnificence, the founder and his next two successors expending fabulous sums upon its embellishment, and the ancient palaces of the Sassanian kings, as well as the other principal cities of Asia, were robbed of their works of art for its adornment."—E. H. Palmer, *Haroun Alraschid, caliph of Bagdad*, ch. 2.—"Baghdad, answering to its proud name of 'Dar es-Salam,' 'The City of Peace,' became for a time the capital of the world, the centre of luxury, the emporium of commerce, and the seat of learning."—W. Muir, *Annals of the early caliphate*, ch. 50. 815-945.—Decline and temporal fall of the caliphate at Bagdad.—"It was not until nearly the close of the first century after the Hejira that the banners of Islam were carried into the regions beyond the Oxus, and only after a great deal of hard fighting that the oases of Bokhara and Samarkand were annexed to the dominions of the

khalif. In these struggles, a large number of Turks—men, women, and children—fell into the power of the Moslems, and were scattered over Asia as slaves. . . . The khalif Mamoun [son of Haroun Alraschid—815-834] was the first sovereign who conceived the idea of basing the royal power on a foundation of regularly drilled Turkish soldiers."—R. D. Osborn, *Islam under the khalifs of Bagdad*, pt. 3, ch. 1.—"The Caliphs from this time leaned for support on great bands of foreign mercenaries, chiefly Turks, and their captains became the real lords of the empire as soon as they realised their own strength. How thoroughly the Abbásid caliphate had been undermined was shown all at once in a shocking manner, when the Caliph Mutawakkil was murdered by his own servants at the command of his son, and the parricide Muntasir set upon the throne in his stead (Dec., 861). The power of the Caliphs was now at an end; they became the mere playthings of their own savage warriors. The remoter, sometimes even the nearer, provinces were practically independent. The princes formally recognised the Caliph as their sovereign, stamped his name upon their coins, and gave it precedence in public prayer, but these were honours without any solid value. Some Caliphs, indeed, recovered a measure of real power, but only as rulers of a much diminished State. Theoretically the fiction of an undivided empire of Islam was maintained, but it had long ceased to be a reality. The names of Caliph, Commander of the Faithful, Imám, continued still to inspire some reverence; the theological doctors of law insisted that the Caliph, in spiritual things at least, must everywhere bear rule, and control all judicial posts; but even theoretically his position was far behind that of a pope, and in practice was not for a moment to be compared to it. . . . In the tenth century the Buids, three brothers who had left the hardly converted Gilán (the mountainous district at the southwest angle of the Caspian Sea) as poor adventurers, succeeded in conquering for themselves the sovereign command over wide domains, and over Bagdad itself [establishing what is known as the dynasty of the Buids or Bouides, or Bowides, or Dilemites]. They even proposed to themselves to displace the Abbásids and set descendants of Ali upon the throne, and abandoned the idea only because they feared that a Caliph of the house of Ali might exercise too great an authority over their Shiite soldiers, and so become independent; while, on the other hand, they could make use of these troops for any violence they chose against the Abbásid puppet who sat in Mansúr's seat."—T. Nöldeke, *Sketches from eastern history* ch. 3.

823.—Conquest of Crete. See CRETE: 823.

827-878.—Conquest of Sicily. See SICILY: 827-878.

838.—Amorian war against Theophilus, emperor of Byzantine empire.—Destruction of Amorium. See AMORIAN WAR.

840-890.—Saracens in southern Italy. See ITALY (SOUTHERN): 800-1016.

868-901.—Revolt of Samanides. See SAMANIDES.

10th century.—Education in Spain. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Saracen and Moorish learning.

908-1171.—Fatimite caliphs.—"Egypt, during the ninth and tenth centuries, was the theatre of several revolutions. Two dynasties of Turkish slaves, the Tolumides and the Ilkshidites, established themselves in that country, which was only reunited to the Caliphate of Bagdad for a brief period between their usurpations. But early in the ninth century a singular power had been growing

up on its western border. . . . A schism arose among the followers of Ali [the shi'ahs, who recognized no succession to the Prophet, or Imamate—leadership in Islam—except in the line of descent from Ali, nephew of Mahomet and husband of Mahomet's daughter, Fatima] regarding the legitimate succession to the sixth Imam, Jaffer. His eldest son, Ismail or Ishmael, dying before him, Jaffer appointed another son, Moussa or Moses, his heir. But a large body of the sect denied that Jaffer had the right to make a new nomination; they affirmed the Imamate to be strictly hereditary, and formed a new party of Ishmaelians, who seem to have made something very like a deity of their hero. A chief of this sect, Mahomet, surnamed Al Mehdi, or the Leader, a title given by the Shi'ahs to their Imams, revolted in Africa in 908. He professed himself, though his claims were bitterly derided by his enemies, to be a descendant of Ishmael, and consequently to be the legitimate Imam. Armed with this claim, it was of course his business to acquire, if he could, the temporal power of a Caliph; and as he soon obtained the sovereignty of a considerable portion of Africa, a rival Caliphate was consequently established in that country. This dynasty assumed the name of Fatimites, in honour of their famous ancestress Fatima, the daughter of the Prophet. The fourth in succession, Muezzeddin by name, obtained possession of Egypt about 967. . . . The Ikshidites and their nominal sovereigns, the Abbassides, lost Egypt with great rapidity. Al Muezzeddin transferred his residence thither, and founded [at Fostat—see CALIPHATE: 640-646] the city of Cairo, which he made his capital. Egypt thus, from a tributary province, became again, as in the days of its Pharaohs and Ptolemies, the seat of a powerful kingdom. The claims of the Egyptian Caliphs were diligently preached throughout all Islam, and their temporal power was rapidly extended into the adjoining provinces of Syria and Arabia. Palestine became again . . . the battlefield for the lords of Egypt and of the East. Jerusalem, the holy city of so many creeds, was conquered and reconquered. . . . The Egyptian Caliphate . . . played an important part in the history of the Crusades. At last, in 1171, it was abolished by the famous Saladin. He himself became the founder of a new dynasty; but the formal aspect of the change was that Egypt, so long schismatic, was again restored to the obedience of Bagdad. Saladin was lord of Egypt, but the titles of the Abbassid Caliph, the true Commander of the Faithful, appeared again on the coin and in the public prayers, instead of that of his Fatimite rival."—E. A. Freeman, *History and conquest of the Saracens*, lecture 4.—See also JERUSALEM: 1144-1187.

ALSO IN: S. Lane-Poole, *Mohammadan dynasties*, pp. 70-73.—W. C. Taylor, *History of Mohammedanism and its sects*, ch. 8 and 10.

929.—Massacre of Moslems in Mecca by Carmathians. See CARMATHIANS.

961-963.—Loss of Crete. See CRETE: 961-963.

962-1187.—Ghaznevid empire. See INDIA: 977-1200; TURKEY: 909-1183.

964-976.—Losses in Syria and Cilicia. See ANTIQCH: 969; BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 963-1025.

1004-1160.—Seljuk conquests. See TURKEY: 1004-1063 to 1092-1160.

1017.—Expulsion from Sardinia by the Pisans and Genoese. See PISA: Origin of the city.

1031-1086.—Fragmentary kingdoms in Spain. See SPAIN: 1031-1086.

1060-1090.—Loss of Sicily. See ITALY: 1000-1090.

1083-1085.—Recovery of Toledo. See TOLEDO, SPAIN: 1083-1085.

1086-1147.—Empire of the Almoravides. See ALMORAVIDES.

1146-1232.—Empire of the Almohades and the invasion of Spain. See ALMOHADES; SPAIN: 1146-1232.

1240-1453.—Conquests of the Ottoman Turks. See TURKEY: 1240-1326; 1326-1359; 1360-1389; 1389-1403; 1402-1451; 1451-1481.

1258.—Extinction of the caliphate of Bagdad by the Mongols under Hugalü Khan. See BAGDAD: 1258.

1262-1543.—Alleged Abbassid caliphate in Egypt.—Circumstances and nature of Ottoman claim to the caliphate.—"The Caliphate died out definitively in 1258 A. D., when the Tartars under Hulagu Khan sacked Bagdad, putting an end to the Caliphate of the Abbassids, whose race was destroyed. In name and in fact the Caliphs then ceased to exist. None the less, four years later, in 1262, a black man appeared in Egypt, who asserted that he was a member of the Abbassid family who had escaped from the Tartar slaughter. The Egyptian Sultan Baibars I (al-Bundukdari), of the dynasty of the Circassian or Bahrite Mamelukes, thought it would serve his own ends to believe the story, despite its unlikelihood; he solemnly recognised him as Caliph and received from his hands the investiture of Sultan of Egypt. In this way Baibars sought to be pardoned by public opinion for having mounted the throne through the slaughter of his predecessor by his own hand; he also counted on increasing his dignity before the other Mussulman princes, who now no longer derived their power from a supreme authority. Thus arose a new ephemeral Abbassid Caliphate of Egypt; a Caliphate purely nominal, because, besides the fact that it was not recognised by the majority of the Islamic Sovereigns, it delegated all its powers to others, renounced the right of coining money in its own name (this being one of the chief emblems of sovereignty among the Mussulmans), and only reserved for itself the office of drawing rich allowances and granting the investiture to every new Egyptian sultan. It appears also that in course of time some Princes outside of Egypt requested investiture from these caricatures of the Caliphs who, in any case, had never any religious powers, nor any moral or material authority whatsoever before the *ülama*. In 1517 the Ottoman Selim I conquered Egypt and broke the dominion of the Mameluke Sultans (see TURKEY: 1481-1520). The Abbassid pseudo-Caliph al-Mutawakkil was brought to Constantinople as a private person; after the death of Selim (1520 A. D.) he was able to return to Egypt, where he died in 1543, or, according to others, in 1538. And with him disappeared for ever this artificial resurrection of the Abbassid Caliphate. The Ottoman Sultans meantime reached the summit of their power and made Europe tremble before them. Then it was that the flattery of learned men about the court, in dedications of books, smuggled in the name of Caliph or some allusion to the Caliphate among the long list of official titles of the Ottoman Sultans; nothing but literary flattery this in complete opposition to the Islamic doctrine that the Caliph must be of Koreishite origin. And in fact Caliph titles do not appear in diplomas, moneys, or official inscriptions emanating directly from the Sultan, in that pompous Turkish heaping-up of titles, where, only exceptionally, there appears, among numerous other epithets, that of *khilafet-penahi*, 'asylum of the Caliphate.'"—C. S. Nallino, *Notes on the nature of the "caliphate" in general and on the alleged*

"*Ottoman caliphate*," pp. 14-16.—See also EGYPT: 1250-1517.

1273-1492.—Decay and fall of the last Moorish kingdom in Spain. See SPAIN: 1273-1460; 1476-1492.

1330.—Extent of territory in Asia. See MONGOLIA: Map.

1461.—Conquest of Trebizond. See TREBIZOND: 1204-1461.

1492-1609.—Persecution and expulsion from pain. See MOORS: 1492-1609.

1519-1605.—Mogul conquest of India. See INDIA: 1399-1605.

1919-1920.—Question of the caliphate in connection with the Turkish peace treaty.—"Among the many problems connected with the Turkish Peace Treaty none presents greater difficulty than the problem of Constantinople. In the main the problem is political and strategic, but over and above such considerations the highly controversial religious issue is involved. For 1,100 years Constantinople was the seat of the East Roman Emperor, and as such the capital of Orthodox Christendom, while for the last 477 years it has been the capital of the Ottoman Empire, whose sovereign has for exactly the last 400 years united with his temporal sovereignty the Sunni Khalifate of Islam. Some historians allege that Mutawakil made a formal transfer of his hereditary office to the Sultan of Turkey, some say to Selim the Grim, some to the latter's successor, Suleiman the Magnificent, who added Mesopotamia and much of Europe to his dominions. Suffice it that Mutawakil left no Abbasid to succeed him in his high office, and that we find the title of Khalif used by Suleiman the Magnificent soon after Mutawakil's death in Constantinople. Thus the Ottoman sovereigns, who have no Arab blood in their veins, acquired from the last of the Abbasids the great titles of Khalif and Emir el Moumenin by right of conquest. . . . As the temporal power of Mahommedan princes has been declining there is a profound sentiment that the spiritual authority of the *de facto* khalif should receive increasing recognition as the final authority in the interpretation of the Prophet's religion. In a word, as the 'Emir el Moumenin' has lost temporal power, the other aspect of his office, the Immamat, has grown in importance. Except during the Cairo period from 1260 to 1516, the khalifate has always been held by an independent Mahommedan sovereign with considerable temporal authority. In fact, in the modern conception of the khalifate, the khalif must be an independent ruling sovereign, although his title is derived from the house of Abbas that for two hundred and sixty odd years had no temporal authority. The other conception of the khalifate now current is the right of the khalif to be regarded as the guardian of the holy cities of Medina and Mecca. This guardianship has been lost to the Sultan of Turkey by the revolt of the descendants of the prophet at Mecca and the *de facto* reassertion of their independence by the Mahommedan Arabs. Constantinople is no more a holy city than Damascus, Bagdad, and Cairo, the previous seats of the Eastern Khalifate, from which the Sultan of Turkey derives his claim; but the fact that the Eastern Khalif has had his capital in Constantinople for 400 years has invested the city with a sentiment in Sunni Mahommedan minds which places it not merely high in their regard, but above all cities other than the two holy cities of the Prophet Mahomet. Above all, the khalifate can only be re-transferred from the Turkish House in one of three ways, viz., by surrender to some other Mahommedan ruler, by conquest by another

Mahommedan ruler, or by the assent of the Sunni Mahommedans throughout the world. None but Mahommedans can effect such a transfer, and if anyone else attempted it, it would not only not be recognized by Sunni Mahommedans, but would create among them the most deep-seated opposition and resentment. . . . [Their] sentiment unquestionably is at present that the Sultan of Turkey is the *de facto* successor of the Arab Khalifate and that as such he must be assured an independent sovereignty."—W. O. Gore, *Constantinople and the Moslem khalifate (New Europe, Jan. 15, 1920, pp. 5-10)*.—See also DIPLOMATIC AND CONSULAR SERVICE: Consular service: Status in non-Christian countries.

CALIXTINES, or Utraquists, the so-called conservative Hussites of Bohemia. See BOHEMIA: 1458-1471; 1516-1576.

CALIXTUS I (d. A. D. 223), bishop of Rome 210-223.

Calixtus II (Gudo of Burgundy), (d. 1124), pope 1110-1124. See GERMANY: 1056-1122.

Calixtus III (Alfonso Borgia), (c. 1378-1453), pope 1455-1458.

CALLAO, seaport city of Peru, with a population of over 30,000. Founded in 1537 by the Spaniards; fortified in 1578 against Sir Francis Drake, and repelled the Dutch in 1624; destroyed by earthquake and tidal wave in 1747, with great loss of life; took part in various revolutions for independence, being the last point held by the Spaniards. They were driven out in 1626, and again besieged the town in 1866, but without success. It fell to the Chileans in 1881, being restored again to Peru two years later. See PERU: 1820-1826; 1826-1876.

CALLE REAL, street in Manila, where the Spaniards attacked General Greene during the Spanish-American war. See U. S. A.: 1808 (July-September).

CALLEJA DEL REY, Félix Maria (1750-c. 1820), Spanish general who quelled Mexican rebellion instigated by Hidalgo, 1810; was made Conde de Calderón for his victories in 1811; defeated Morelos, Hidalgo's successor, 1812; viceroy of New Spain, 1813-1816. See MEXICO: 1810-1819.

CALLEVA, one of the greater towns of Roman Britain, the walls of which, found at Silchester enclose an area of three miles in circuit.—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

CALLICRATES (fl. 438 B. C.) Greek architect, one of the builders of the Parthenon on the Acropolis at Athens. See ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS.

CALLIMACHUS (fl. B. C. 260-240), Greek poet and grammarian. See ALEXANDRIA: B. C. 282-246.

CALLINICUS OF HELIOPOLIS, Greek architect, of Syria, held to be the inventor of Greek fire, by which the Saracen fleet was destroyed off Constantinople about 670 A. D. See GREEK FIRE.

CALLINICUS, Battle of, fought in the wars of the Romans with the Persians, on the banks of the Euphrates, Easter eve, 531. The Romans, commanded by Belisarius, suffered an apparent defeat, but they checked an intended advance of the Persians on Antioch.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great Oriental monarchy*, ch. 10.

CALLISTUS. See CALIXTUS.

CALLOQUIM, early name for parlement of Paris. See PARLEMENT OF PARIS.

CALMAR, Union of. See SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1018-1397; 1397-1527.

CALMETTE, Gaston (1858-1914), editor of *Figaro*; killed by Madame Caillaux. See FRANCE: 1913-1914.

CALMETTE, Leon Charles Albert (b. 1863), French physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Experimental method.

CALOGERAS, J. P., Brazilian representative at peace conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

CALONNE, Charles Alexandre de (1734-1802), comptroller-general of finance in France. 1783-1787. See FRANCE: 1774-1788; 1790-1791: Oath of the clergy.

1791.—At conference with Leopold II. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: First movements toward European coalition.

CALPULALPAM, Battle of (1860). See MEXICO: 1848-1861.

CALPURNIAN LAW.—"In this year, B. C. 149, the tribune L. Calpurnius Piso Frugi, who was one of the Roman writers of annals, proposed and carried a Lex Calpurnia, which made a great change in the Roman criminal procedure. Before this time and to the third Punic war, when a magistratus had misconducted himself in his foreign administration by oppressive acts and spoliation, there were several ways of inquiring into his offence. . . . But these modes of procedure were insufficient to protect the subjects of Rome against had magistratus. . . . The remedy for these evils was the establishment of a court under the name of *Quaestio Perpetua de pecuniis repetundis*, the first regular criminal court that existed at Rome. Courts similarly constituted were afterwards established for the trial of persons charged with other offences. The Lex Calpurnia defined the offence of *Repetundæ*, as it was briefly named, to be the taking of money by irregular means for the use of a governor. The name *Repetundæ* was given to this offence, because the object of the procedure was to compel the governor to make restitution. . . . The court consisted of a presiding judge . . . and of a body of judges or jurymen annually appointed. The number of this body of judges is not known, but they were all senators. The judge and a jury taken from the body of the judges tried all the cases which came before them during one year; and hence came the name *Quaestio Perpetua* or standing court, in opposition to the extraordinary commissions which had hitherto been appointed as the occasion arose. We do not know that the Lex Calpurnia contained any penalties. As far as the evidence shows, it simply enabled the complainants to obtain satisfaction."—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, ch. 2.

CALTHORPE, Sir Somerset Arthur Gough (1864-), British admiral who arranged armistice with Turkey at termination of World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: c, 25.

CALUSA INDIANS. See TIMUQUANAN FAMILY.

CALVEN, Battle of (1499). See SWITZERLAND: 1306-1499.

CALVERT, Cecil, Lord Baltimore. See BALTIMORE, CECILUS CALVERT.

CALVERT, Sir George, Lord Baltimore. See BALTIMORE, GEORGE CALVERT.

CALVERT, Leonard (c. 1582-1647), first colonial governor of Maryland, and brother of Cecil Calvert, Lord Baltimore. See MARYLAND: 1633-1637; 1643-1649.

CALVIN, John (1500-1564), French religious reformer and scholar, who brought Protestantism to France and Switzerland. Influenced by Jacques Lefèvre while studying law at Bourges. In 1534 was driven from France by the persecutions of Francis I; went to Basel where he published "The Institutes of Christianity," outlining his theological system. He was then called to Geneva, where,

after 1541, he became civil and religious dictator. He was not only great, therefore, as a religious teacher, but as a social legislator and political figure. "The historical importance of Calvin lies in the fact that he impressed upon Western Protestantism his rigid scholastic creed and his views of ecclesiastical discipline."—F. Seebohm, *Era of the Protestant revolution*, p. 204.—He, more than anyone, gathered together the scattered forces of the Reformation and formulated an ecclesiastical polity.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Calvin; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Genevan reformers; GENEVA: 1536-1564; PAPACY: 1521-1535; PURITANS: 1620-1660.

Denunciation of Copernican ideas. See ASTRONOMY: 130-1609.

Prose Writings. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1498-1550.

CALVINISTS, followers of the doctrines preached by John Calvin. See METHODIST CHURCH; PALATINATE OF THE RHINE: 1518-1572; PAPACY: 1521-1535; PURITANS: 1620-1660.

Influence and spread of doctrines. See EDUCATION: Modern: 16th century: Calvin; GENEVA: 1536-1564; NETHERLANDS: 1566; 1584-1585; 1603-1619; PAPACY: 1570-1597; PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES: Theory of origin.

Modern. See BAPTISTS.

CALVO, Carlos (1824-1906), Argentine publicist and historian. See MONROE DOCTRINE: Latin American doctrines.

CAMALDOLITES (Camaldolese, Camaldulensians), a religious order taking its name from the monastery of Camaldoli near Arezzo, Italy, established by St. Romuald in 1012, and advocating hermit life. In 1922 it was still in existence with a small membership. The forest of the Camaldolites is deservedly famous. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy: 1213-1921.

ALSO IN: *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia*, v. 2, pp. 364-365.—G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 281-282.

CAMARA DE CASTILLA. See SPAIN: 16th century: Machinery of absolutism.

CAMARCUM, the ancient name of the town of Cambrai.

CAMARILLA, a circle of irresponsible chamber counsellors—courtiers—surrounding a sovereign with influences superior to those of his responsible ministers. *Camarilla* is the Spanish diminutive of *cámara* (chamber). It is thought by some to have been originally the inner group of the *Cámara de Castilla*, but is now used generally for any unofficial group controlling the policies of the government. The word first became current during the reign of Ferdinand VII. When this monarch returned to Spain in 1814 he proceeded to crush liberalism in every form. The power back of the throne was the "camarilla," an unofficial cabinet of the king's closest friends. Similarly during the reign of devout and unscrupulous Isabella II (1843-1868) her ministers were powerless against the dictates of the *camarilla* made up of the Queen's many lovers and favorite confessors.

CAMBACERES, Jean Jacques Régis de (1753-1824), French jurist and statesman. In 1792, was member of the convention and its president; member of committee of public safety, 1794, and of the Five Hundred, 1796; minister of justice, 1799; second consul, 1799. Under the empire he was Napoleon's adviser; became arch-chancellor, 1804; president of the senate, prince, duke of Parma; largely responsible for the drafting of the "Code Civil." See FRANCE: 1793 (February-April); 1799 (November-December); 1801-1803; 1804-1805; 1806 (January-October).

CAMBALU, or **Cambalec**, ancient name of Peking, China. See CHINA: 1259-1294.

CAMBAS, **Campa**, **Campo**, or **Antis**, a tribe of South American Indians. See ANDESAINS; BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

CAMBODIA, **Kamboja** or **Cambodge**, a French protectorate since 1863, is included in the territory of French Indo-China and situated in the Annamite Peninsula, southeastern Asia. Its area, 57,900 square miles in 1922, was increased in 1907 by the cession on the part of Siam of the provinces of Battambang and Siamrap. Population, 1,634,252; capital, Phnompne; reigning monarch since 1904, King Sisowath, who is advised by a French resident stationed in the capital. Cambodia is rich in ancient monuments, among the chief of which is the great lost city of Angkor-Thom, built by the Brahmins in the ninth century and now lying deserted and almost submerged by tropical vegetation.—See also INDO-CHINA.

CAMBOJAN EMPIRE. See CAMBODIA; INDO-CHINA.

CAMBON, **Jules Martin** (1845-), French diplomat; 1878-1887, prefect of various departments of France; 1891, governor-general of Algeria; 1897-1902 ambassador to the United States, representing Spain in 1898 when the Spanish-American protocol was drawn up (see U. S. A.: 1898 [July-December]); 1902-1907, ambassador to Spain; 1907-1913, ambassador to Germany where he was active in bringing about a peaceful solution of the Agadir crisis; one of the French plenipotentiaries to the Paris peace conference, holding position of senior member on many important committees.—See also ACADEMY, FRENCH; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 4, 12; 1916: X. German rule in northern France and Belgium: a, 3.

CAMBON, **Pierre Joseph** (1754-1820), French statesman and revolutionist, member of the legislative assembly 1789, and later of the convention; sponsor of numerous able measures in the cause of democracy, some of which are the basis for the modern financial system of France; voted for the death of Louis XVI but opposed the Revolutionary Tribunal; 1793, member of committee of Public Safety; defended Girondists from mob violence; 1794, made a brilliant report on the financial state of France and presented an able plan for the registration of the public debt; opposed Robespierre but was forced to flee upon his downfall to escape arrest; 1815, member of the Chamber of Deputies; exiled on the return of the Bourbons.

CAMBON, **Pierre Paul** (1843-), French diplomat, brother of Jules; served successively as secretary to Jules Ferry, as prefect of various departments of France, and as resident-general of Tunis (see TUNIS: 1881-1898); 1886, ambassador to Spain; 1890, ambassador to Turkey; 1898, ambassador to England, where he was instrumental in bringing about the Anglo-French entente.

CAMBORITUM, a Roman town in Britain. "Camboricum was without doubt a very important town, which commanded the southern fens. It had three forts or citadels, the principal of which occupied the district called the Castleend, in the modern town of Cambridge, and appears to have had a bridge over the Cam, or Granta; of the others, one stood below the town, at Chesterton, and the other above it, at Granchester. Numerous roads branched off from this town. . . . Bede calls the representative of Camboricum, in his time, a 'little deserted city,' and tells us how, when the nuns of Ely wanted a coffin for their saintly abbess, Etheldreda, they found a beautiful sculptured sarcophagus of white marble outside the city

walls of the Roman town."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.—See also UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 912-1257; England: Cambridge.

CAMBRAI, a town and railroad center in northern France.

Ancient and medieval. See BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history.

1581.—Unsuccessful siege by the prince of Parma. See NETHERLANDS: 1581-1584.

1595-1598.—End of the principality of governor Balagni.—Siege and capture by the Spaniards.—Retention under the treaty of Ver-vins. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

1677.—Taken by Louis XIV. See NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

1679.—Ceded to France. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF.

1917-1918.—Its part in World War.—The town was of great strategic importance during the World War; captured by the Germans in the first great drive; re-captured by General Byng, Oct. 9, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1917: I. Summary: b, 11; II. Western front: g; g, 19; 1918: II. Western front: c; c, 3; i; m; o; r.

CAMBRAI, League of (1508).—Plot to seize continental possessions of Venice. See VENICE: 1508-1509.

Dissolved. See ITALY: 1510-1513.

CAMBRAI, Peace of (1529). See ITALY: 1527-1529.

CAMBRIA, the early name of Wales. See BRITAIN: 6th century; CUMBRIA; KYMRV.

CAMBRIDGE, parliamentary and municipal borough and county town of Cambridgeshire on the river Cam, England. Cambridge has long been famous as the seat of a university (see UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 912-1257; England: Cambridge). Its trade is derived from the university and from its being the center of an agricultural district. It has no manufactures.

Name.—"The name of the town was Grantanbryge in 875 and in Domesday Book it is Grentebryge. About 1142, we first meet with the violent change to Cantebruggescir (for the county), the change from Gr- to C- being due to the Normans. This form lasted, with slight changes, down to the fifteenth century. Grantbrige (also spelt Cauntbrige in the name of the same person) survived as a surname till 1401. After 1142 the form Cantebrige is common; it occurs in Chaucer as a word of four syllables and was Latinised as Cantabrigia in the thirteenth century. . . . Then the *b* turned the *n* to *m* giving Cambrige (after 1400) and Cambrige (1458). . . . In the sixteenth century the river is spoken of as 'the Canta, now called the Rhee.' . . . Cam, which appears in Speed's map of 1610, was suggested by the written form Cam-bridge."—T. Atkinson and J. W. Clark, *Cambridge described and illustrated*, pp. 4-5.—See also CAMBORITUM.

Early history.—Probably Castle hill, an ancient earth work, "was constructed in the ninth century as a defence against the incursions of the Danes; . . . during that and the following century Cambridge is said to have been sacked more than once. . . . After the battle [of Ringmere, near Ipswich] the conquerors advanced and reduced Thetford and Cambridge to ashes. . . . With the amalgamation of conquerors and conquered, however, comes the dawn of definite history. . . . It is with this new chapter that Cambridge emerges from obscurity, it was one of the first to develop into an English town. Under new conditions which allowed advantage to be taken of its excellent situation as a commercial town, it begins to grow into a place of importance. Its position at the head of

a waterway communicating with the sea, is a factor in the history of Cambridge, the importance of which it is impossible to exaggerate. . . . Cambridge became an important distributing centre, and the seat of one of the largest fairs in Europe,—for it was probably at this early period that the fame of the Stourbridge Fair began to spread and to bring prosperity to the town.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 5-6.—“In the turbulent days when King John was in arms against his Barons, . . . Cambridge was a place of strategic importance. . . . The Castle was alternately in the hands of the king and of his opponents; John was at Cambridge in the spring of 1216 and again in December of the same year. . . . But the Barons soon afterward retook the Castle and town of Cambridge, where a little later Louis the dauphin of France, whom they had invited as their leader, held a council. . . . The years 1266 and 1267 find Cambridge again a centre in another struggle between King and Barons. In the latter year Henry III was at the University town, taking active steps for its fortification.”—H. P. Stokes, *Outside the Barrwell gate*, p. 1.

Later history.—“The wholesale confiscations by Henry VIII, the rise in the price of provisions in consequence of his debasement of the coinage, and the inclosure of some of the open fields and commons, gave rise to disturbances at Cambridge, as in many parts of the country, in 1549. . . . Robert Kett of Wymondham was . . . heading a formidable insurrection in Norfolk and no doubt gave the people of Cambridge good cause of uneasiness.” But the Earl of Warwick in command of an army marched through Cambridge and defeated Kett and his followers. “The reign of Queen Mary opens with the plot of the Duke of Northumberland. . . . He had hoped to assemble at Cambridge the army which was to place on the throne his daughter-in-law, the Lady Jane Grey.” News of Mary’s having been proclaimed queen reached him “and calling for an Heraldt, himself proclaimed Queen Mary. . . . The part played by Cambridge in the Civil War was less conspicuous than that taken by Oxford but none the less honourable. . . . It contributed most of the men and after London, most of the funds for the Parliament army. . . . By a lively chance the member for Cambridge was, Cromwell himself. . . . We must now pass over a period of a hundred and fifty years. During that time Cambridge has no history. . . . The parliamentary Reform act was passed in 1832; early in the following year began the agitation for municipal reform.” An act was passed in 1835 which received royal assent. “The franchise was extended to all householders within the borough or within seven miles thereof. The governing power was vested in a Council consisting of ten aldermen and thirty councillors, who were to choose one of their number as Mayor.”—T. Atkinson and J. W. Clark, *Cambridge described and illustrated*, pp. 96-120.

ALSO IN: C. W. Stubbs, *Cambridge*.—J. W. Clark, *Cambridge, historical and picturesque*.

CAMBRIDGE, a city in Massachusetts on the western bank of Charles river which separates it from Boston; the seat of Harvard university. It was founded in 1630, and originally bore the name of *Newe Towne*. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620-1630.

1775-1776.—Headquarters of Washington. See U. S. A.: 1775-1776: Washington in command at Cambridge.

CAMBRIDGE PLATFORM. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1646-1651.

CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY. See LATITUDINARIANS; UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 912-1257: England: Cambridge; WRANGLERS.

CAMBYSES, second king of the Medes and Persians (529-521 B. C.) and son of Cyrus the Great Conquered Egypt 525 B. C. See EGYPT: B. C. 525-332; GREECE: B. C.: 500-493: Rising of Ionians of Asia Minor against Persians; PERSIA: B. C. 549-521.

CAMDEN, Charles Pratt, 1st earl (1714-1794), English lord chancellor. Ardent supporter of Pitt’s policies. See U. S. A.: 1766: Repeal of Stamp Act.

CAMDEN, William (1551-1623), English historian. See HISTORY: 23.

CAMDEN, Battle of (1780). See U. S. A.: 1780 (February-August).

CAMEL, Battle of the (656). See CALIPHATE: 661.

CAMELS: In Warfare. See WORLD WAR: 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1, iv; c, 2, ii.

CAMERINI, Eugenio (1811-1875), Italian critic. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1860-1914.

CAMERON, Charles Duncan (d. 1870), British consul. See ABYSSINIA: 1834-1889.

CAMERON, Simon (1799-1889), American politician. Member of Senate from Pennsylvania, 1845-1850, 1857-1861, 1867-1877; secretary of war under Lincoln, 1861; resigned, 1862; appointed minister to Russia, 1862.

CAMERONIAN REGIMENT.—In 1680, when Claverhouse was raising the Highland clans in favor of James II, “William Cleland, who had fought with distinguished bravery at Bothwell, and was one of the few men whom Claverhouse feared, made an offer to the [Scottish] Estates to raise a regiment among the Cameronians, under the colonelcy of the Earl of Angus, and the offer was accepted. Such was the origin of the Cameronian regiment. Its first lieutenant-colonel was Cleland; its first chaplain was Shields. Its courage was first tried at Dunkeld, where these 800 Covenanted warriors rolled back the tide of Celtic invasion; and since that, undegenerate though changed, it has won trophies in every quarter of the world.”—J. Cunningham, *Church history of Scotland*, v. 2, ch. 7.

CAMERONIANS, an organization of Scottish Covenanters, the followers of Richard Cameron, which took the title of Reformed Presbyterians in 1743. It was from this group that the famous Cameronian regiment was formed. See SCOTLAND: 1681-1689; 1680 (August).

CAMEROONS, or Kamerun, former German colony (1884-1919) on the bight of Biafra; situated between Nigeria and French Congo, running north to the southern shores of Lake Chad. “The large bay or estuary in the Gulf of Guinea, lying south of Nigeria and facing the island of Fernando-Po, was discovered by Portuguese navigators in the fifteenth or sixteenth century and christened the Rio dos Camaroes (the River of Prawns), from the abundance of crustacea that infested its waters. The name was also used to designate the neighbouring mountains, which rise to the north-west of the bay. The English usage, until the end of the nineteenth century, was to confine the term, the Cameroons, to the mountain range, and to speak of the estuary as the Cameroon River. It was left to the acquisitive Germans to extend the use of the name in its Teutonic form—Kamerun—to the whole Protectorate.”—A. T. Calvert, *German African empire*, pp. 285-286.—See also AFRICA: Map.

Exploration of the interior.—“Although the commercial activities of the tribes inhabiting the African Mohammedan empires, and the construction of trade routes connecting Senegal with the Red Sea, had opened up the Soudan to Europeans,

the territory which since 1884 has been known as German Cameroon was practically unexplored at the beginning of the nineteenth century. In 1822 an English expedition succeeded in reaching Lake Chad and exploring its western and southern boundaries. This discovery was supplemented in 1851-52 by Barth and Overweg. Barth went from Kuka to Yola, and discovered the upper course of the Benue. He penetrated further, through the country south of Lake Chad to Bagirmi. . . . But all efforts to penetrate into the interior were frustrated by the impracticable condition of the roads, the unhealthiness of the coast district—which was for the greater part uninhabited virgin forest—and by the hostile attitude of the natives. . . . The effort to reach the Cameroon estuary was frustrated by the opposition of the Bakoko; and after a journey of much difficulty the expedition returned to the coast. In 1899 a station was established and a foothold secured. In the same year the region of Duala was explored, and the forest district traversed, the plateau of Baliland was ascended, and the grassy lands reached. With indescribable difficulty the districts from Ibi on the Benue to Yola were penetrated. In 1902-4 an Anglo-German expedition, after a very minute survey, fixed the boundary line between Yola and Lake Chad, and in 1908 an agreement was made between Germany and France regarding the south and east boundaries. In 1907-8 the frontier between Cameroon and the Nigerias was surveyed by the British and German representatives, and the approximate line of demarcation subsequently settled between the two Governments was fixed and marked by an Anglo-German commission in 1912-13.—*Ibid.*, pp. 288-290.

Occupation by Germany.—"The establishment of German trading firms and factories at various places on the West African coast suggested to the Imperial Chancellor the practicability of laying the foundations of his projected German Colonial Empire in the Cameroon region of the Dark Continent. On March 19th, 1884, Dr. Nachtigal, a former Consul at Tunis, was instructed to proceed on this civilising mission, and on July 5th and 6th he hoisted the German flag at Bayida and Lome, in Togoland. On the 10th of that month the English gunboat *Goshawk* entered the Cameroon River, and the mission's hope of further extending the sphere of German influence on the coast of West Africa appeared doomed to extinction. But the *Goshawk* departed on the following day, leaving the field clear for Nachtigal, who rushed through some agreements with the chiefs Deido, Bell and Akva, declared the country to be under the protection of Germany on July 14th, and appointed [Dr. Max] Buchner Provisional Governor of the newly acquired territory. The new Governor acknowledged the protest against German occupation, which was formally made by the British Consul on July 19th, and proceeded to hoist the German flag at Bimbia, Maliba, and Batanga. . . . On May 7th, 1885, a treaty was concluded by which the British waived their claims in favour of Germany, who reciprocated by renouncing their nominal claims to Forcados, at the mouth of the Niger, and to St. Lucia. In the same year the French ceded Great Batanga and the island west of Kwakwa-Kriek in exchange for the German possessions in the Cameroons, under the Governorship of Baron von Goden. In July, 1911, the German cruiser *Panther* appeared off the coast of Morocco, at Agadir, for the alleged purpose of protecting German interests. . . . The incident was ultimately closed by the cession to Germany of the French territory to the south of their Cameroon colony, which was subsequently

incorporated with it under the name of New Cameroon. The transfer was made in June, 1913. . . . In the twenty-eight years of their occupation the Germans had established courts of justice at Buea [the seat of the government], Duala, Kribi, and Lomie, custom houses at Duala and Buea, thirty-eight post offices throughout the territory, and had maintained order among the natives by means of twelve companies of imperial troops. [They had constructed railroads and telegraph lines, and increased the trade of the colony nearly 37,000,000 marks.]. . . . The want of means of communication was found a hindrance in the economic development of the territory, which was admittedly possessed of 'unlimited liabilities.' . . . Vast tracts in the interior were proved to be suited for cotton cultivation; oil palms, cocoa, and rubber were ascertained to be of 'incalculable wealth,' and the Cameroons were described by Dr. Grotewold as among the most productive countries in the world. But the administration, or the critics of the administration of the Protectorate, had discovered that the lack of proper means of communication was not the only factor that retarded the progress of this richly endowed country. The unrest among the natives had revealed on the part of the authorities the lack of that sympathetic understanding of their native subjects which makes for successful colonisation. Their treatment of the natives was culpably injudicious, and their mistakes in dealing with them were so frequent and serious that the relations between the Government and the native population were constantly strained, and the services of the Imperial troops were in great demand."—*Ibid.*, pp. 286-295.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation: Later 19th century; FRANCE: 1910-1912.

Operations during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: VI. Africa: a; 1915: VIII. AFRICA: c; c, 2.

Status after the World War.—In 1916 French and British troops occupied the Cameroons, which was later divided between them by the treaty of Versailles. The larger portion, 166,489 square miles, was assigned to France as a mandate. The British acquired a strip of 33,000 square miles from the sea to Lake Chad along the Nigerian frontier, which is administered by the governor of Nigeria.

CAMINO REAL, California. See CALIFORNIA: 1760.

CAMISARDS, French Protestants who fought in the reign of Louis XIV to restore their church. In England they were known as the French prophets.—See also FRANCE: 1702-1710.

CAMOENS (CAMOES), Luis Vaz de (c. 1524-1580), greatest of the Portuguese poets. Served under John III in the expedition against Morocco, and in India. Spent several years in the East Indies amid great vicissitudes. His great epic poem, the "Lusiad (Os Lusíadas)" celebrated the history of Portugal; also developed the Portuguese lyric to its greatest perfection.

CAMORRA, CAMORRISTI, CAMORRISTS, a Neapolitan secret society which practically controlled Naples during the nineteenth century. Its origin is obscure, but it probably came from a similar organization in Spain. "This was 'La Garduna'—the mother of the Camorra. As early as 1417 it had rules, customs, and officers identical with those of the Camorra of the nineteenth century, and, like it, flourished in the jails, which were practically under its control. Undoubtedly this organization found its way into Sicily and Naples in the wake of the Spanish occupation of the thirteenth century, and germinated in the loathsome prisons of the period until it was ready to

burst forth into open activity under the Bourbons."—A. Train, *Courts, criminals and the Camorra*, p. 147.—"It was not easy to obtain exact proof of the operation of this authority [camorra], for it was impatient of question, its vengeance was prompt, and the instrument of that vengeance was the knife. In speaking of it as one authority it is possible to err, for different forms or branches of this secret institution at times revealed their existence by the orders which they issued. This secret influence was that of the Camorra, or Camorristi, a sort of combination of the violence of the middle ages, of the trades union tyranny of Sheffield, and of the blackmail levy of the borders. The Camorristi were a body of unknown individuals who subsisted on the public, especially on the smaller tradespeople. A man effected a sale of his ware; as the customer left his shop a man of the people would enter and demand the tax on the sale for the Camorra. None could escape from the odious tyranny. It was impalpable to the police. It did not confine itself to the industry of illicit taxation. It issued its orders. When the Italian Parliament imposed stamp duties, that sensibly increased the cost of litigation, that indispensable luxury of the Neapolitans, the advocates received letters warning them to cease all practice in the courts so long as these stamp duties were enforced. 'Otherwise,' continued the mandate, 'we shall take an early opportunity of arranging your affairs.' Signed by 'the Camorra of the avvocati.' The arraignment hinted at was to be made by the knife."—*Trinity of Italy; by an English civilian*, p. 70.

1820-1860.—Bourbon persecutions.—Rise of the Camorra.—"But the continuance of the Camorra in Italy to-day is directly due to the succession of tyrants who about a century ago allowed the patriots of Naples and Sicily to rot in prison or hung them up on scaffolds in the public squares. The Bourbon rule in the 'Kingdom of the Two Sicilies' was one of the most despicable in history. In eleven days in 1793 one hundred and twenty professors, physicians, and priests were executed by the public hangman in Naples. This was a mere foretaste of what was coming. When Napoleon dethroned the Bourbons in 1805 and made his brother Joseph 'King of Naples,' there dawned an era of enlightenment and reform which continued when Joseph was succeeded by Joachim Murat in 1808; but the Congress of Vienna in 1815 reinstated the old dynasty and recalled Ferdinand I, who had been lurking in Sardinia, to the throne. Then the horrors began again. A period of retrogression, of wholesale persecutions and executions, followed. Never was there anything like the nightmare of bloody politics which lasted through the reigns of Ferdinand I (1825), of Francis I (1830), of Ferdinand II (1850), and of Francis II, until the entry of Garibaldi into Naples in 1860. The oppressions of the Bourbons and the struggle of the patriots of Italy for freedom and the Risorgimento stimulated secret organization. No other means to combat tyranny was, in fact, possible. . . . It is said on excellent authority that in 1820 there were seventy thousand persons in the city of Naples alone who belonged to secret societies. In this year we first hear of the Camorra by name, and for the next forty years it spread and flourished until it became so powerful that the government of the 'Two Sicilies' had perforce to enter into treaty with it and finally (in 1860) to turn over to it the policing of the city of Naples. Indeed, it may be that some such extra-legal organization was a practical necessity if existence were to be tolerable at all. . . . In the days from 1820 to 1860, to be a Camorrist was a

matter of pride and a rare distinction among the baser sort. So far from concealing his membership in it, the Camorrista vaunted it abroad, even affecting a peculiar costume which rendered him unmistakable. A red necktie, the loose ends of which floated over either shoulder, a parti-colored sash, and a cane heavily loaded with brass rings, marked him as a 'bad man' during this romantic period. But, however picturesque it may have been, the Camorra soon became the most dreaded and loathsome secret society in the world."—A. Train, *Courts, criminals and the Camorra*, pp. 144-146, 148.

1860-1900.—Camorra bassa and Camorra alta.—Power of Camorra in politics.—Casalet trial.—"From 1860 on the Camorra entered upon a new phase, a sort of duplex existence, having on the one hand its old criminal organization (otherwise known as the *Camorra bassa*) and on the other a group of politicians or ring with wide-spread ramifications. . . . This 'smart set' and the ring connected with it was known as the *Camorra alta* or *Camorra elegante*, and from the advent of Garibaldi to the present time the strictly criminal operations of the society have been secondary in importance to its political significance. . . . As early as 1862 a raid was conducted by the government upon the organization—Sparenta, the Minister of Police, arresting three hundred Camorristi in one day. But he accomplished little. From this time on until 1900 the history of the Camorra is that of a corrupt political ring having a standing army of crooks and rascals by means of which to carry out its bargains. During this period many serious attempts were made to exterminate it, but practically to no purpose. In 1863 another fruitless series of raids filled the jails of Naples, and even of Florence and Turin, with its members; but the society continued to flourish—less openly. The resignation of Nicotera as Prime Minister in 1876 was followed by a burst of activity among the Camorristi, but in 1877 the government made a serious effort to put down the Mafia in Sicily, while in 1880 the murder of Bonelli in a foul dive of the Camorra in Naples resulted in the prosecution of five Camorristi for his murder. The trial, like that of 1911-12, took place, for reasons of safety, at Viterbo. The witnesses testified freely upon every subject save the Camorra, and could not be induced to suggest that the assassination had been the result of a conspiracy. 'The word Camorra seemed to burn their tongues.' The jury were so impressed by the obvious terror which the society inspired in the Neapolitans that they found all the five—Esposito, Romano, Tiniscalchi, Langella, and Trombetta—guilty, and they were sentenced to forced labor in the galleys. Apparently there was a sort of renaissance of the Camorra about 1880, at the death of Victor Emmanuel II, and under the new administration of Humbert it began to be increasingly active in political affairs. . . . The 'Ring,' affiliated as it is with the leaders of the society, is still the most dangerous manifestation of the Camorra. Historically, it is true, it was known as the *alta Camorra* or *Camorra elegante*, but in ordinary parlance these terms are generally used to describe Camorristi more closely related to the actual district organizations, yet of a superior social order. . . . They also furnish the influence when it is needed to get Camorristi out of trouble, and mix freely in the fast life of Naples and elsewhere. The power of the Ring reached its climax in 1900. In return for the services of the *Camorra bassa* in electing its deputies to office, the government saw to it that the criminal activities of the society were not interfered with.

... Upon the assassination of King Humbert, in 1900, the situation in Naples was as bad as that of New York City in the days of the Tweed Ring. The ignorant Neapolitans sympathized with the Camorristas as against the police, and voted as they were directed. . . . At this crisis the Socialist newspaper, *La Propaganda*, courageously sprang to the attack of the communal administration, in the persons of the Syndic Summonte and the Deputy Casale, who, smarting under the lash of its excommunication, brought an action of libel against its editor. . . . The trial and exposures created a furore all over Italy. The Prime Minister refused to continue the Royal Commission and announced a general election, and, amid the greatest excitement, the Camorra rallied all its forces for its final struggle in politics. But the citizens of Naples had had enough of the Ring for the time being, and buried all the society's candidates under an avalanche of votes. This was the severest blow ever dealt to the political influence of the Camorra."—*Ibid.*, pp. 160-164, 166.

1906-1912.—Cuocolo murder.—Viterbo trial.—“On June 6, 1906, at Torre del Greco, near Naples, Gennaro Cuocolo, a man of the criminal classes of Naples, was murdered, and about an hour and a half later, at his home, in Naples, his wife, Maria Cuocolo Cutinelli, called *la bella Sorrentina*—the beautiful woman from Sorrento—met with the same fate. According to the story told by the informer Abbatemaggio at the trial . . . at Viterbo, these murders were in execution of a death sentence pronounced against the Cuocolos by the Supreme Tribunal of the Camorra at a banquet held in Bagnoli, a suburb of Naples, ten days before. Cuocolo, a *basista*, or planner of burglaries, forty-five years of age, was the son of a respectable and well-to-do industrial family. . . . For some time, it is said, Cuocolo had been distrusted and hated by the leaders of the Camorra because they believed he was taking too large a share of the booty in the burglaries which he planned, because of his overbearing manner, and because of their suspicions of his good faith. . . . In consequence of Abbatemaggios revelations sixty orders of arrest were sent forth in 1907 and several of the culprits fled. Rapi escaped to Paris; Erricone, after having been concealed for a few weeks near Naples, fled to New York under an assumed name and with a forged passport, where he was finally discovered, together with other Camorristas, by Police Lieutenant Petrosino, who brought about his deportation to Havre. There, by arrangement between the Italian and French Governments, he was arrested. Rapi was seized on the 25th of July, 1908, on a train between Rome and Naples, by Marshal Capuzzuti.”—E. Scrao, *Truth about the Camorra*, (*Outlook*, July 29, 1911, pp. 717, 719).—“At Viterbo, Italy, a trial began [Mar. 11, 1911] of upwards of thirty Neapolitan Camorristas, charged with the murder of Gennaro Cuocolo and his wife on June 5, 1906. The prisoners were in an iron cage in court, the informer Abbatemaggio being protected by another cage. Great difficulty was found in empanelling a jury.”—*Annual Register*, 1911, p. 9 (*Chronicle*).—“At Viterbo, Italy, the Camorra trial closed [July 8, 1912] after about 300 sittings. Four persons were found guilty of the murder of Signor Cuocolo in Naples on June 5, 1906, two of that of his wife, and four others of plotting and commanding the crime. Eight of these prisoners were sentenced to thirty years' imprisonment and others associated with the crime (one a priest) were convicted and sentenced to shorter terms.”—*Annual Register*, 1912, p. 24 (*Chronicle*).

CAMOUFLAGE. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous and auxiliary services; VII.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS.—“Camp Fire is an organized effort to find romance, beauty, and adventure in every day life. It seeks to make the homely task contribute to the joy of every day living. . . . It seeks to develop the home spirit, and make it dominate the life of the entire community. . . . Fire is the symbol of the organization, for around it the first homes were built. Camp Fire stands not only for the home, but also for the genuineness and simplicity of the out-of-doors.”—*Manual of activities for the girls of America*, pp. 3, 6.—Camping, outdoor athletics, and nature lore are prominent features of the program, as well as the care of little children, hygiene and first aid, and the various crafts and graces of the home. The latter group of activities distinguishes the organization from a mere feminine version of Boy Scouts. Lady Baden-Powell's Girl Scouts of England are a similar group, but in no way connected. The American organization was founded in 1912 by Dr. and Mrs. Luther Halsey Gulick. Local groups are under the guidance of an older guardian, usually a woman of special training. The total membership is now (January, 1921) 125,000 girls, plus 7,000 guardians; and in addition to the national headquarters at New York there are local headquarters, with an executive secretary in charge, in twelve of the leading cities of the United States.

CAMP JACKSON, Capture of (1861). See MISSOURI: 1861.

CAMPA, Cambas, Campo, or Antis, a tribe of South American Indians. See ANDESIANS; BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

CAMPAGNA, or Campania, a district of Italy lying in classical times between Latium and Samnium along the Tyrrhenian sea known to the Romans as Campani and to later Greek writers (first century A. D.) as Campania. It was considerably smaller than modern Campania and varied in size during different periods of Roman history, reaching its greatest extent under Diocletian. Its earliest inhabitants, the Ausones and Osci were overcome by the Etruscans who in turn were conquered by the Romans. Capua, the chief city of Campania, was destroyed by the Romans in 211 B. C. for deserting to Hannibal. It is a land of remarkable fertility and beauty of scenery, in consequence of which it was known to the ancients as *felix*. The Romans covered it with a network of roads which reached out to all the important towns, and its chief harbor Puteoli was of considerable commercial importance during the second and first century B. C. The attractiveness of its climate made it a favorite summer resort of Roman nobles, whose villas lined its shores especially in the neighborhood of Baiae. “The name of Campania,” says Pelligrini, ‘which was first applied to the territory of Capua alone, extended itself by successive re-arrangements of the Italian provinces over a great part of Central Italy, and then gradually shrank back again into its birth-place, and at last became restricted to the limits of one city only, Naples, and that one of the least importance in Italy. What naturally followed was the total disuse of the name.’ . . . The term Campania, therefore, became obsolete except in the writings of a few mediaeval authors, whose statements created some confusion by their ignorance of the different senses in which it had at different times been used. An impression seems, however, to have prevailed that the district of Capua had been so named on account of its flat and fertile nature, and hence every similar tract of plain country came to be called a *campagna* in the Italian language. The exact time when the name,

which had thus become a mere appellative, was applied to the Roman Campagna is not accurately ascertained. . . . It will be seen that the term Roman Campagna is not a geographical definition of any district or province with clearly fixed limits, but that it is a name loosely employed in speaking of the tract which lies round the city of Rome."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, ch. 14, note at end.—See also CUMAE: ROME: Map of ancient Italy; SABINES; SAMNITES.

ALSO IN: Sir W. Gell, *Topography of Rome*, v. 1. CAMPALDINO, Battle of. See FLORENCE: 1289.

CAMPANIA, France. See CHAMPAGNE.

CAMPANIA, Italy. See CAMPAGNA.

CAMPANIA REMENSIS. See CHAMPAGNE.

CAMPANILE OF ST. MARK'S (Venice), Fall of. See VENICE: 1902.

CAMPBELL, famous Scottish family. See ARGYLL.

CAMPBELL, Alexander (1788-1866), American religious leader. See DISCIPLES OF CHRIST.

CAMPBELL, Sir Archibald (1769-1843), British general. See INDIA: 1823-1833.

CAMPBELL, Charles (1807-1876), American historian. See VIRGINIA: 1900.

CAMPBELL, Sir Colin, Lord Clyde. See CLYDE, COLIN CAMPBELL.

CAMPBELL, John (d. 1806), British general in America. See U. S. A.: 1778-1779: War carried into the south.

CAMPBELL, John A. (1811-1880), American jurist. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February).

CAMPBELL, Robert, erected fur trading posts. See WYOMING: 1834-1862.

CAMPBELL, Thomas (1763-1854), American divine. See DISCIPLES OF CHRIST.

CAMPBELL, Thomas (1777-1844), Scottish poet. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 1780-1830.

CAMPBELL, Thomas Edward (1878-), elected governor of Arizona. See ARIZONA: 1917.

CAMPBELL, Lord William (d. 1778), appointed governor of South Carolina. Forced to retire. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1775.

CAMPBELL, William Bowen (1807-1867), Governor of Tennessee. See TENNESSEE: 1834-1856.

CAMPBELL, William Wallace (1862-), American astronomer. See ASTRONOMY: 1796-1921.

CAMPBELL SYSTEM. See AGRICULTURE: Modern: United States: 1886-1910.

CAMPBELL-BANNERMAN, Sir Henry (1836-1908), English statesman. From 1860, Liberal member of Parliament from Stirling Burghs; financial secretary of the war office, 1871-1874, 1880-1882; secretary to the admiralty, 1882-1884; chief secretary for Ireland, 1884-1885; secretary for war in Gladstone and Rosebery cabinets, 1886, 1892-1895. From 1899 leader of the Liberal party in the House of Commons; prime minister and first lord of the treasury December, 1905-April, 1908.—See also ENGLAND: 1905-1906; 1908 (April); ORANGE FREE STATE: 1902-1920.

Address at colonial conference. See BRITISH EMPIRE: 1907.

CAMPBELLITES (Rowites), followers of John McLeod Campbell, a minister in the Scottish kirk at Row who was deposed by the presbytery of Dumbarton in 1830 for his anti-Calvinistic teachings. This name is also attached to the followers of Alexander Campbell who founded a religious sect in the United States. See DISCIPLES OF CHRIST.

CAMPECHE, a region embraced in the penin-

sula of Yucatan. See YUCATAN: 1911-1918; MEXICO: Map.

CAMPER, Peter (1722-1789), Dutch physician noted for his work in comparative anatomy. See ANTHROPOLOGY: Definition.

CAMPERDOWN, Naval battle of. See ENGLAND: 1797.

CAMPHOR: Early experiments. See CHEMISTRY: Practical application: Essential oils and perfumes: Synthesis of.

Development of the industry at Formosa. See FORMOSA: 1906-1919.

CAMPO, Cambas, Campa, or Antis. See ANDESAINS; BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

CAMPO, a trading post in the Cameroons, occupied by the Allies during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VIII. Africa: c, 3.

CAMPO FREGOSO, Tommaso, doge of Genoa. See GENOA: 1381-1422.

CAMPO SANTO, Battle of (1743). See ITALY: 1741-1743.

CAMPO-FORMIO, Peace of. See FRANCE: 1797 (May-October).

CAMPO-TENESE, Battle of (1806). See FRANCE: 1805-1806 (December-September).

CAMPOMANES, Pedro Rodriguez, Conde de (1723-1802), Spanish writer and statesman. President of the council of Castile, 1788-1793. His writings cover many subjects including art, economic conditions and history.—See also SPAIN: 1759-1788.

CAMPOS, Arsenio Martinez de (1831-1900), Spanish general. Sent to Cuba, 1869; recalled to Spain to help suppress Carlist uprising, 1872; on abdication of King Amadeo, he supported the republic for a time; worked for the restitution of the monarchy; supreme counsellor to Alfonso XII, commander-in-chief of the Spanish forces in Cuba, 1877-1879; governor-general of Cuba, 1895.—See also CUBA: 1895-1898.

CAMPOS SALLES, Manoel Ferraz de, elected President of Brazil. See BRAZIL: 1898.

CAMPUS MARTIUS, Rome.—"The history of the Campus Martius presents us with a series of striking contrasts. It has been covered in successive ages, first by the cornfields of the Tarquinian dynasty, then by the parade ground of the great military republic, next by a forest of marble colonnades and porticoes, and, lastly, by a confused mass of mean and filthy streets, clustering round vast mansions, and innumerable churches of every size and description. . . . During the time of the Republic, the whole Campus seems to have been considered state property and was used as a military and athletic exercise ground and a place of meeting for the comitia centuriata."—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, ch. 13, pt. 1.—"We have hitherto employed this name to designate the whole of the meadow land bounded by the Tiber on one side, and on the other by the Collis Hortulorum, the Quirinal and the Capitoline. . . . But the Campus Martius, strictly speaking, was that portion only of the flat ground which lies in the angle formed by the bend of the stream. According to the narrative of Livy, it was the property of the Tarquins, and upon their expulsion was confiscated, and then consecrated to Mars; but Dionysius asserts that it had been previously set apart to the god and sacrilegiously appropriated by the tyrant. . . . During the republic the Campus Martius was employed specially for two purposes. (1) As a place for holding the constitutional assemblies (comitia) especially the Comitia Centuriata, and also for ordinary public meetings (conciones). (2) For gymnastic and warlike sports. For seven centuries it remained almost entirely open. . . . In

the Comitia, the citizens, when their votes were taken, passed into enclosures termed septa, or ovilia, which were, for a long period, temporary wooden erections."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquities*, ch. 1.—See also **ROME**: Map of ancient Italy.

CAMULODUNUM, modern Colchester. It was a stronghold of the Britons in antiquity. See **BRITAIN**: 43-53; 61; **COLCHESTER**.

CANAAN, CANAANITES.—"Canaan signifies 'the lowlands,' and was primarily the name of the coast on which the great cities of Phœnicia were built. As, however, the inland parts of the country were inhabited by a kindred population, the name came to be extended to designate the whole of Palestine, just as Palestine itself meant originally only the small territory of the Philistines."—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 2.

"The meaning of the name Canaan is uncertain. It has commonly been supposed to denote 'lowland' and to stand in contrast to 'Amor,' 'Highland'; but this is very doubtful. The root *can* means 'to be humbled,' not 'to be low,' and, in view of the use of 'Amurru' in Babylonian as a racial name, it is improbable that 'Amor' has anything to do with 'highland.' Neither in Egyptian sources nor in the Old Testament is the name Canaan limited to the low plain along the coast. It is possible that the Hebrews, or even the Canaanites before them, accepted the etymologies 'lowland' and 'highland' for Canaan and 'Amor'; but it does not follow from this that these were the primitive meanings of the words. Canaan is probably originally a racial rather than a geographical name. [Who the original inhabitants of Canaan were is not clear, but they are supposed to have been overrun successively by Amorites, Hyksos, Canaanites and Hebrews.] The relation of the Hyksos-Canaanites to the Amorites is a disputed question. . . . Evidence is abundant that the language of the Hyksos-Canaanites did not differ materially from that of the Amorites. . . . In the cuneiform Amarna letters numerous Hebraisms have been detected, which prove that about 1400 B. C. Hebrew was spoken in Palestine. . . . In the time of the first dynasty of Babylon, *i. e.*, during the period of the great Amoritic migration, proper names of a pure Hebraic type appear simultaneously in Babylonia, Egypt and Canaan. This shows that the language of the Amorites cannot have differed widely from that of the Hyksos-Canaanites.

"I conclude, accordingly, that the Hyksos-Canaanites are to be regarded as one of the later waves of the Amoritic invasion rather than as an independent migration, such as the Babylonian, the Aramæan, or the Arabian, all of which are distinguished by marked linguistic peculiarities. Presumably they were Amoritic tribes of Mesopotamia who were dislodged by the advancing hordes of the Kassites and Mitanni and were compelled to seek new homes. In Mesopotamia they had come under the influence of Babylonian civilization; and when they entered Canaan, they amalgamated with the kindred Amoritic population and maintained its civilization unchanged. The common opinion that the Hyksos were barbarians rests upon no good evidence. On the contrary, their kings patronized

art and literature, and a more extended commerce sprang up under their rule than had existed at any previous period of Egyptian history. Neither in Egypt nor in Palestine is there any sign of an overturning of civilization."—L. B. Paton, *Early history of Syria and Palestine*, pp. 68-70.—"In the geographical table in the tenth chapter of Genesis Canaan is stated to be the son of Ham and the brother of Mizraim or Egypt. The statement indicates the age to which the account must go back. There was only one period of history in which Canaan could be geographically described as a brother of Egypt, and that was the period of the eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties, when for a while it was a province of the Pharaohs. At no other time was it closely connected with the sons of Ham. At an earlier epoch its relations had been with Babylonia rather than with the valley of the Nile, and with the fall of the nineteenth dynasty the Asiatic empire of Egypt came finally to an end. The city of Sidon, we are further told, was the firstborn of Canaan. It claimed to be the oldest of the Phœnician cities in the 'lowlands' of the coast. It had grown out of an assemblage of 'fishermen's' huts, and Said, the god of the fishermen, continued to preside over it to the last. The fishermen became in time sailors and merchant-princes, and the fish for which they sought was the murex with its precious purple dye. Tyre, the city of the 'rock,' which in later days disputed the supremacy over Phœnicia with Sidon, was of younger foundation. . . . The wider extension of the name of Canaan brought with it other geographical relationships besides those of the sea-coast. Hittites and Amorites, Jebusites and Gishgashites, Hivites and the peoples of the southern Lebanon, were all settled within the limits of the larger Canaan, and were therefore accounted his sons. Even Hamath claimed the right to be included in the brotherhood. It is said with truth that 'afterwards were the families of the Canaanites spread abroad'. . . . In entering Canaan, Abraham would have found himself still surrounded by all the signs of a familiar civilization. The long-continued influence and government of Babylonia had carried to 'the land of the Amorites' all the elements of Chaldæan culture. Migration from Ur of the Chaldees to the distant west meant a change only in climate and population, not in the civilization to which the patriarch had been accustomed. Even the Babylonian language was known and used in the cities of Canaan, and the literature of Babylonia was studied by the Canaanitish people. This is one of the facts which we have learnt from the discovery of the Tel el-Amarna tablets. The cuneiform system of writing and the Babylonian language had spread all over western Asia, and nowhere had they taken deeper root than in Canaan. Here there were schools and teachers for instruction in the foreign language and script and record-chambers and libraries in which the letters and books of clay could be copied and preserved."—A. H. Sayce, *Patriarchal Palestine*, pp. 36-37, 60.—See also **HAMITES**; under **Jews**: Early Hebrew history, Conquest of Canaan, Early Semitic migrations; **PHœNICIANS**: Origin; **SEMITES**; **CHRISTIANITY**; Map of Canaan.

CANADA

Geographical description.—"In area and population Canada is the largest of the dominions. Politically and economically it is, with the possible exception of India, the most interesting of the British oversea possessions. It embraces the northern half of the North American continent, with its adjacent islands in the Arctic Ocean, but exclusive of Alaska in the extreme northwest, the island of Newfoundland, and the small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon which are colonies of the French republic. The total area of the Dominion is 3,729,665 square miles. Of this, 309,000 square miles are comprised in the arctic islands. Newfoundland, the oldest of the British oversea possessions in the New World, has an area of 42,000 square miles; and the aggregate area of these two dominions—Canada and Newfoundland—is 3,771,665 square miles. This is a little more than the area of the United States; larger by 640,333 square miles than the combined area of the commonwealth of Australia and the dominion of New Zealand, and not much smaller than the aggregate area of all the countries of Europe. The Atlantic and Pacific coasts of the United States are much straighter than those of the Dominion. The Canadian coastline on both oceans is much indented with gulfs and bays—particularly the Atlantic coast. These gulfs and bays are good feeding and breeding grounds for fish. They also afford many harbors and havens for fishermen, thus giving Canada the most extensive sea-fisheries in the world. Hudson Bay, a sea 800 miles from north to south, and 600 miles in width—is wholly within the Dominion. For two centuries Hudson Bay had great influence on exploration and trade in Canada. With the enormous development of grain growing in what are now the provinces of Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, between 1898 and 1916, and with the construction by the Dominion government in the years from 1910 to 1916 of a harbor, with wharfs and elevators for the grain trade, at Port Nelson, and a railway 410 miles long from Le Pas, Manitoba, to this new port, Hudson Bay is again of importance in the trade and transport economy of the large area of Canada that lies between the Great Lakes and the Rocky Mountains. Canada has a common use with the United States of all the Great Lakes—Ontario, Erie, Huron, Michigan, and Superior; and also a common use of the St. Lawrence from its source in Lake Ontario to the Atlantic Ocean. Since 1854, when by treaty the United States conceded the privilege of free navigation of Lake Michigan to Canada, and Great Britain conceded to the United States the navigation of the St. Lawrence, both countries have had joint use of the series of magnificent canals—Canadian and American—that make navigation possible from Lake Superior to tidewater below Montreal. The St. Lawrence occupies an even larger place than Hudson Bay in the history of Canada, particularly as regards exploration and trade, and incidentally as regards diplomatic relations with the United States. In the sixteenth century it opened a route for exploration, colonization, and trade. It led Cartier, the explorer, in 1535 to the sites now occupied by the cities of Quebec and Montreal. . . . As the Dominion embraces almost half the North American continent, it has a diversified climate. On the Pacific coast, with the ocean on one side and lofty mountain ranges on the other, the climate is moist and temperate. East of the Rocky Mountains, on the high

level plateaus of Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba, and the northwest territories, the climate is characterized by extremes of temperature, but is bright, dry, bracing, and healthy. East of Manitoba the extremes of heat and cold are modified by the Great Lakes. In the valleys of the Ottawa and St. Lawrence a cold but bright and exhilarating winter is followed by a long and warm summer. The maritime provinces, lying between the same parallels of latitude as France, and with shores washed by the Atlantic, are equally favored in climate. The opening of spring in the maritime provinces is usually a little later than in Ontario or in the prairie provinces, and a little earlier than in the lower St. Lawrence valley. On the other hand summer lingers longer, especially in the Annapolis valley. Summer in the Maritime Provinces is not as a rule quite so warm as in western Canada. Great heat is seldom experienced, except very occasionally at inland places in New Brunswick. From Alberta to the Maritime Provinces there is in the winter much snow. It lies deep over this area from November or December until March. But the value of this covering of snow cannot be overestimated. It protects the roots of trees and herbage during the severe weather, and east of the Lakes it also greatly facilitates the lumber industry. The Great Lakes never freeze over, but ice closes the harbors from the middle of December until the beginning of April. The average date of the closing of navigation on the St. Lawrence at Montreal is December 16, and of its opening April 21. Harbors in the Gulf of St. Lawrence are likewise closed by ice during the winter months. On the Bay of Fundy and the coast of Nova Scotia, harbors are open all the year round. Halifax and St. John, by this freedom from ice, obtain their importance as the Atlantic winter ports of the Dominion. In particular they owe to this great advantage over the St. Lawrence ports their constantly increasing importance on the national grain route—lake, canal, and rail—which stretches from Port Arthur and Fort William on Lake Superior to the Atlantic seaboard. The coal fields and coal deposits of the Dominion are the most extensive and best known of its mineral resources. The known area underlain by workable coal beds is nearly 30,000 square miles. Notwithstanding the vastness of these deposits, the total quantity of coal annually mined in Canada is less than half of the country's consumption. The coal fields are found principally in the coast provinces—Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and British Columbia—and in Alberta. The central provinces, Ontario and Quebec,—in which in 1916, four sevenths of the total population was concentrated,—are without coal. They are nearer to Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Indiana than to any of the coal-producing provinces; and consequently they find it more economical to draw their supplies of coal—bituminous as well as anthracite—from these American coal fields. American coal in large quantities is also imported by the prairie provinces. Anthracite, and some special bituminous coals from Pennsylvania, are used as far west of Lake Superior as Winnipeg and Brandon."—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, ch. 2, pp. 13-20.—See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1879-1921; BRITISH EMPIRE: extent.

Also in: C. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, v. 5.—*Oxford survey of the British Empire*, v. 4.

Agriculture.—When all is said, the fact remains that Canada is essentially an agricultural country and that, with the exception of New Brunswick, a large proportion of the wealth of all the provinces is produced by the farming community. "In Nova Scotia, agriculture is important in the lowland areas especially. Hay and clover form the principal crops . . . while the potatoes are the best grown in Canada. The average production of apples is about 1,000,000 barrels. [Turnips, wheat, and barley are also extensively grown. Dairy products—creamery butter and cheese—and wool are also important items in connection with agriculture. In New Brunswick hay and cereals grow abundantly in the fertile dyked land at the head of the Bay of Fundy, and along the St. John River and its tributary the Tobique. Stock raising is also practised but New Brunswick is still chiefly a forest province.]—L. W. Lyde, *Commercial and Statistical Survey, in New World of Today* (A. R. H. Moncrieff, ed.), v. iii, pp. 249, 250.—Oats and potatoes are the staple crops of Prince Edward Island. "The farmers of recent years are commencing to grow maize for fodder; barley is also a favorite crop and is extensively grown. . . . A Provincial Government Experimental Farm has been maintained for nearly half a century in which dairy, stock, and horticultural experiments are made and applied. . . . The St. Lawrence provinces of Canada have, from their first discovery, been noted for their agricultural wealth. . . . The valleys of the Richelieu, the Ottawa, and St. Lawrence are now renewing their youth with mixed farming, and, while it is impossible to compete in wheat growing with the new Northwest, the proximity to a market gives the Quebec farmer an advantage in other crops. . . . All the ordinary crops are produced—wheat, barley, rye, oats, maize, peas, together with pumpkins, melons, tomatoes, potatoes, and other vegetables grown in temperate climates. Fruits, such as apples, plums, cherries, and pears are raised in large quantity. There are no experimental fruit stations in the province. Grapes are grown in the open air near Montreal, and . . . [large quantities of tobacco are also raised]. Much attention is given to stock raising and dairying."—*Stanford's Compendium of Geography, (H. M. Ami, ed.), North America, v. 1, pp. 341, 343.*—Ontario produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, buckwheat, mixed grains (corn), potatoes, turnips, hay, clover. "The making of butter and cheese forms one of the chief industries of Ontario. Nearly 92 per cent of the total manufacture of Canadian cheese is from Quebec and Ontario, but Ontario produces nearly twice as much cheese as Quebec. Nearly 71 per cent of the total production of butter in Canada is from Quebec and Ontario, but in this Quebec leads."—L. W. Lyde, *Commercial and Statistical Survey in New World of Today* (A. R. H. Moncrieff, ed.), v. iii, p. 254.—"In the more southern part of Ontario grapes are extensively grown for the manufacture of wine, and the business of grape-growing . . . has increased very rapidly [in recent years]. . . . In the same province peach-growing gives a livelihood to a number of people. . . . Ontario is, above all, the province where agriculture has been most scientifically carried on, and, where the climate and conditions are suitable, the greatest results have been achieved." Wheat is a staple crop in the southern part of the province, which grows the finest barley on the continent, and raises the finest cattle. All the productions of temperate regions grow throughout its extent and even beyond the watershed of Hudson Bay in the great fertile 'Clay Belt' at the north.—*Stanford's Compendium*

of Geography (H. M. Ami, ed.), North America, v. 1, pp. 68, 498.

The history of agriculture in the Canadian North West is dramatic in its interest. When Ontario was settled, after the American Revolution, it was believed that the great plain north of Lake Superior was fit only for a fur preserve. When the Canadian Pacific Railway was built, as a bridge to connect British Columbia with the East, its opponents declared that "it would not pay for axle grease." As late as 1885 emigrants were warned against going as far as Winnipeg. Up to the close of the nineteenth century, Saskatchewan was spoken of as a "frozen and barren wilderness." In 1900 dwellers in the south of Alberta scoffed at the idea of grain being grown north of Edmonton. Yet, in spite of climatic drawbacks, agriculture is being carried on successfully in every one of these provinces. "Melons, maize, pumpkins, beans, and tomatoes are crops in Manitoba, and may be grown even in latitude 53° north, on the North Saskatchewan. . . . Seeding usually begins the first week in April, and the summer season is of ample length and warmth to ripen the crops of wheat, oats, barley, rye, flax, besides garden and orchard products. . . . The soil of Manitoba . . . is for the most part a deep rich mould or loam, inexhaustible in its elements of fertility and productiveness, especially in the center belt of the southern part of the province. . . . Though especially adapted for wheat growing—'Manitoba No. 1 hard wheat' being reputed by highest authorities to be second to none in the world—the soil of the province produces other field crops bountifully, as the harvest returns for the past 40 years have shown."—*Stanford's Compendium of Geography, (H. M. Ami, ed.) North America, v. 1, pp. 68, 584, 595, 596, 597.*—"The remarkable fertility of the soil, the favorable climate, and the levelness of the country, have contributed to make Saskatchewan one of the best and largest grain-producing areas in the world. The acreage under crops in 1919 was said to be three times as great as the area in Manitoba. Hard spring wheat is the principal crop, but oats, barley . . . are also grown. Although Alberta began its career as a ranching province, it is now a great agricultural area. It grows wheat, oats, barley, rye and potatoes, and also produces a great and increasing quantity of dairy produce."—L. W. Lyde, *Commercial and Statistical Survey in New World of Today* (A. R. H. Moncrieff, v. 3, p. 254.—"Part of the most fertile region of this province requires to be irrigated. Mixed farming has come into favor in the province, which is well sheltered by the Rocky Mountains. Although the province of British Columbia will always be thought of first as a country of minerals, lumber, and productive fisheries, it contains many areas of fertile land. . . . Professor Macoun has stated that 'the whole of British Columbia south of 52°, east of the Coast Range, is a grazing country up to 3500 feet elevation, and a farming country up to 2500 feet, wherever irrigation is possible or the precipitation sufficient.' Wheat is grown in the Fraser, Okanagan, and Spillimacheen valleys, and in the Kamloops country. Barley and oats, potatoes, . . . [and] roots grow in profusion wherever cultivation has been attempted. Hop culture is carried on in . . . some districts. Sugar-beets, tobacco, and celery are also cultivated. West of the mountains in the deltas of the Fraser and other rivers, . . . on the lower reaches of the Fraser [and in Queen Charlotte Islands and on Vancouver Island, as well as in the river valleys] there is a large area of productive land. Southern British Columbia is one of the finest fruit countries in the world. . . .

Apples especially do very well. . . . Peaches grow well in all the valleys south of the main line of the Canadian Pacific Railway; whilst grape-growing in the same areas is proving successful."—*Stanford's Compendium of Geography* (H. M. Ami, ed.), *North America*, v. 1, pp. 58, 66, 341-343, 263, 584, 595, 596, 597, 633, 635, 795-799.

ALSO IN: F. W. Frier, *Canada, the land of opportunity*.—*The Times Book of Canada*.—W. R. Lawson, *Canada and the Empire*.—W. L. Griffith, *Dominion of Canada*.—F. Yeigh, *Through the heart of Canada*.—A. Copping, *Canada today and tomorrow*.

"The estimated capital invested in Canadian agriculture was, in 1918, as follows: \$2,792,229,000 in Improved lands, \$927,548,000 in Buildings, \$387,979,000 in Implements and \$1,102,261,000 in Live-Stock or a total of \$5,209,117,000; the average increase in the value of farm lands, including farm buildings, was 36.8 per cent. in the five years of 1914-19 or from \$38.00 per acre in 1914 to \$40.00 in 1915, \$41.00 in 1916, \$44.00 in 1917, \$46.00 in 1918, to \$52.00 in 1919. The values of Canadian Field crops were \$638,580,300 in the year the War commenced, 1914, and after that they steadily increased in totals as follows: \$825,370,600 in 1915, \$886,494,900 in 1916, \$1,144,636,450 in 1917, \$1,367,909,970 in 1918 and \$1,452,787,900 in 1919."—J. Castell Hopkins, *Canadian Annual Review*, 1919, pp. 321, 325.—"In 1920 [the value of all field crops grown in Canada was] . . . 1,455,244,050, [and that of the wheat crop] \$427,357,300. In 1920 the Dominion obtained for the first time in her history a billion dollar crop, more than trebling the value of the crop grown a decade previously. . . . A striking feature of the 1921 harvest in the Canadian Western provinces is the quantity of corn to be seen on every hand."—*Agricultural and industrial progress in Canada*, v. 3, No. 11, Nov., 1921, pp. 201, 203.—"The Dominion achieved a new record in dairy production in 1920 with an output valued at \$144,483,188 which was nine million dollars in excess of the previous year's production. . . . Cheese made in factories during the year aggregated 149,521,008 pounds. In addition to those two products condenseries turned out 53,980,993 pounds of condensed milk; 39,360,642 pounds of evaporated milk, and 7,574,668 pounds of milk powder."—*Agricultural and industrial progress in Canada*, v. 3, No. 8, Aug., 1921, p. 144.

ALSO IN: EDUCATION: Agricultural: Canada.

Names.—"The year after the failure of Verrazano's last enterprise, 1525, Stefano Gomez sailed from Spain for Cuba and Florida; thence he steered northward in search of the long hoped-for passage to India, till he reached Cape Race, on the south-eastern extremity of Newfoundland. The further details of his voyage remain unknown, but there is reason to suppose that he entered the Gulf of St. Lawrence and traded upon its shores. An ancient Castilian tradition existed that the Spaniards visited these coasts before the French, and having perceived no appearance of mines or riches, they exclaimed frequently 'Aca nada' [signifying 'here is nothing']; the natives caught up the sound, and when other Europeans arrived, repeated it to them. The strangers concluded that these words were a designation, and from that time this magnificent country bore the name of Canada. . . . Father Hennepin asserts that the Spaniards were the first discoverers of Canada, and that, finding nothing there to gratify their extensive desires for gold, they bestowed upon it the appellation of Capo di Nada, 'Cape Nothing,' whence by corruption its present name. . . . La Potherie gives the same derivation. . . . This derivation would reconcile the different assertions of the early dis-

coverers, some of whom give the name of Canada to the whole valley of the St. Lawrence; others, equally worthy of credit, confine it to a small district in the neighbourhood of Stadacona (now Quebec) . . . Duponceau, in the Transactions of the [American] Philosophical Society, of Philadelphia, founds his conjecture of the Indian origin of the name of Canada upon the fact that, in the translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew into the Mohawk tongue, made by Brandt, the Indian chief, the word Canada is always used to signify a village. The mistake of the early discoverers, in taking the name of a part for that of the whole, is very pardonable in persons ignorant of the Indian language. . . . The natural conclusion . . . is, that the word Canada was a mere local appellation, without reference to the country; that each tribe had their own Canada, or collection of huts, which shifted its position according to their migrations."

—E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 1, and foot-note.—"Canada was the name which Cartier found attached to the land and there is no evidence that he attempted to displace it. . . . Nor did Roberval attempt to name the country, while the commission given him by the king does not associate the name of Francis or any new name therewith. . . . There seems to have been a belief in New England, at a later day, that Canada was derived from William and Emery de Caen (Cane, as the English spelled it), who were in New France in 1621, and later."—B. F. De Costa, *Jacques Cartier and his successors* (*Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 4, ch. 2), and Editor's foot-note.—"Cartier calls the St. Lawrence the 'River of Hochelaga,' or 'the great river of Canada.' He confines the name of Canada to a district extending from the Isle aux Coudres in the St. Lawrence to a point at some distance above the site of Quebec. The country below, he adds, was called by the Indians Saguenay, and that above, Hochelaga. In the map of Gerard Mercator (1569) the name Canada is given to a town, with an adjacent district, on the river Stadin (St. Charles). Lescarbot, a later writer, insists that the country on both sides of the St. Lawrence, from Hochelaga to its mouth, bore the name of Canada. In the second map of Ortelius, published about the year 1572, New France, Nova Francia is thus divided:—"Canada," a district on the St. Lawrence above the River Saguenay; 'Chilaga' (Hochelaga), the angle between the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence; 'Saguenai,' a district below the river of that name; 'Moscosa,' south of the St. Lawrence and east of the River Richelieu; 'Avacal,' west and south of Moscosa; 'Norumbega,' Maine and New Brunswick; 'Apalachen,' Virginia, Pennsylvania, etc.; 'Terra Corterealis,' Labrador; 'Florida,' Mississippi, Alabama, Florida. Mercator confines the name of New France to districts bordering on the St. Lawrence. Others give it a much broader application. The use of this name, or the nearly allied names of Francisca and La Franciscane, dates back, to say the least, as far as 1525, and the Dutch geographers are especially free in their use of it, out of spite to the Spaniards. The derivation of the name of Canada has been a point of discussion. It is, without doubt, not Spanish, but Indian. . . . Lescarbot affirms that Canada is simply an Indian proper name, of which it is vain to seek a meaning. Belleforest also calls it an Indian word, but translates it 'Terre,' as does also Thevet."—F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World: Champlain*, ch. 1, foot-note.

Aboriginal inhabitants. See ATHAPASCAN FAMILY; ESKIMAUAN FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Eskimo area.

15th-16th centuries.—French and English routes in their voyages of discovery. See AMERICA: Map showing voyages of discovery.

1497-1498.—Coast discoveries of the Cabots. See AMERICA: 1497; 1498.

1500.—Cortereal on the coast. See AMERICA: 1500.

1501-1504.—Portuguese, Norman and Breton fishermen on the Newfoundland banks. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

1524.—Coasting voyage of Verrazano. See AMERICA: 1523-1524.

1534-1535.—Possession taken by Jacques Cartier for the king of France. See AMERICA: 1534-1535.

1541-1603.—Jacques Cartier's last undertaking.—Unsuccessful French attempts at colonization. See AMERICA: 1541-1603.

1583.—Sir Humphrey Gilbert attempts to colonize Newfoundland.

1592-1603.—Early attempts at colonization.—“As the sixteenth century drew to a close, a patent was issued by the French King to a Breton nobleman, the Marquis de la Roche, to colonize in North America. The terms of the patent were preposterously wide, conferring sovereignty over Canada, together with a monopoly of trade. The results were proportionately small. La Roche set sail in 1598, in a single ship with a cargo of convicts. He landed them at Sable Island, off the coast of Nova Scotia, and sailed back to France, leaving them to their fate. Five years later, in 1603, eleven of the number, who had survived, were rescued and brought home again. About a year after La Roche's fruitless voyage, in 1599 or 1600, two other Frenchmen, Chauvin, a sea captain, and Pontgrivé, a St. Malo merchant, also obtained a patent to colonize in Canada. Their object was to monopolize the fur trade, and they attempted a settlement at Tadoussac, where the Saguenay river flows into the St. Lawrence. During a whole winter a small party was left at the station, but no permanent colony was formed; and a second and third voyage had no lasting results. Chauvin died, and in 1602 or 1603 a new patent was granted to De Chastes, a man of rank and station, who associated with himself Pontgrivé, and secured the services of Samuel Champlain.”—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, pp. 39-40.

ALSO IN: J. Winsor, *Cartier to Frontenac*, ch. 3-4.—F. B. Tracy, *Tercentenary history of Canada*, ch. 2.—W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, ch. 2.

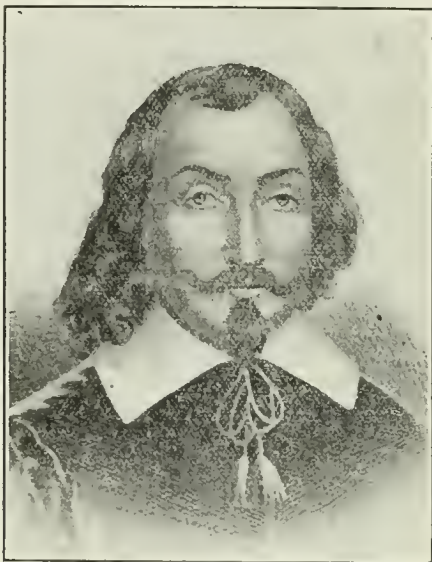
1603-1605.—Beginning of Champlain's career in the New World.—Colonization at Port Royal.—Exploration of the New England coast.—In Pontgrivé's expedition of 1603 to New France “Samuel de Champlain, a captain in the navy, accepted a command . . . at the request of De Chatte [or De Chastes]; he was a native of Saintonge, and had lately returned to France from the West Indies, where he had gained a high name for boldness and skill. Under the direction of this wise and energetic man the first successful efforts were made to found a permanent settlement in the magnificent province of Canada, and the stain of the errors and disasters of more than seventy years was at length wiped away. Pontgrivé and Champlain sailed for the St. Lawrence in 1603,” explored it as far as the rapids of St. Louis, and then returned to France. They found that the patron of their undertaking, De Chastes, was dead. “Pierre du Guast, Sieur de Monts, had succeeded to the powers and privileges of the deceased, with even a more extensive commission. De Monts was a Calvinist, and had obtained from the king the

freedom of religious faith for himself and his followers in America, but under the engagement that the Roman Catholic worship should be established among the natives. . . . The trading company established by De Chatte was continued and increased by his successor. With this additional aid De Monts was enabled to fit out a more complete armament than had ever hitherto been engaged in Canadian commerce. He sailed from Havre on the 7th of March, 1604, with four vessels. Of these, two under his immediate command were destined for Acadia. Champlain, Poutrincourt, and many other volunteers, embarked their fortunes with him, purposing to cast their future lot in the New World. A third vessel was dispatched under Pontgrivé to the Strait of Canso, to protect the exclusive trading privileges of the company. The fourth steered for Tadoussac, to barter for the rich furs brought by the Indian hunters from the dreary wilds of the Saguenay. On the 6th of May De Monts reached a harbor on the coast of Acadia.”—E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 3.—For some reason not to be understood, his projected colony was quartered on the little islet of St. Croix, near the mouth of the river of that name, which became subsequently the boundary between Maine and New Brunswick. Meantime, the fine harbor, now Annapolis, then named Port Royal, had been discovered, and was granted, with a large surrounding territory, by De Monts to De Poutrincourt, who proposed to settle upon it as its feudal proprietor and lord. The colony at St. Croix having been housed and put in order, De Poutrincourt sailed for France, intending to bring his family and establish himself at Port Royal. De Monts, Champlain, and those who remained, suffered a winter of terrible hardships, and thirty-five died before spring. De Monts now resolved to seek a better site for his infant settlement, and, finding no other situation so good he resumed possession of that most desirable Port Royal which he had granted away to Poutrincourt and removed his colony thither. Champlain, meanwhile, in the summer of 1605, had explored the coast southward far down the future home of the English Puritans, looking into Massachusetts Bay, taking shelter in Plymouth harbor and naming it Port St. Louis, doubling Cape Cod (which he called Cap Blanc), turning back at Nausett Harbor, and gaining on the whole a remarkable knowledge of the country and its coast. Soon after Champlain's return from this coasting voyage, De Monts was called home to France, by news of machinations that were threatening to extinguish his patent, and Pontgrivé was left in command of the colony at Port Royal. In De Monts' petition to the king for leave to colonize Acadia that region was defined “as extending from the 40th to the 46th degree of north latitude, or from Philadelphia to beyond Montreal.”—F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World: Champlain*, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: E. F. Slafter, *Memoir preface to Voyages and explorations of Samuel de Champlain (Prince Society, 1880, ch. 1-5)*.

1606-1608.—Fortunes of the Acadian colony.—“In the following summer, ships came back from France just in time to prevent the settlement at Port Royal from being broken up in despair. They brought with them the advocate Lescarbot, the historian of New France. Again there was exploring down the American coast, and again Champlain and his associates held their own through the winter. The outlook of the little colony was promising. The season was mild, the natives were friendly, supplies were plentiful, gardens were laid out and corn was sown. But in the late spring of

1607 news came from home that the patent had been cancelled, and before the summer ended Port Royal was abandoned. For nearly three years the place was left desolate, and then, in 1610, one of De Monts' associates came back again. It was the Baron de Poutrincourt, to whom the harbour, when first discovered, had been granted by De Monts. The Jesuits were at the time strong at the French court, stronger still after the assassination of King Henry IV in this same year. They, or the ladies of the court, who were their tools, bought shares in the venture, and Jesuit priests went out to Acadia, thwarting and quarrelling with Poutrincourt and his son. Both the two great dangers which always threatened and finally ruined the French power in North America came into being at this date, the exclusive influence of the Jesuits and English competition."—C. P. Lucas,



SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN

(From the painting by Th. Hamel, after the Moncornet portrait)

Historical geography of the British colonies, v. 5, pt. 1, pp. 41-42.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World, ch. 4.*—J. Hannay, *History of Acadia, ch. 4-5.*

1606-1620.—Extent of territory of New France. See AMERICA: Map of King James's grants.

1608-1611.—Champlain's third and fourth expeditions.—Settlement at Quebec, discovery of Lake Champlain, and first wars with the Iroquois.—"De Monts in no way lost heart, and he resolved to continue in the career of exploration for settlement. A new expedition was determined on, and De Monts selected the Saint Lawrence as the spot where the effort should be made. Champlain counseled the change. In Nova Scotia and on the coast of New Brunswick and Maine he had been struck by the number of ports affording protection to vessels from sea, and by the small number of Indians whom he had met. In Nova Scotia he would be exposed to rival attempts at settlement, and at the same time he could not see the possibility of obtaining Indian allies. In Canada the full control would remain with those who first made a settlement on the Saint Lawrence, and Champlain counted the native tribes as powerful

instruments in carrying out his policy. We have the key here to his conduct in assisting the Hurons in their wars. . . . In 1608 Champlain started for the St. Lawrence. Pontgravé was with the expedition. A settlement was made at Quebec, as the most suitable place. . . . The summer was passed in completing the 'Abitation de Quebec,' of which Champlain has left us a sketch. . . . It was here Champlain laid the foundation for the future city. . . . With the view of making explorations beyond the points then known by Europeans, Champlain in the middle of June ascended the St. Lawrence. . . . With his Indian allies he ascended the Richelieu and reached Lake Champlain [July, 1600], the first white man who saw its waters: subsequently for 165 years to be the scene of contest between the Indian and white man, the French and English, the revolted Colonies and the Mother Country."—W. Kingsford, *History of Canada, bk. 1, ch. 3-4.*—"On June 18, 1609, Champlain ascended the St. Lawrence with a party of French and savages, and found two or three hundred Hurons and Algonquins encamped not far from the river that led to a southern lake. These Indians were preparing to proceed with the Montagnais on a war-path towards the Iroquois. It was a hopeful meeting. The Indian chief, at a council which was held, gave Champlain to understand that he must needs cement the alliance which their friendly intercourse in 1603 and his recent promises to the Montagnais, had foreshadowed. He did not hesitate to do so by agreeing to join in their enterprise. . . . Champlain and his savage allies sped up the river and along the lake, and at a point identified as the modern Ticonderoga they met in the night a war party of the Iroquois. Waiting till daylight, they began the battle. Champlain describes the fight, and shows how the apparition of the Frenchmen, with their arquebuses, leveling their enemies with unseen bolts amid deadly noises, struck terror into the ranks of the adversary and secured an easy victory for the invaders. . . . [The resulting hatred of the Iroquois for the French was one of the chief obstacles to the later attempts of the French to expand southwards.] Returned to Quebec, Champlain prepared to depart for France, leaving Pierre Chauvin in charge; and on October 13, 1609, he landed at Honfleur. Though De Monts's privileges had expired, the governor found him by no means discouraged, and quite ready for another venture. . . . With such prestige as Champlain had acquired, increased possibly by Les-carbot's account of him, it was not surprising that he was again selected to take recruits to the colony. Pontgravé went with him, and their two vessels, after some misfortunes in working off the coast,—for the spring was a boisterous one,—finally reached Tadoussac on April 26, 1610. Champlain had laid out plans for new explorations, for the secrets of the Saguenay and the Ottawa were still undivulged. He found, however, the Indians too intent on their yearly invasion of the Iroquois country to be diverted from it, and without their aid exploration was not to be thought of. He joined their camp near the mouth of the Richelieu River, and led them to an attack on an Iroquois barricade, which had been hastily constructed, not far up the river. The attack was so successful that not a hostile savage escaped. . . . A few weeks later, a ship brought news of the assassination of Henry IV. The death of the king was a calamity to the colony. Having invested the Sieur du Parc with the command, and leaving sixteen men to hold the post, Champlain, with some feelings of uncertainty as to the effect in France of a change in the monarch, sailed from



Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
under direction of the editors and publishers.

Tadoussac on August 13, and reached Honfleur on September 27."—J. Winsor, *Cartier to Frontenac*, pp. 95-100.—The death of Henry IV. exercised great influence on the fortunes of Canada. He had personally taken interest in Champlain's voyages, and his energetic mind was well qualified to direct the fortunes of a growing colony. Louis XIII. was not then ten years old. Mary of Medecis was under the control of her favorites, Leonora Galigai, and her husband, Concino Concini. Richelieu had not then appeared on the scene. . . . The Jesuits were becoming all-powerful at Court. . . . France was unsettled and disordered. The Protestants, not without provocation, were acting with passion and without judgment. The assassination of the King had alarmed them. The whole kingdom was threatened with convulsion and anarchy, and Canada was to pass out of the notice of those in power: and, in the sense of giving aid, half a century was to elapse before the French Government could comprehend the duty of taking part in the defence of the country, and of protecting the persons of those living in New France. The ground was to be regarded simply as a field for the active trader, side by side with the devoted missionary. Thus the Government fell virtually under the control of the Jesuits, who, impatient of contradiction, aimed only at the establishment of their authority, which was to bring the colony to the verge of destruction."—W. Kingsford, *History of Canada*, v. 1, bk. 1, ch. 3-4.

ALSO IN: E. B. O'Callaghan, ed., *Documentary history of New York*, v. 3, pp. 1-9.

1610-1613.—Acadian colony revived, but destroyed by the English of Virginia.—Port Royal was left uninhabited till 1610, when Poutrincourt returned at the instance of the king to make the new settlement a central station for the conversion of the Indians,—a work which made some Jesuit missionaries prominent in the history of the New World. His son followed in 1611, with Fathers Pierre Biard, and Enemond Masse. Madame la Marquise de Guercheville, a pious Catholic, to whom De Monts had ceded his title to Acadia, and to whom afterwards the French king granted the whole territory now covered by the United States, was the chief patroness of these voyages. Desiring to make another settlement, she despatched a vessel in 1613 with two more Jesuits, Father Quentin and Gilbert Du Thet, and forty-eight men under La Saussaye. "When they arrived at Port Royal, they only found five persons—Fathers Biard and Masse, their servant, the apothecary Hébert, and another. All the rest were absent, either hunting or trading. They showed the Queen's letter to Hébert, who represented Biencourt, in his absence, and taking the two Jesuits, with their servant and luggage aboard, again set sail. It was their intention to establish the colony at Pentagoet, which Father Biard had visited the year previous, but when off Grand Manan a thick fog came on, which lasted for two days, and when it became clear, they put into a harbor on the eastern side of Mount Desert Island, in Maine. The harbor was deep, secure and commodious, and they judged this would be a favorable site for the colony, and named the place St. Sauveur. . . . La Saussaye was advised by the principal colonists to erect a sufficient fortification before commencing to cultivate the soil, but he disregarded this advice, and nothing was completed in the way of defence, except the raising of a small palisaded structure, when a storm burst upon the colony, which was little expected by its founders."—J. Hannay, *History of Acadia*, ch. 5.—"Hardly had their tents been set up on the shore, when an English ship

came in sight, captured the French vessel, which was lying at anchor, uprooted the would-be colony, and took all the Frenchmen prisoners. The invaders hailed from Jamestown; they were commanded by Samuel Argall, an unscrupulous freebooter. His pretext was that the Frenchmen were taking up ground within the limits of the patents granted by the English King to his subjects, but his act was little more than piracy. Some of the Frenchmen were set adrift in an open boat, and eventually reached France in safety; the rest were carried prisoners to Jamestown, whence Argall set sail again, commissioned by the governor of Virginia to attack Port Royal. He reached, plundered, and burnt the fort, its commander, Biencourt, with the rest of the settlers, being absent in the fields, for it was harvest time; but the colony was not finally blotted out, and the French still kept a foothold in Acadia."—C. P. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, pp. 42-43.

ALSO IN: W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 1, ch. 12.

1611.—Founding of Montreal.—"In 1611 Champlain again returned to America . . . and on the 28th of May proceeded in search of his allies, whom he was to meet by appointment. Not finding them he employed his time in choosing a site for a new settlement, higher up the river than Quebec. After a careful survey, he fixed upon an eligible spot in the vicinity of Mont Royal. His choice has been amply justified by the great prosperity to which this place, under the name of Montreal, has subsequently risen."—J. MacMullen, *History of Canada*, ch. 1.

1611-1612.—Champlain organizes enterprise for fur trading.—"His [Champlain's] barter for furs made him more familiar with the traders. He found their pursuits a competition which diminished their own profits, and hampered his efforts for discovery. It was evident that the trade in peltries, if to be worth pursuing, must be put on a different basis. On his return to France in September, 1611, he undertook the organizing of the Canadian experiment on a better commercial basis, and with this task he was occupied for the greater part of the following year. . . . The distractions which had followed upon the death of the king had begun to subside. Champlain found that a renewal of political quiet conducted to draw more attention to his plans, despite the opposition that their first promulgation had raised. One feature that he insisted upon was to give dignity to the enterprise by putting it under a viceroy of enlarged powers, and on October 8 the Count de Soissons was appointed to that position. He commissioned Champlain as his deputy, a few days later. With a newly awakened zeal Soissons set about the task of familiarizing himself with the project. Champlain had hardly begun to show and explain his maps when the viceroy suddenly died. The Prince de Condé was soon selected to succeed as viceroy, and more authority was assigned to him than had been before given to any royal representative in the Canadian region. There was little in respect to civil, military, and religious administration that his instructions did not permit him to undertake. His letters-patent were signed at Paris, November 13, 1612, and they were registered at Rouen, a few months later. Under these instructions the viceroy was commanded to prevent the selling of European weapons to the natives and he was expected to do his utmost to find and open a way to China. He was enjoined also to discover the mineral resources of the country. As a compensation for the considerable outlay which he might be called upon to make in furthering the

equipment and business of the new expedition, the prince was to be allowed a twelve years' lease of the trade and mines of the country, with ample powers to manage it by deputy and to prevent intruders. A new commission was issued to Champlain on November 22."—J. Winsor, *Cartier to Frontenac*, pp. 101-103.

ALSO IN: C. S. D. Roberts, *History of Canada*, ch. 3.

1612.—Arrival of Champlain and the Récollets.—"The Prince of Condé retained his influence at Court, and no difficulty was consequently found in equipping a small fleet, to carry out settlers and supplies from Rouen and St. Malo. On board of this fleet came four fathers of the order of the Récollets, whose benevolence induced them to desire the conversion of the Indians to Christianity. These were the first priests who settled in Canada. Champlain arrived safely, on the 25th of May, at Tadoussac, whence he immediately pushed forward to Quebec, and subsequently to the usual place of Indian rendezvous, at the Lachine Rapids."—J. MacMullen, *History of Canada*, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World*, ch. 4.

1615-1616.—Champlain's invasion of the Iroquois in, New York.—"Champlain found the Hurons and their allies preparing for an expedition against their ancient enemies, the Iroquois. Anxious to reconnoitre the hostile territory, and also to secure the friendship of the Canadian savages, the gallant Frenchman resolved to accompany their warriors." After five days, "the expedition arrived before the fortified village of the Iroquois, on the northern bank of the Onondaga Lake, near the site of the present town of Liverpool." In the siege which followed the Iroquois were dismayed by the firearms of Champlain and his men, and by the operation of a moveable tower with which he advanced to their stockade and set fire to it. But his Indian allies proved incapable of acting in any rational or efficient way, or to submit to the least direction, and the attack was abortive. After a few days the invading force retreated, carrying Champlain with them and forcing him to remain in the Huron country until the following spring (1616), when he made his way back to Montreal.—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the state of New York*, v. 1, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: O. H. Marshall, *Champlain's expedition against the Onondagas*.—E. F. Slafter, *Memoir preface to Voyages and explorations of Samuel de Champlain* (*Prince Society*, 1880).—E. B. O'Callaghan, ed., *Documentary history of New York*, v. 3, pp. 10-24.

1616-1628.—Champlain and the fur traders.—First Jesuit mission.—Creation of the company of the Hundred Associates.—"The exploration in the distant Indian territories which we have just described in the preceding pages was the last made by Champlain. He had plans for the survey of other regions yet unexplored, but the favorable opportunity did not occur. Henceforth he directed his attention more exclusively than he had hitherto done to the enlargement and strengthening of his colonial plantation, without such success, we regret to say, as his zeal, devotion and labors fitly deserved. The obstacles that lay in his way were insurmountable. The establishment or factory, we can hardly call it a plantation, at Quebec, was the creature of a company of merchants. They had invested considerable sums in shipping, buildings, and in the employment of men, in order to carry on a trade in furs and peltry with the Indians, and they naturally desired remunerative returns. This was the limit of their purpose in making the in-

vestment. . . . Under these circumstances, Champlain struggled on for years against a current which he could barely direct, but by no means control. . . . He succeeded at length in extorting from the company a promise to enlarge the establishment to 80 persons, with suitable equipments, farming implements, all kinds of seeds, and domestic animals, including cattle and sheep. But when the time came, this promise was not fulfilled. Differences, bickerings and feuds sprang up in the company. Some wanted one thing, and some wanted another. The Catholics wished to extend the faith of their church into the wilds of Canada, while the Huguenots desired to prevent it, or at least not to promote it by their own contributions. The company, inspired by avarice and a desire to restrict the establishment to a mere trading post, raised an issue to discredit Champlain. It was gravely proposed that he should devote himself exclusively to exploration, and that the government and trade should henceforth be under the direction and control of Pont Gravé. But Champlain . . . obtained a decree ordering that he should have the command at Quebec, and at all other settlements in New France, and that the company should abstain from any interference with him in the discharge of the duties of his office." In 1620 the Prince de Condé sold his viceroyalty to the Duke de Montmorency, then high-admiral of France, who commissioned Champlain anew, as his lieutenant, and supported him vigorously. Champlain had made voyages to Canada in 1617 and 1618, and now, in 1620, he proceeded to his post again. At Quebec he began immediately the building of a fort, which he called fort St. Louis. The company of associates opposed this work, and so provoked the Duke of Montmorency by their conduct that "in the spring of 1621, he summarily dissolved the association of merchants, which he denominated the 'Company of Rouen and St. Malo,' and established another in its place."—E. F. Slafter, *Memoir preface to Voyages and explorations of Samuel de Champlain* (*Prince Society*, 1880, v. 1, ch. 9).—"In a short time the Associated Merchants lost their privileges for failure to fulfil their pledges. Their monopoly was handed over to Guillaume and Emery de Caen, two Huguenot gentlemen, on condition that they should settle none but Roman Catholics in the colony. The peace of the little settlement was not promoted by this change, and noisy were the disputes between Catholic settler and Huguenot sailor, as well as between the old and new monopolists. Champlain had need of all his vigour and all his fortitude. He was sorely tempted at times to throw up his high ambitions, and leave his rapacious charges to prey upon the savages and each other. . . . The patronage of Canada now again changed hands. It was purchased by a religious enthusiast, the Duke de Ventadour. Champlain remained a year or two in France, leaving Emery de Caen in command of the colony. De Ventadour cared neither for trade nor settlement. His one concern was to save souls. To this end he sent out three Jesuit priests, Fathers Lalemant, Massé, and Bréboeuf. . . . Their coming was little to the taste of the hardy Huguenot, de Caen; but the Récollets made them welcome in their convent on the St. Charles. A year later came Fathers Noirot and de la Nouë; and before long the Jesuits had a convent of their own. . . . And now Richelieu, the crafty and masterful, having made the monarchy supreme in France and himself the resistless power behind the throne, turned his keen eyes on Canada and saw the evils with which Champlain was wrestling. He strengthened Champlain's hands. He abolished the mo-

nopoly of the de Caens. He organized what is known as the 'New Company of the Hundred Associates,' with himself at its head. The vice-regal authority of de Ventadour came to an end, and again a new power was felt shaping the destiny of Canada. The charter of Richelieu's company gave it possession of all New France (Canada, Acadie, Newfoundland, and Florida), on the simple tenure of fealty and homage. Religious discord was abolished by the decree that New France should be all Roman Catholic. No Huguenot was to set foot on its soil. The company was bound under penalty to send out three hundred colonists in its first year (1628), and to increase the number to six thousand within the next fifteen years. It was given a perpetual monopoly of the fur-trade, with a monopoly for fifteen years of all other trade but that of the whale and cod fisheries. Further, as a personal gift from the King, it received two well-armed battle-ships. Champlain was made one of the Associates, and confirmed in his command of Quebec."—C. G. D. Roberts, *History of Canada*, pp. 40-43.

ALSO IN: W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, ch. 2.—J. Winsor, *Cartier to Frontenac*, ch. 6.—Père Charlevoix, *History of New France*, v. 2, bk. 4.

1628-1635.—Conquest and brief occupation by the English.—Restoration to France.—"The first care of the new Company was to succor Quebec, whose inmates were on the verge of starvation. Four armed vessels, with a fleet of transports commanded by Roquemont, one of the associates, sailed from Dieppe with colonists and supplies in April, 1628; but nearly at the same time another squadron, destined also for Quebec, was sailing from an English port. War had at length broken out in France. The Huguenot revolt had come to a head. Rochelle was in arms against the king; and Richelieu, with his royal ward, was beleaguering it with the whole strength of the kingdom. Charles I. of England, urged by the heated passions of Buckingham, had declared himself for the rebels, and sent a fleet to their aid. . . . The attempts of Sir William Alexander to colonize Acadia had of late turned attention in England towards the New World; and, on the breaking out of the war, an expedition was set on foot, under the auspices of that singular personage, to seize on the French possessions in North America. It was a private enterprise, undertaken by London merchants, prominent among whom was Gervase Kirke, an Englishman of Derbyshire, who had long lived at Dieppe, and had there married a Frenchwoman. Gervase Kirke and his associates fitted out three small armed ships, commanded respectively by his sons David, Lewis and Thomas. Letters of marque were obtained from the king, and the adventurers were authorized to drive out the French from Acadia and Canada. Many Huguenot refugees were among the crews. Having been expelled from New France as settlers, the persecuted sect were returning as enemies." The Kirkes reached the St. Lawrence in advance of Roquemont's supply ships, intercepted the latter and captured or sank the whole. They then sailed back to England with their spoils, and it was not until the following summer that they returned to complete their conquest. Meantime, the small garrison and population at Quebec were reduced to starvation, and were subsisting on acorns and roots when, in July 1629, Admiral David Kirke, with his three ships, appeared before the place. Champlain could do nothing but arrange a dignified surrender. For three years following, Quebec and New France remained under the control of the English. They were then

restored, under a treaty stipulation to France. "It long remained a mystery why Charles consented to a stipulation which pledged him to resign so important a conquest. The mystery is explained by the recent discovery of a letter from the king to Sir Isaac Wake, his ambassador at Paris. The promised dowry of Queen Henrietta Maria, amounting to 800,000 crowns, had been but half paid by the French government, and Charles, then at issue with his Parliament and in desperate need of money, instructs his ambassador that, when he receives the balance due, and not before, he is to give up to the French both Quebec and Port Royal, which had also been captured by Kirke. The letter was accompanied by 'solemn instruments under our hand and seal' to make good the transfer on fulfilment of the condition. It was for a sum equal to about \$240,000 that Charles entailed on Great Britain and her colonies a century of bloody wars. The Kirkes and their associates, who had made the conquest at their own cost, under the royal authority, were never reimbursed, though David Kirke received the honor of knighthood, which cost the king nothing,"—and also the grant of Newfoundland. On July 5, 1632, Quebec was delivered up by Thomas Kirke to Emery de Caen, commissioned by the French king to reclaim the place. The latter held command for one year, with a monopoly of the fur trade; then Champlain resumed the government, on behalf of the Hundred Associates, continuing in it until his death, which occurred on Christmas Day, 1635.—F. Parkman, *Pioneers of France in the New World: Champlain*, ch. 16-17.—See also NEWFOUNDLAND: 1610-1655.

ALSO IN: *Calendar of state papers: Colonial series*, 1574-1660, pp. 96-143.—D. Brynmner, *Report on Canadian archives*, pp. xi-xiv, and note D.—H. Kirke, *First English conquest of Canada*.

1634-1652.—Jesuit missions and their fate.—The first of the Jesuit missionaries came to Quebec in 1625, as stated above, but it was not until nearly seven years later that they made their way into the heart of the Indian country and began there their devoted work. "The glowing accounts sent home to France by Father le Jeune stirred up the zeal of the devout, and it was now that the chief colleges and hospitals of Quebec were founded. A Jesuit college was endowed by the Marquis de Gamache, in 1636. Another nobleman, Noël de Silléri, established a sort of home for Indian converts, above Quebec, at a spot whose name now commemorates his pious action. The Hotel Dieu was endowed by the Duchess d'Aiguillon, and the task of caring for its inmates was undertaken by three devoted hospital nuns of Dieppe. A seminary for the instruction of young girls was the next thing called for by the spiritual directors of the colony; and this was presently founded by a wealthy young widow, Madame de la Peltrie, who brought her fortune and her services to Canada. While the Jesuits worked in every direction, enduring great hardships of hunger, cold, and filth among the Montagnais and other tribes of the harsh north-east, their greatest work was done in the Huron country. The Hurons were by far the most progressive of the Canadian Indians. The first efforts of Father Brébœuf to reach the Hurons were not successful: but his zeal grew till no obstacle could restrain it. At length, with Fathers Daniel and Davoust, he accomplished his object. A mission was established at Thonaticira on Georgian Bay, near Penetanguishene. . . . While the Iroquois were threatening Quebec and attacking Ville-Marie, the Huron Missions, . . . were enjoying a success which lulled them into false security. Early in the summer of 1648 a party of Huron

braves from the Mission of St. Joseph descended the Ottawa and the St. Lawrence with furs of their winter's hunt. At Three Rivers they were attacked by the Iroquois and won a victory. Meanwhile another band of Iroquois had fallen on the all but defenceless village. While service was being held in the little chapel the painted butchers broke through the palisades and fell with their hatchets upon the children and old men. The priest in charge was Father Daniel, a resolute and fearless man, who strove to organize some resistance on the part of his terror-stricken flock. But he fell, riddled with arrows, early in the fight. Seven hundred prisoners were taken. A few of the villagers fled to the woods; and by sunset the station of St. Joseph was a waste of smoking ashes. The following spring witnessed the finish of the

to whom they had been a bulwark, were involved with them in a common ruin. . . . In a measure, the occupation of the Jesuits was gone. Some of them went home, 'well resolved,' writes the Father Superior, 'to return to the combat at the first sound of the trumpet'; while of those who remained, about twenty in number, several soon fell victims to famine, hardship and the Iroquois. A few years more, and Canada ceased to be a mission, political and commercial interests gradually became ascendant, and the story of Jesuit propagandism was interwoven with her civil and military annals."—F. Parkman, *Jesuits in North America*, ch. 34.

ALSO IN: Père Charlevoix, *History of New France*, tr. by Shea, v. 2, bk. 5-7.—J. G. Shea, *Jesuits, Récollets, and the Indians (Narrative and critical history of America, v. 4, ch. 6).*



OLD QUEBEC, FROM AN EARLY DRAWING

bloody work. The decree of the Iroquois sachems was that the Hurons should be wiped out. A war party of 1200 men entered the Huron region. First St. Ignace was surprised, and the inhabitants, save those reserved for torture, brained in their sleep. Thirteen other villages were burnt, either taken by storm or abandoned by the horror-stricken people. Then, in the gray of dawn, St. Louis fell; and the devoted priests Bréboeuf and Lalemant were made prisoners. Enraged by their indomitable courage, the savages exhausted the last resources of atrocity in torturing them."—C. G. D. Roberts, *History of Canada*, pp. 50-60, 65.

"With the fall of the Hurons, fell the best hope of the Canadian mission. They, and the stable and populous communities around them, had been the rude material from which the Jesuit would have formed his Christian empire in the wilderness; but, one by one, these kindred peoples were uprooted and swept away, while the neighboring Algonquins,

1634-1673.—Nicolet.—Marquette.—Joliet.—Pioneer exploration in the west and discovery of the Mississippi.—When Champlain gave up his work, the map of New France was blank beyond lake Ontario and Georgian bay. The first of the French explorers who widened it far westward was a Norman named Jean Nicolet, who came to America in 1618, and who was trained for many years in Champlain's service. "After dwelling some time among the Nipissings, he visited the Far West; seemingly between the years 1634 and 1640. In a birch-bark canoe, the brave Norman voyager crossed or coasted Lake Huron, entered the St. Mary's River, and, first of white men, stood at the strait now called Sault Ste Marie. He does not seem to have known of Lake Superior, but returned down the St. Mary's River, passed from Lake Huron through the western detour to Michilimackinac, and entered another fresh-water sea, Mitchigannon or Michigan, also afterwards known

as the Lake of the Illinois, Lake St. Joseph, Lake Dauphin, or even Algonquin Lake. Here he visited the Menomonee tribe of Indians, and after them the Winnibagoes. . . . The fierce wrath of the Iroquois had driven numbers of the Hurons, Ottawaes, and several minor Algonquin tribes westward. The Iroquois, like a wedge, had split the northern tribes into east and west. Sault Ste Marie became a central point for the refugees. . . . Another gathering place for the fugitives had been found very near the south-west corner of this great lake. This was La Pointe, one of the Apostle Islands, near the present town of Ashland in Wisconsin. The Jesuits took up these two points as mission centres. . . . In 1669 the Fathers Dablon and Marquette, with their men, had erected a palisaded fort, enclosing a chapel and house, at Sault Ste Marie. In the same year Father Allouez had begun a mission at Green Bay. In 1670 an intrepid explorer, St. Luson, under orders from Intendant Talon, came west searching for copper-mines. He was accompanied by the afterwards well-known Joliet. When this party arrived at Sault Ste Marie, the Indians were gathered together in great numbers, and with imposing ceremonies St. Luson took possession of 'Sainte Marie du Saut, as also of Lakes Huron and Superior, the island of Manetoulin, and all countries, rivers, lakes, and streams contiguous and adjacent thereunto.' . . . It was undoubtedly the pressing desire of the Jesuit fathers to visit the country of the Illinois and their great river that led to the discovery of the 'Father of Waters.' Father Allouez indeed had already ascended the Fox River from Lake Michigan, and seen the marshy lake which is the head of a tributary of the Mississippi. At last on June 4th, 1672, the French minister, Colbert, wrote to Talon: 'As after the increase of the colony there is nothing more important for the colony than the discovery of a passage to the South Sea, his Majesty wishes you to give it your attention.' This message to the Intendant came as he was leaving for France, and he recommended the scheme and the explorer he had in view for carrying it out to the notice of the Governor, Frontenac, who had just arrived. Governor Frontenac approved and the explorer started. The man chosen for the enterprise was Louis Joliet, who had already been at Sault Ste Marie. He was of humble birth, and was a native of New France. . . . The French Canadian explorer was acceptable to the missionaries, and immediately journeyed west to meet Marquette, who was to accompany him. . . . M. Joliet met the priest Marquette at St. Ignace Mission, Michilimackinac. Jacques Marquette, of whom we have already heard, was born in 1637 at Laon, Champagne, in France. He sprang of an ancient and distinguished family. . . . On May 17th, 1673, with deepest religious emotion, the trader and missionary launched forth on Lake Michigan their two canoes, containing seven Frenchmen in all, to make the greatest discovery of the time. They hastened to Green Bay, followed the course of Father Allouez up the Fox River, and reached the tribe of the Mascoutins or Fire Nation on this river. These were new Indians to the explorers. They were peaceful, and helped the voyagers on their way. With guides furnished, the two canoes were transported for 2,700 paces, and the head waters of the Wisconsin were reached. After an easy descent of 30 or 40 leagues, on June 17th, 1673, the feat was accomplished, the Mississippi was discovered by white men, and the canoes shot out upon its surface in latitude 43°. Sailing down the great river for a month, the party reached the village of Akansa, on the Arkansas River, in latitude 34°,

and on July 17th began their return journey. It is but just to say that some of the Récollet fathers, between whom and the Jesuits jealousy existed, have disputed the fact of Joliet and Marquette ever reaching this point. The evidence here seems entirely in favour of the explorers. On their return journey the party turned from the Mississippi into a tributary river in latitude 38°. This was the Illinois. Ascending this, the Indian town of Kaskaskia was reached, and here for a time Father Marquette remained. Joliet and his party passed on," arriving at Montreal in due time, but losing all their papers in the rapids of the St. Lawrence. Father Marquette established a mission among the Illinois Indians, but his labors were cut short. He died while on a journey to Green Bay, May 18, 1675. "High encomiums of Father Marquette fill—and deservedly so—the 'Jesuit Relations.' We have his autograph map of the Mississippi. This great stream he desired to call 'Conception River,' but the name, like those of 'Colbert' and 'Buade' [the family name of Count Frontenac], which were both bestowed upon it, have failed to take the place of the musical Indian name."—G. Bryce, *Short history of the Canadian people*, ch. 5, sect. 3.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *La Salle and the discovery of the Great West*, ch. 2-5.—C. W. Butterfield, *History of the discovery of the Northwest by Nicolet*.—J. W. Monette, *History of the discovery and settlement of the valley of the Mississippi*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—S. S. Heberd, *History of Wisconsin under the dominion of France*, ch. 1-2.

1637-1657.—Sulpician settlement of Montreal and religious activity at Quebec.—Champlain was succeeded as governor of New France by M. de Châteaufort, of whose brief administration little is known, and the latter was followed by M. de Montmagny, out of the translation of whose name the Indians formed the title Onontio, signifying "Great Mountain," which they afterwards applied to all the French governors. Montmagny entered with zeal into the plans of Champlain, "but difficulties accumulated on all sides. Men and money were wanting, trade languished, and the Associated Company in France were daily becoming indifferent to the success of the colony. Some few merchants and inhabitants of the outposts, indeed, were enriched by the profitable dealings of the fur-trade, but their suddenly-acquired wealth excited the jealousy rather than increased the general prosperity of the settlers. The work of religious institutions was alone pursued with vigor and success in those times of failure and discouragement. At Sillery, one league from Quebec, an establishment was founded for the instruction of the savages and the diffusion of Christian light [1637]. The Hotel Dieu owed its existence to the Duchesse d'Aiguillon two years afterward, and the convent of the Ursulines was founded by the pious and high-born Madame de la Peltrie. The partial success and subsequent failure of Champlain and his Indian allies in their encounters with the Iroquois had emboldened these brave and politic savages. They now captured several canoes belonging to the Hurons, laden with furs, which that friendly people were conveying to Quebec. Montmagny's military force was too small to allow of his avenging this insult; he, however, zealously promoted an enterprise to build a fort and effect a settlement on the island of Montreal, which he fondly hoped would curb the audacity of his savage foes. The Associated Company would render no aid whatever to this important plan, but the religious zeal of the Abbé Olivier overcame all difficulties. He obtained a grant of Montreal from the king, and dispatched the Sieur de Maisonneuve and others

to take possession. On the 17th of May, 1641, the place destined for the settlement was consecrated by the superior of the Jesuits. At the same time the governor erected a fort at the entrance of the River Richelieu," which so far checked the Iroquois that they entered into a treaty of peace and respected it for a brief period.—E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 12.—The settlement of Montreal was undertaken by an association of thirty-five rich and influential persons in France, among whom was the Duke de Liancourt de la Roche Guyon. "This company obtained a concession of the island in 1640, and a member of the association arrived at Quebec from France with several immigrating families, some soldiers, and an armament valued at 25,000 piastres." In 1642 "a reinforcement of colonists arrived, led by M. d'Ailleboust de Musseau. During the following year, a second party came. At this time the European population resident in Canada did not exceed 200 souls. The immigrants who now entered it had been selected with the utmost care."—A. Bell, *History of Canada*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 1.—In 1657 the seigniority of Montreal was ceded to the Seminary of St. Sulpice in Paris, where the reins of its government were held until 1692.—Père Charlevoix, *History of New France*, tr. by Shea, v. 3, p. 23.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Jesuits in North America*, ch. 13-15.

1640-1700.—Wars with the Iroquois.—"From about the year 1640 to the year 1700, a constant warfare was maintained between the Iroquois and the French, interrupted occasionally by negotiations and brief intervals of peace. As the former possessed both banks of the St. Lawrence, and the circuits of lakes Erie and Ontario, they intercepted the fur trade, which the French were anxious to maintain with the western nations. . . . The war parties of the League ranged through these territories so constantly that it was impossible for the French to pass in safety through the lakes, or even up the St. Lawrence above Montreal. . . . So great was the fear of these sudden attacks, that both the traders and the missionaries were obliged to ascend the Ottawa river to near its source, and from thence to cross over to the Sault Ste. Marie, and the shores of Lake Superior. . . . To retaliate for these frequent inroads, and to prevent their recurrence, the country of the Iroquois was often invaded by the French. . . . In July of the ensuing year the French were made to feel still more sensibly the power of their revenge. A band of 1,200 warriors, animated with the fiercest resentment, made a descent upon the island of Montreal. . . . Overwhelmed by this sudden disaster, the French destroyed their forts at Niagara and Frontenac, and thus yielded the whole country west of Montreal to the possession of the Iroquois. At this critical period Count Frontenac again became governor of Canada, and during the short residue of his life devoted himself, with untiring energy, to restore its declining prosperity."—L. H. Morgan, *League of the Iroquois*, bk. 1, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: W. Kingsford, *History of Canada*, v. 1-2, bk. 2-4.—E. B. O'Callaghan, ed., *Documentary history of New York*, v. 1, pp. 57-278.—J. R. Brodhead, *History of the state of New York*, v. 2, ch. 3, 8.—O. H. Marshall, *Expedition of the Marquis de Nonville against the Senecas (Historical writings*, pp. 123-186).

1660-1688.—French encroachments and English concessions in Newfoundland. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1660-1688.

1663-1664.—Erected by Colbert into a royal province.—"In 1663 the proceedings of the com-

pany [of the hundred associates] became so obnoxious that the king of France decided upon the immediate resumption of his rights, and the erecting of Canada into a royal government: Monsieur de Mézy was appointed governor, and proceeded from France to Quebec with 400 regular troops, and 100 families as settlers, with cattle, horses and implements of agriculture. Under the royal jurisdiction, the governor, a king's commissioner, an apostolical vicar, and four other gentlemen, were formed into a sovereign council, to whom were confided the powers of cognizance in all causes, civil and criminal, to judge in the last resort according to the laws and ordinances of France, and the practice of the Parliament of Paris, reserving the general legislative powers of the Crown, to be applied according to circumstances. This Council was further invested with the regulation of commerce, the expenditure of the public monies, and the establishment of inferior courts at Three Rivers and Montreal. This change of Canada from an ecclesiastical mission to a secular government was owing to the great Colbert, who was animated by the example of Great Britain, to improve the navigation and commerce of his country by colonial establishments. The enlightened policy of this renowned financial minister of Louis XIV. was followed by the success which it deserved. To a regulated civil government was added increased military protection against the Iroquois Indians; the emigration of French settlers to New France was promoted by every possible means, and a martial spirit was imparted to the population, by the location in the colony of the disbanded soldiers of the Carignan regiment. . . . and other troops, whose officers became the principal Seigneurs of the colony, on condition of making cessions of land under the feudal tenure, as it still exists to the soldiers and other inhabitants."—R. M. Martin, *History of Upper and Lower Canada*, ch. 1.

1664-1674.—Brief history of the French West India Company.—"At the same time (1664) the West India Company was formed, with all the trading privileges of Canada and Acadie, of the French colonies in Florida, Africa, South America, and of the West Indies. This company was under the same pledges in regard to colonizing the land and converting the natives as those which its predecessor, the New Company of the Hundred Associates, had so lamentably failed to perform. The monopoly of the fur-trade thus granted to the West India Company excited vehement protest in Canada, where all the colonists were more or less interested in that profitable pursuit. A few years later, on Talon's urgent plea to Colbert, these restrictions were removed as far as Canada was concerned, the company being compensated by a fourth of all the beaver skins and a twelfth of all the buffalo skins exported. The West India Company proved, however, of no more benefit to the colonies than the New Company had been, and in 1674 its charter was revoked."—C. G. D. Roberts, *History of Canada*, p. 76.

ALSO IN: C. Lucas, *Historical geography of the British colonies*, v. 5.—A. Bell, *History of Canada*, v. 1, bk. 3, ch. 3.—F. Parkman, *Old regime in Canada*, ch. 10-17.

1669-1687.—La Salle and the acquisition of Louisiana.—"Second only to Champlain among the heroes of Canadian history stands Robert Cavalier de la Salle. . . . He did more than any other man to extend the dominion of France in the New World. As Champlain had founded the colony of Canada and opened the way to the great lakes, so La Salle completed the discovery of the Mississippi, and added to the French possessions the vast prov-

ince of Louisiana. . . . In 1669 La Salle made his first journey to the west, hoping to find a north-west passage to China, but very little is known about this expedition, except that the Ohio River was discovered, and perhaps also the Illinois. La Salle's feudal domain of St. Sulpice, some eight miles from Montreal, bears to-day the name of La Chine, or China, which is said to have been applied to it in derision of this fruitless expedition. In 1673 the priest Marquette and the fur-trader Joliet actually reached the Mississippi by way of the Wisconsin, and sailed down the great river as far as the mouth of the Arkansas; and now the life-work of La Salle began in earnest. He formed a grand project for exploring the Mississippi to its mouth, and determining whether it flowed into the Gulf of California or the Gulf of Mexico. The advance of Spain on the side of Mexico was to be checked forever, the English were to be confined to the east of the Alleghanies, and such military posts were to be established as would effectually confirm the authority of Louis XIV. throughout the centre of this continent. La Salle had but little ready money, and was surrounded by rivals and enemies; but he had a powerful friend in Count Frontenac, the Viceroy of Canada. . . . At length, after surmounting innumerable difficulties, a vessel [the Griffon or Griffin] was built and launched on the Niagara River [1679], a small party of 30 or 40 men were gathered together, and La Salle, having just recovered from a treacherous dose of poison, embarked on his great enterprise. His departure was clouded by the news that his impatient creditors had laid hands upon his Canadian estates; but, nothing daunted, he pushed on through Lakes Erie and Huron, and after many disasters reached the southern extremity of Lake Michigan. The vessel was now sent back, with half the party, to Niagara, carrying furs to appease the creditors and purchase additional supplies for the remainder of the journey, while La Salle with his diminished company pushed on to the Illinois, where a fort was built, and appropriately named Fort Crèvecœur, or, as we might translate it, the 'fort of the breaking heart.' Here, amid perils of famine, mutiny, and Indian attack, and exposed to death from the wintry cold, they waited until it became evident to all that their vessel must have perished. She never was heard from again, and most likely had foundered on her perilous voyage. To add to the trouble, La Salle was again poisoned; but his iron constitution, aided by some lucky antidote, again carried him safely through the ordeal, and about the 1st of March, 1680, he started on foot for Montreal. Leaving Fort Crèvecœur and its tiny garrison under command of his faithful lieutenant, Tonty, he set out with four Frenchmen and one Mohegan guide. . . . They made their way for a thousand miles across Michigan and Western Canada to Niagara, and so on to Montreal. . . . At Niagara La Salle learned that a ship from France, freighted for him with a cargo worth more than 20,000 livres, had been wrecked in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and nothing had been saved. In spite of this dreadful blow he contrived to get together supplies and reinforcements at Montreal, and had returned to Fort Frontenac, at the lower end of Lake Ontario, when still more woful tidings were received. Here, toward the end of July, a message came from the fortress so well named Crèvecœur. The garrison had mutinied and destroyed the fort, and made their way back through Michigan." The indomitable La Salle promptly hunted down the deserters, and sent them in chains to Quebec. He then "proceeded again to the Illinois to reconstruct his fort, and rescue,

if possible, his lieutenant Tonty and the few faithful followers who had survived the mutiny. This little party, abandoned in the wilderness, had found shelter among the Illinois Indians; but during the summer of 1680 the great village or town of the Illinois was destroyed by the Iroquois, and the hard-pressed Frenchmen retreated up the western shore of Lake Michigan to Green Bay. On arriving at the Illinois, therefore, La Salle found nothing but the terrible traces of fire and massacre and cannibal orgies; but he spent the following winter to good purpose in securing the friendship of the western Indians, and in making an alliance with them against the Iroquois. Then, in May, 1681, he set out again for Canada, to look after his creditors and obtain new resources. On the way home, at the outlet of Lake Michigan, he met his friend Tonty, and together they paddled their canoes a thousand miles and came to Fort Frontenac. So, after all this hardship and disaster, the work was to be begun anew; and the enemies of the great explorer were exulting in what they imagined must be his despair. But that was a word of which La Salle knew not the meaning, and now his fortunes began to change. In Mr. Parkman's words, 'Fate at length seemed tired of the conflict with so stubborn an adversary.' At this third venture everything went smoothly. The little fleet passed up the great lakes, from the outlet of Ontario to the head of Michigan, and gained the Chicago River. Crossing the narrow portage, they descended the Illinois and the Mississippi, till they came out upon the Gulf of Mexico; and on the 9th of April, 1682, the fleurs-de-lis were planted at the mouth of the great river, and all the country drained by its tributaries, from the Alleghanies to the Rocky Mountains, was formally declared to be the property of the king of France, and named after him Louisiana. Returning up the river after his triumph, La Salle founded a station or small colony on the Illinois, which he called St. Louis, and leaving Tonty in command, kept on to Canada, and crossed to France for means to circumvent his enemies and complete his far-reaching schemes. A colony was to be founded at the mouth of the Mississippi, and military stations were to connect this with the French settlements in Canada. At the French court La Salle was treated like a hero, and a fine expedition was soon fitted out, but everything was ruined by jealousy and ill-will between La Salle and the naval commander, Beaujeu. The fleet sailed beyond the mouth of the Mississippi, the colony was thrown upon the coast of Texas, some of the vessels were wrecked, and Beaujeu—though apparently without sinister design—sailed away with the rest, and two years of terrible suffering followed. At last, in March, 1687, La Salle started to find the Mississippi, hoping to ascend it to Tonty's fort on the Illinois, and obtain relief for his followers. But he had scarcely set out on this desperate enterprise when two or three mutinous wretches of his party laid an ambush for him in the forest, and shot him dead. Thus, at the early age of forty-three, perished this extraordinary man, with his life-work but half accomplished. Yet his labors had done much towards building up the imposing dominion with which New France confronted New England in the following century."—J. Fiske, *Romance of the Spanish and French explorers* (*Harper's Magazine*, v. 64, pp. 446-448).

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *La Salle and the discovery of the great West*.—Chevalier Tonti, *Account of M. de la Salle's last expedition* (*New York Historical Society Collections*, v. 2).—J. G. Shea, *Discovery and exploration of the Mississippi valley*.—

C. Le Clercq, *First establishment of the faith in New France*, tr. by Shea, v. 2, ch. 21-25.

1670.—Hudson's Bay Company chartered.—In "1670, certain English traders had received from Charles II. a charter of incorporation as 'The Governor and Company of Merchants Adventurers of England trading into Hudson Bay.' By the terms of this charter the new organization was given not alone full and exclusive trading rights, but actual proprietorship in all the regions watered by the rivers flowing into Hudson Bay and adjoining waters."—W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, p. 437.

ALSO IN: F. B. Tracy, *Tercentenary history of Canada*, ch. 17.—A. Lant, *Adventurers of England*, ch. 4.—A. W. Tilby, *British North America*, 1763-1867, bk. 10, ch. 1.

1673-1682.—Frontenac's policy conciliates Iroquois.—Incurs enmity.—Causes his removal.—"Frontenac was chiefly notable for his ability in dealing with the Iroquois. In 1673 he made a treaty with them and built a fort where Kingston now stands. He said that with a vessel on Lake Erie and a fort on Niagara he could now control the upper lakes. The ship, the Griffon, was built by La Salle but was wrecked on her first voyage. Frontenac supported La Salle's trading enterprise and thus incurred the opposition of the Quebec traders, whose profits were affected. He also incurred the hostility of the Jesuits whose power by this time was overwhelming. Combining their efforts, his enemies secured his removal in 1682. His successors renewed the war with the Iroquois who were thus thrown back on the English for support."—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, p. 116.

1689-1690.—First Inter-colonial war (King William's War).—Schenectady massacre.—Montreal threatened, Quebec attacked, and Port Royal taken by the English.—The revolution of 1688, in England, which drove James II from the throne, and called to it his daughter Mary with her able husband, William of Orange, produced war between England and France (see FRANCE: 1689-1690). The French and English colonies in America were soon involved in the contest, and so far as it troubled American history, it bears in New England annals the name of King William's War. "If the issue had depended on the condition of the colonies, it could hardly have seemed doubtful. The French census for the North American continent, in 1688, showed but 11,240 persons, scarcely a tenth part of the English population on its frontiers; about a twentieth part of English North America. West of Montreal, the principal French posts, and those but inconsiderable ones, were at Frontenac, at Mackinaw, and on the Illinois. At Niagara, there was a wavering purpose of maintaining a post, but no permanent occupation. So weak were the garrisons that English traders, with an escort of Indians, had ventured even to Mackinaw. . . . France, bounding its territory next New England by the Kennebec, claimed the whole eastern coast, Nova Scotia, Cape Breton, Newfoundland, Labrador, and Hudson's Bay; and to assert and defend this boundless region, Acadia and its dependencies counted but 900 French inhabitants."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States*, v. 3, ch. 21 (v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 11, in the "Author's last revision").—"Her [France's] first care was to send Frontenac back to Canada as governor, and he immediately turned his attention to winning over the Iroquois. In order to impress them with French prowess he sent three expeditions against the English frontier. February 9, 1690, a force of Frenchmen and Indians surprised Schenectady, near Albany, slew 60

whites and led away 27 captives. The second force attacked and destroyed the village of Salmon Falls, New Hampshire, and the third took Fort Loyal where Portland, Maine, now stands. Each of these affairs was conducted with much cruelty, and cries for vengeance arose from all the northern colonies. A congress of delegates from the New England states planning retaliation decided that New York and Connecticut should attack Montreal by way of Lake Champlain, and urged Massachusetts to send a naval force against Quebec. A fleet of her merchantmen under the command of Sir William Phips engaged in an expedition against Port Royal. A nest of privateers soon appeared in Boston with booty reporting complete success. In a burst of enthusiasm the colony resolved to send a force against Quebec to end the French peril definitely. While Massachusetts made ready her attack, the army of the other colonies had assembled and set out for Montreal. Dissension appeared, smallpox was discovered, the Iroquois allies did not keep their promises and the expedition was abandoned at Lake Champlain. . . . Phips started for Quebec August 9, 1690. He had no pilot who knew the St. Lawrence, and as he groped his way through its course news of his movements was carried to Frontenac who barely had time to collect his forces at Quebec, most of them having been drawn off to Montreal to meet the expected attack there. The Massachusetts men landed 1200 strong and laid siege to the town. Cold weather now approached and it was decided to return to Boston. Had Phips acted vigorously at first it is probable that the town would have been taken. The expedition cost the colony dearly both in money and in the men who died from disease."—J. S. Bassett, *Short history of the United States*, pp. 116-117.—See also U. S. A.: 1690.

ALSO IN: G. M. Wrong, *Conquest of New France*, ch. 1.

1692-1697.—First inter-colonial war (King William's War).—Abortive plans of invasion on both sides.—French recovery of Acadia.—"The defeat of the expedition of 1690 was probably attributable to the want of concert on the part of the troops from Connecticut and New York and those from Massachusetts, and the failure of the supplies which were sought from England. . . . But there was mismanagement on all hands in the conduct of the expedition; and it seems to have been predestinated that New England should not be delivered from the presence of the French at the north, until time had wrought the necessary changes which were to render the conquest of that country available for the promotion of still more important ends. Hence a new expedition, projected two years later, and resolved to be prosecuted in the following year [1693], was attended with the like circumstances of mortification and defeat. England herself participated in this enterprise, and . . . the government was informed that it had 'pleased the king, out of his great goodness and disposition for the welfare of all his subjects, to send a considerable strength of ships and men into the West Indies, and to direct Sir Francis Wheeler, the admiral, to sail to New England from the Caribbee Islands, so as to be there by the last of May or the middle of June at furthest, with a strength sufficient to overcome the enemy, if joined and seconded by the forces of New England.' . . . Unfortunately for the success of these plans, the letter, which should have reached Boston by the first of April, did not arrive until July; and the mortality which prevailed in the fleet during its stay in the West Indies was so great that, when the commander-in-chief, Sir Francis Wheeler, an-

chored off Nantasket,—bringing himself the news of the projected invasion,—he had lost 1,300 out of 2,100 sailors, and 1,800 out of 2,400 soldiers. All thoughts of reducing Canada were therefore abandoned; but a plan for another year was settled with the governor, the details of which were that 2,000 land forces should be sent from England to Cansau by the first of June, to be joined by 2,000 from the colonies, and that the whole force should go up the St. Lawrence, divide and simultaneously attack Montreal and Quebec. Changes in the government of the province, however, and other causes, prevented the execution of this plan, whose success was problematical even if it had been attempted. But if the plans of the English for the reduction of Canada were doomed to disappointment, the plans of the French for the recovery of Acadia were more successful. For the first year after the conquest of that country, indeed, the French were as little concerned to regain, as the English were to retain, the possession of its territory; nor was Massachusetts able to bear the charge of a sufficient military force to keep its inhabitants in subjection, though she issued commissions to judges and other officers, and required the administration of the oath of fidelity. In the course of that year [1691], authority was given to Mr. John Nelson, of Boston, who had taken an active part in the overthrow of Andros, and who was bound thither on a trading voyage, to be commander-in-chief of Acadia; but as he neared the mouth of the St. John's, he was taken by Monsieur Villebon, who, under a commission from the French king, had touched at Port Royal, and ordered the English flag to be struck, and the French flag to be raised in its place. The next year an attempt was made to dislodge Villebon, but without success. . . . In the summer of 1696, Pemaquid was taken by the French, under D'Iberville and Castine, and the frontier of the dominion of France was extended into Maine; and by the treaty of the following year Acadia was ceded to France, and the English relinquished their claims to the country. The last year of King William's War, as it was long termed in New England, was a year of especial alarm to the province [Massachusetts] and rumors were rife that the French were on the eve of fitting out a formidable fleet for the invasion of the colonies and the conquest of New York." According to the plan of the French undertaking, a powerful fleet from France was to be joined by a force of 1,500 men, raised by Count Frontenac, in Canada, and make, first, a conquest of Boston. "When that town was taken, they were to range the coast to Piscataqua, destroying the settlements as far back into the country as possible. Should there be time for further acquisitions, they were next to go to New York, and upon its reduction the Canadian troops were to march overland to Quebec, laying waste the country as they proceeded."—J. S. Barry, *History of Massachusetts*, v. 2, ch. 4.—This project was frustrated by happenings much the same in kind as those which thwarted the designs of the English against Quebec. The fleet was delayed by contrary winds, and by certain bootless undertakings in Newfoundland, until the season was too far advanced for the enterprise contemplated.—See also NEWFOUNDLAND: 1694-1697.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.*, ch. 16-19.—J. Hannay, *History of Acadia*, ch. 14.

1696.—Frontenac's expedition against the Iroquois.—The war with the "Bastonnais" or "Bostonnais," as he called the New Englanders, did not divert Frontenac's attention from "the grand

castigation which at last he was planning for the Iroquois. He had succeeded, in 1694, in inducing them to meet him in general council at Quebec, and had framed the conditions of a truce; but the English at Albany intrigued to prevent the fulfilment, and war was again imminent. Both sides were endeavoring to secure the alliance of the tribes of the upper lakes. These wavered, and Frontenac saw the peril and the remedy. His recourse was to attack the Iroquois in their villages at once, and conquer on the Mohawk the peace he needed at Michilimackinac. It was Frontenac's last campaign. Eight or nine miles and a day's work brought them to the Onondaga village; but its inhabitants had burned it and fled. Vaudreuil was sent with a detachment which destroyed the town of the Oneidas. After committing all the devastation of crops that he could, in hopes that famine would help him, Frontenac began his homeward march before the English at Albany were aroused at all. The effect was what Frontenac wished. The Iroquois ceased their negotiations with the western tribes, and sued for peace."—G. Stewart, Jr., *Frontenac and his times (Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 4, ch. 7).

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.*, ch. 18-19.

1697.—Peace of Ryswick.—"In 1697, the Peace of Ryswick closed the war between France and England, and each nation restored its conquests in America."—W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, p. 121.

1698-1710.—Colonization of Louisiana and the organization of its separate government. See LOUISIANA: 1698-1712.

1700-1735.—Spread of French occupation in the Mississippi valley and on the lakes.—"From the time of La Salle's visit in 1679, we can trace a continuous French occupation of Illinois. . . . He planted his citadel of St. Louis on the summit of 'Starved Rock,' proposing to make that the centre of his colony. . . . At first his colony was exceedingly feeble, but it was never discontinued. 'Joutel found a garrison at Fort St. Louis . . . in 1687, and in 1689 La Hontan bears testimony that it still continued. In 1696 a public document proves its existence; and when Tonty, in 1700, again descended the Mississippi, he was attended by twenty Canadians, residents on the Illinois.' Even while the wars named after King William and Queen Anne were going on, the French settlements were growing in numbers and increasing in size; those wars over, they made still more rapid progress. Missions grew into settlements and parishes. Old Kaskaskia was begun in what La Salle called the 'terrestrial paradise' before the close of the seventeenth century. The Wabash Valley was occupied about 1700, the first settlers entering it by the portage leading from the Kankakee. Later the voyageurs found a shorter route to the fertile valley. . . . The French located their principal missions and posts with admirable judgment. There is not one of them in which we cannot see the wisdom of the priest, of the soldier, and the trader combined. The triple alliance worked for an immediate end, but the sites that they chose are as important to-day as they were when they chose them. . . . La Salle's colony of St. Louis was planted in one of the gardens of the world, in the midst of a numerous Indian population, on the great line of travel between Lake Michigan and the Mississippi River. Kaskaskia and the neighboring settlements held the centre of the long line extending from Canada to Louisiana. The Wabash colony commanded that valley and the Lower Ohio. Detroit was a position so important that,

securely held by the French, it practically banished from the English mind for fifty years the thought of acquiring the Northwest. . . . Then how unerringly were the French guided to the carrying places between the Northern and the Southern waters, viz., Green Bay, Fox River, and the Wisconsin; the Chicago River and the Illinois; the St. Joseph and the Kankakee; the St. Joseph and the Wabash; the Maumee and the Wabash; and, later, on the eve of the war that gave New France to England, the Chautauqua and French Creek routes from Lake Erie to the Ohio. . . . In due time the French began to establish themselves on the Northern frontier of the British colonies. They built Fort Niagara in 1726, four years after the English built Fort Oswego. Following the early footsteps of Champlain, they ascended to the head of the lake that bears his name, where they fortified Crown Point in 1727, and Ticonderoga in 1731. Presque Isle, the present site of the city of Erie, was occupied about the time that Vincennes was founded in the Wabash Valley [1735]. Finally, just on the eve of the last struggle between England and France, the French pressed into the valleys of the Alleghany and the Ohio, at the same time that the English also began to enter them."—B. A. Hinsdale, *Old northwest*, ch. 4.

1702-1710.—Second inter-colonial war (Queen Anne's War): Border ravages in New England and Acadia.—English conquest of Acadia. See NEW ENGLAND: 1702-1710.

1711-1713.—Second inter-colonial war.—Walker's expedition against Quebec.—After the reduction of Port Royal, which was practically the conquest of Acadia, Colonel Nicholson, who bore the honors of that achievement, repaired to England and prevailed with the government to fit out an adequate expedition for the conquest of Canada. "The expedition against Quebec was on a scale adequate for the time. Britain dispatched seven regiments of regulars, numbering in all five thousand five hundred men, and there were besides in the fleet some thousands of sailors and marines. Never before had the English sent to North America a force so great. On June 24, 1711, Admiral Walker arrived at Boston with his great array. Boston was impressed, but Boston was also a little hurt, for the British leaders were very lofty and superior in their tone towards colonials and gave orders as if Boston were a provincial city of England which must learn respect and obedience to his Majesty's officers 'vested with the Queen's Royal Power and Authority.' More than seventy ships, led by nine men-of-war, sailed from Boston for the attack on Canada. On board were nearly twelve thousand men. Compared with this imposing fleet, that of Phips, twenty-one years earlier, seems feeble. Phips had set out too late. This fleet was in good time, for it sailed on the 30th of July. . . . It is a long journey from Boston to Quebec by water. For three weeks, however, all went well. On the 22d of August, Walker was out of sight of land in the Gulf where it is about seventy miles wide above the Island of Anticosti. A strong east wind with thick fog is dreaded in those waters even now, and on the evening of that day a storm of this kind blew up. In the fog Walker lost his bearings. When in fact he was near the north shore he thought he was not far from the south shore. . . . A French pilot, captured in the Gulf, had taken pains to give what he could of alarming information. He now declared that the ships were off the north shore. Walker turned his own ship sharply and succeeded in beating out into deep water and safety. For the fleet the night was terrible. Some ships dropped anchor which held,

for happily the storm abated. Fog guns and lights as signals of distress availed little to the ships in difficulty. Eight British transports laden with troops and two ships carrying supplies were dashed to pieces on the rocks."—G. M. Wrong, *Conquest of New France*, pp. 57-60.

Also in: E. Greene, *Provincial America*, ch. 10.
1713.—Peace of Utrecht.—"In the meantime, the preliminaries of a treaty had been signed between France and England; and the war . . . was suspended by negotiations that were soon followed by the uncertain peace of Utrecht [April 11, 1713]. . . . England, by the peace of Utrecht, obtained from France large concessions of territory in America. The assembly of New York had addressed the queen against French settlements in the West; William Penn advised to establish the St. Lawrence as the boundary on the north, and to include in our colonies the valley of the Mississippi. 'It will make a glorious country'; such were his prophetic words. . . . The colony of Louisiana excited in Saint-John 'apprehensions of the future undertakings of the French in North America.' The occupation of the Mississippi valley had been proposed to Queen Anne; yet, at the peace, that immense region remained to France. But England obtained the bay of Hudson and its borders; Newfoundland, subject to the rights of France in its fisheries; and all Nova Scotia, or Acadia, according to its ancient boundaries. It was agreed that 'France should never molest the Five Nations subject to the dominion of Great Britain.' But Louisiana, according to French ideas, included both banks of the Mississippi. Did the treaty of Utrecht assent to such an extension of French territory? And what were the ancient limits of Acadia? Did it include all that is now New Brunswick? or had France still a large territory on the Atlantic between Acadia and Maine? And what were the bounds of the territory of the Five Nations, which the treaty appeared to recognize as a part of the English dominions? These were questions which were never to be adjusted amicably."—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States (Author's last revision)*, v. 2, pt. 3, ch. 12.—See also UTRICHT: 1712-1714; and NEWFOUNDLAND: 1713.

1713-1730.—Relations with Nova Scotia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1720.—Fortifying of Louisburg. See CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1720-1745.

1725-1726.—Control at Niagara by French. See NIAGARA: 1725-1726.

1744-1748.—Third inter-colonial war (King George's War).—Loss and recovery of Louisburg and Cape Breton. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744; 1745; and 1745-1748.

1748-1754.—Active measures to fortify possession of the Ohio valley and the West. See OHIO: 1748-1754.

1749-1859.—Hudson's Bay Company's commercial and political powers. See OREGON: 1749-1850.

1750-1753.—Boundary disputes with England.—Futile negotiations at Paris.—"For the past three years [1750-1753] the commissioners appointed under the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle to settle the question of boundaries between France and England in America had been in session at Paris, waging interminable war on paper; La Galissonière and Silhouette for France, Shirley and Milder for England. By the treaty of Utrecht, Acadia belonged to England; but what was Acadia? . . . When the French owned Acadia, they gave it boundaries as comprehensive as those claimed for it by the English commissioners; now that it

belonged to a rival, they cut it down to a paring of its former self. . . . Four censuses of Acadia while it belonged to the French had recognized the mainland as included in it; and so do also the early French maps. Its prodigious shrinkage was simply the consequence of its possession by an alien. Other questions of limits, more important and equally perilous, called loudly for solution. What line should separate Canada and her western dependencies from the British colonies? Various principles of demarcation were suggested, of which the most prominent was a geographical one. All countries watered by streams falling into the St. Lawrence, the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi were to belong to her. This would have planted her in the heart of New York and along the crests of the Alleghanias, giving her all the interior of the continent, and leaving nothing to England but a strip of sea-coast. Yet in view of what France had achieved; of the patient gallantry of her explorers, the zeal of her missionaries, the adventurous hardihood of her bushrangers, revealing to civilized mankind the existence of this wilderness world, while her rivals plodded at their workshops, their farms, or their fisheries,—in view of all this, her pretensions were moderate and reasonable compared with those of England. The treaty of Utrecht had declared the Iroquois, or Five Nations, to be British subjects; therefore it was insisted that all countries conquered by them belonged to the British Crown. But what was an Iroquois conquest? The Iroquois rarely occupied the countries they overran. . . . But the range of their war-parties was prodigious; and the English laid claim to every mountain, forest or prairie where an Iroquois had taken a scalp. This would give them not only the country between the Alleghanias and the Mississippi, but also that between Lake Huron and the Ottawa, thus reducing Canada to the patch on the American map now represented by the province of Quebec,—or rather by a part of it, since the extension of Acadia to the St. Lawrence would cut off the present counties of Gaspé, Rimouski and Bonaventure. Indeed, among the advocates of British claims there were those who denied that France had any rights whatever on the south side of the St. Lawrence. Such being the attitude of the two contestants, it was plain there was no resort but the last argument of kings. Peace must be won with the sword.”—F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 1, ch. 5.—See also NOVA SCOTIA: 1749-1755; NEW YORK: 1684; and 1726.

ALSO IN: T. C. Haliburton, *Account of Nova Scotia*, v. 1, pp. 143-149.

1752.—Beginnings of Baptist church.—Growth. See BAPTISTS: Development in Europe, Canada and Australia.

1755 (April).—Plans of the English against the French.—“While the negotiations [between England and France, at Paris] were pending, Braddock arrived in the Chesapeake. In March [1755] he reached Williamsburgh, and visited Annapolis; on the 14th of April, he, with Commodore Keppel, held a congress at Alexandria. There were present, of the American governors, Shirley, next to Braddock in military rank; Delancey, of New York; Morris, of Pennsylvania; Sharpe, of Maryland; and Dinwiddie, of Virginia. . . . Between England and France peace existed under ratified treaties; it was proposed not to invade Canada, but to repel encroachments on the frontier. For this end, four expeditions were concerted by Braddock at Alexandria. Lawrence, the lieutenant-governor of Nova Scotia, was to reduce that province according to the English interpretation of its boundaries; Johnson [afterwards Sir William Johnson, of New

York] from his long acquaintance with the Six Nations, was selected to enroll Mohawk warriors in British pay and lead them with provincial militia against Crown Point; Shirley proposed to drive the French from Niagara; the commander-in-chief was to recover the Ohio valley.”—G. Bancroft, *History of the United States (Author's last revision)*, v. 2, pp. 416-419.

1755 (June).—French disaster at sea.—Frustrated attempt against Nova Scotia.—“In 1754, France fully awakened to the fact that England not only intended to maintain her position in the wilds of America, but likewise by sea. She equipped an armament under the command of admirals Macnamara and Bois de la Mothe, of 18 ships of the line and 9 frigates, having on board, ostensibly for Canada, eleven battalions of troops under General Dieskau, an ‘élève’ of Marshal Saxe. England, apprised of this force being sent, despatched Vice-Admiral Boscawen with 11 ships of the line and one frigate to intercept it en route. Both sailed about the same time, the 22d of April, 1755. The French ambassador at London being duly notified, replied: ‘That his royal master would consider the first gun fired at sea in a hostile manner to be a declaration of war.’ The esoteric instructions of the French fleet were to rendezvous at Chebucton Harbour, destroy Halifax, and then proceed to Annapolis for the same purpose. While the instructions were of necessity secret, it was well known in Acadia that an attempt would be made by France to recover possession of the province. It was this fleet, so eagerly expected by the Acadians, that gave rise to the insolent manner in which they addressed the Council at Halifax, and which led to an immediate removal of their arms and subsequent dispersal. Owing to misadventure, some of the French fleet under Macnamara had to put back to Brest; the remainder met the English off the coast of Newfoundland [June 8] in a dense fog; avoiding an engagement, several of them escaped by taking the northern route via Belleisle . . . successfully reaching their ‘harbour of refuge,’ Louisbourg. The ‘Lys’ and the ‘Alcyde’ were sufficiently unfortunate to be compelled to face the guns of the English frigates ‘Dunkirk’ and ‘Defiance,’ and after five hours close engagement the ‘Lys’ struck its colors . . . followed by the ‘Alcyde,’ when Hocquart in command became Boscawen’s prisoner by sea for the third time, together with £76,000 sterling in money, eight companies of soldiers and several officers and engineers. The unexpected rencontre with Boscawen’s fleet, the loss of two of their vessels, and the knowledge that the garrison at Halifax was considerably reinforced by the forces brought out by Boscawen, caused the abandonment of all attempts to recover Acadia.”—G. E. Hart, *Fall of New France*, pp. 51-54.

ALSO IN: J. Campbell, *Naval history of Great Britain*, v. 5, pp. 104-106.

1755 (July).—Defeat of Braddock’s expedition against Fort Duquesne. See OHIO: 1755.

1755 (August-October).—Abortive expedition against Niagara.—According to the English plan of campaign, concerted with Braddock at Alexandria, Governor Shirley was to lead an army for the conquest of Niagara; but his march westward ended at Oswego. “Colonel Philip Schuyler led the first regiment of the expedition. Boats were built at Oswego to convey 600 men by lake. Shirley followed by way of the Mohawk, and reached Oswego August 21. He was delayed from various causes, and in October a council of war decided that the attack on Niagara should be postponed for a year. Shirley was to have met

Braddock in victory at Niagara. Both branches of the plan had been shattered. The great western scheme sank to a mere strengthening of the defences of Oswego. Colonel Mercer was left in command of a garrison of 700 men, with instructions to build two new forts, and General Shirley took the remainder of his force back to Albany. The pitiful failure led to recriminations relative to the causes of the fatal delays.—E. H. Roberts, *New York*, v. 1, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: R. Hildreth, *History of the United States*, v. 2, ch. 26.

1755 (September).—**Battle of Lake George and defeat of Dieskau.**—"Meanwhile Dieskau had arrived at Quebec. In the colony of New York Sir William Johnson, the rough and cheery Irishman, much loved of the Iroquois, was gathering forces to attack Canada. Early in July, 1755, Johnson had more than three thousand provincial troops at Albany, a motley horde of embattled farmers, most of them with no uniforms, dressed in their own homespun, carrying their own muskets, electing their own officers, and altogether, from the strict soldier's point of view, a rabble rather than an army. To meet this force and destroy it if he could, Dieskau took to the French fort at Crown Point, on Lake Champlain, and southward from there to Ticonderoga at the head of this lake, some three thousand five hundred men, including his French regulars, some Canadians and Indians. Johnson's force lay at Fort George, later Fort William Henry, the most southerly point on Lake George. . . . The two armies met on the shores of Lake George early in September and there was an all-day fight. Each side lost some two hundred men. . . . The honors of the day seem to have been with Johnson, for the French were driven off and Dieskau himself, badly wounded, was taken prisoner. . . . There was small gain to the English from Johnson's success. He was too cautious to advance towards Canada; and, as winter came on, he broke up his camp and sent his men to their homes. The colonies had no permanent military equipment. Each autumn their forces were dissolved to be reorganized again in the following spring, a lame method of waging war."—G. M. Wrong, *Conquest of New France*, pp. 161-162.

ALSO IN: W. L. Stone, *Life and times of W. Johnson*, v. 1, ch. 16.—F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 1, ch. 9.

1755 (October-November).—**Removal and dispersion in exile of the French Acadians.** See NOVA SCOTIA: 1755.

1756.—**Formal declarations of war.**—"Seven Years' War" of Europe, called the "French and Indian War" in British America.—Montcalm sent from France.—"On the 18th of May, 1756, England, after a year of open hostility, at length declared war. She had attacked France by land and sea, turned loose her ships to prey on French commerce, and brought some 300 prizes into her ports. It was the act of a weak government, supplying by spasms of violence what it lacked in considerate resolution. France, no match for her amphibious enemy in the game of marine depredation, cried out in horror; and to emphasize her complaints and signalize a pretended good faith which her acts had belied, ostentatiously released a British frigate captured by her cruisers. She in her turn declared war on the 9th of June: and now began the most terrible conflict of the 18th century; one that convulsed Europe and shook America, India, the coasts of Africa, and the islands of the sea [see ENGLAND: 1754-1755; GERMANY: 1755-1756] . . . Henceforth France was to turn her strength against her European foes; and

the American war, the occasion of the universal outbreak, was to hold in her eyes a second place. . . . Still, something must be done for the American war; at least there must be a new general to replace Dieskau. None of the court favorites wanted a command in the backwoods, and the minister of war was free to choose whom he would. His choice fell on Louis Joseph, Marquis de Montcalm-Gozon de Saint Vêran. . . . The Chevalier de Lévis, afterwards Marshal of France, was named as his second in command. . . . The troops destined for Canada were only two battalions, one belonging to the regiment of La Sarre, and the other to that of Royal Roussillon. Louis XV. and Pompadour sent 100,000 men to fight the battles of Austria, and could spare but 1,200 to reinforce New France." Montcalm, who reached Quebec in May, was placed in difficult relations with the governor-general, Vaudreuil, by the fact that the latter held command of the colonial troops. . . . The military situation was somewhat perplexing. Iroquois spies had brought reports of great preparations on the part of the English. As neither party dared offend these wavering tribes, their warriors could pass with impunity from one to the other, and were paid by each for bringing information, not always trustworthy. They declared that the English were gathering in force to renew the attempt made by Johnson the year before against Crown Point and Ticonderoga, as well as that made by Shirley against Forts Frontenac and Niagara. Vaudreuil had spared no effort to meet the double danger. Lotbinière, a Canadian engineer, had been busied during the winter in fortifying Ticonderoga, while Pouchot, a captain in the battalion of Béarn, had rebuilt Niagara, and two French engineers were at work in strengthening the defences of Frontenac. . . . Indians presently brought word that 10,000 English were coming to attack Ticonderoga." Both Montcalm and Lévis, with troops, "hastened to the supposed scene of danger . . . and reached Ticonderoga at the end of June. They found the fort . . . advanced towards completion. It stood on the crown of the promontory. . . . The rampart consisted of two parallel walls ten feet apart, built of the trunks of trees, and held together by transverse logs dovetailed at both ends, the space between being filled with earth and gravel well packed. Such was the first Fort Ticonderoga, or Carillon,—a structure quite distinct from the later fort of which the ruins still stand on the same spot. . . . Ticonderoga was now the most advanced position of the French, and Crown Point, which had before held that perilous honor, was in the second line. . . . The danger from the English proved to be still remote. . . . Meanwhile, at the head of Lake George, the raw bands of ever-active New England, were mustering for the fray."—F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 1, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: W. Kingsford, *History of Canada*, v. 3, bk. 11, ch. 9.

1756-1757.—**French successes.—Capture of Oswego and Fort William Henry.**—On the death of Braddock, Governor Shirley became commander-in-chief of the British forces in America, "a position for which he was not adapted by military knowledge. . . . His military schemes for the season of 1756 were grand in conception and theory, but disastrous failures in practice. . . . While Shirley was preparing, Montcalm advanced against the three forts at Oswego, the terror of the French in the Iroquois country and which it had been their desire to destroy for many years back; they likewise commanded the entrance to Lake Ontario. The English had a garrison of 1,800 men in these divided between Fort Ontario . . . Fort Oswego

... and Fort George, or Rascal . . . about a mile distant from each other." Montcalm took all three of the forts without much difficulty, and demolished them. Finding himself free from attack, he penetrated with his army of 7,606 men to Fort William Henry, at the head of Lake George.

"On the 3d of August the fort was invested and, after a summons to surrender was rejected, the attack was begun and continued with undiminished fervor until the 9th at noon, when a capitulation was signed. . . . An incident of the war which has given rise to a great deal of controversy and ill-feeling up to the present moment, was the so-called massacre at Fort William Henry, the outcome of the numerous horde of savages the French allies had in the engagement. . . . On the morning following the surrender, the garrison was to march out under a proper escort to protect them from injury at the hands of the Indians. The evacuation had barely commenced, when a repetition of the looting of the day previous, which ensued immediately after the capitulation had been signed, was attempted. . . . Fort George, or William Henry, as it was indifferently called, like its compeer Fort Oswego, was razed to the ground and the army retreated into their winter quarters at Montreal."—G. E. Hart, *Fall of New France*, pp. 70-79.

ALSO IN: E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 2, ch. 2-3.

1758.—Loss of Louisburg and Fort Duquesne.—Defeat of the English at Ticonderoga.—"The affairs of Great Britain in North America wore a more gloomy aspect, at the close of the campaign of 1757, than at any former period. By the acquisition of fort William Henry, the French had obtained complete possession of the lakes Champlain, and George. By the destruction of Oswego, they had acquired the dominion of those lakes which connect the St. Lawrence with the waters of the Mississippi, and unite Canada to Louisiana. By means of fort Du Quêne, they maintained their ascendancy over the Indians, and held undisturbed possession of the country west of the Allegheny mountains; while the English settlers were driven to the Blue Ridge. The great object of the war in that quarter was gained, and France held the country for which hostilities had been commenced. . . . But this inglorious scene was about to be succeeded by one of unrivalled brilliancy. . . . The brightest era of British history was to commence. . . . The public voice had, at length, made its way to the throne, and had forced, on the unwilling monarch, a minister who has been justly deemed one of the greatest men of the age in which he lived. . . . In the summer of 1757, an administration was formed, which conciliated the great contending interests in parliament; and Mr. Pitt was placed at its head. . . . Possessing the public confidence without limitation, he commanded all the resources of the nation, and drew liberally from the public purse. . . . In no part of his majesty's dominions was the new administration more popular than in his American colonies. . . . The circular letter of Mr. Pitt assured the several governors that, to repair the losses and disappointments of the last inactive campaign, the cabinet was determined to send a formidable force, to operate by sea and land, against the French in America; and he called upon them to raise as large bodies of men, within their respective governments, as the number of inhabitants might allow. . . . The legislature of Massachusetts agreed to furnish 7,000 men; Connecticut 5,000; and New Hampshire 3,000. . . . Three expeditions were proposed. The first was against Louisbourg; the second

against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and the third against fort Du Quêne. The army destined against Louisbourg, consisting of 14,000 men, was commanded by major general Amherst. [The expedition was successful and Louisburg fell, July 26, 1758].—Abercrombie was general of the attacking British force at Ticonderoga with Lord Howe, second in command. After a terrific battle in which the British outnumbered Montcalm's forces four to one, the small garrison succeeded in holding its position and repelling the invaders. (See CAPE BRETON ISLAND: 1758-1760.) "Searching however for the means of repairing the misfortune, if not the disgrace, sustained by his arms, he readily acceded to a proposition made by colonel Bradstreet, for an expedition against fort Frontignac. This fortress stands on the north side of Ontario. . . . Colonel Bradstreet embarked on the Ontario at Oswego, and on the 25th of August, landed within one mile of the fort. In two days, his batteries were opened at so short a distance that almost every shell took effect; and the governor, finding the place absolutely untenable, surrendered at discretion. . . . After destroying the fort and vessels, and such stores as could not be brought off, colonel Bradstreet returned to the army which undertook nothing farther during the campaign. The demolition of fort Frontignac and of the stores which had been collected there, contributed materially to the success of the expedition against fort Du Quêne."—J. Marshall, *Life of George Washington*, v. 1, ch. 13.

"During the summer of 1758, while Wolfe and Boscawen were pounding the walls of Louisbourg, seven thousand troops led by General Forbes, Colonel George Washington, and Colonel Henry Bouquet, pushed their way through the wilds beyond the Alleghanies and took possession of the Ohio. The French destroyed Fort Duquesne and fled. On the 25th of November the English occupied the place and named it 'Pitts-Bourgh' in honor of their great war minister."—G. M. Wrong, *Conquest of New France*, p. 163.

ALSO IN: W. C. Bryant and S. H. Gay, *Popular history of the United States*, v. 3, ch. 11.—B. Fernow, *Ohio valley in colonial days*, ch. 7.—R. Rogers, *Journals*, ed. by Hough, pp. 115-123.—W. Irving, *Life of Washington*, v. 1, ch. 24.—N. B. Craig, *Olden time*, v. 1, pp. 177-200.

1759 (July-August).—Fall of Niagara, Ticonderoga and Crown Point.—"For the campaign of 1759 the British Parliament voted liberal supplies of men and money, and the American colonies, encouraged by the successes of the preceding year, raised large numbers of troops. Amherst superseded Abercrombie as commander-in-chief. The plan for the year embraced three expeditions: Fort Niagara was to be attacked by Prideaux, assisted by Sir William Johnson; Amherst was to march his force against Ticonderoga and Crown Point; and Quebec was to be assailed by an army under Wolfe and a fleet under Saunders. Prideaux and Amherst, after the capture of the Forts, were to descend the St. Lawrence, take Montreal, and join the army before Quebec." Prideaux landed six miles east of the mouth of Niagara and was advancing the work of fortification when he was killed by the bursting of a shell. "Amherst appointed General Gage to succeed him but before the arrival of Gage the command devolved upon General Johnson." A considerable force of French and Indians, sent by the French to the relief of the beleaguered fort, was intercepted and routed. This took from Pouchot his last hope, and he surrendered the following day. "Presqu Isle, Venango, and Le Boeuf were easily taken by Colonel Bou-

quet, who had been sent to summon them to surrender." The French, learning of the concentration of English forces and the proposed attacks, abandoned Ticonderoga and Crown Point. "Amherst spent his time in fortifying Crown Point and building boats and rafts" until "it was too late to descend to Montreal and go to the help of Wolfe; the time for that had been passed in elaborate and useless preparations."—R. Johnson, *History of the French war*, ch. 18.

Also in: E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 2, ch. 9.—W. L. Stone, *Life and times of Sir W. Johnson*, v. 2, ch. 4.

1759 (July-September).—The Fall of Quebec.—"Wolfe's name stood high in the esteem of all who were qualified to judge, but, at the same time, it stood low in the column of colonels in the Army List. The great minister [Pitt] thought that the former counterbalanced the latter. . . . One of the last gazettes in the year 1758 announced the promotion of Colonel James Wolfe to the rank of major-general, and his appointment to the chief command of the expedition against Quebec. About the middle of February, 1759, the squadron sailed from England to Louisbourg, where the whole of the British force destined for the River St. Lawrence was ordered to assemble. . . . Twenty-two ships of the line, five frigates, and nineteen smaller vessels of war, with a crowd of transports, were mustered under the orders of the admiral [Saunders], and a detachment of artillery and engineers, and ten battalions of infantry, with six companies of Rangers, formed Wolfe's command; the right flank companies of the three regiments which still garrisoned Louisbourg soon after joined the army, and were formed into a corps called the Louisbourg Grenadiers. The total of the land forces embarked were somewhat under 8,000."—E. Warburton, *Conquest of Canada*, v. 2, ch. 9.—"Wolfe, with his 8,000 men, ascended the St. Lawrence in the fleet in the month of June. . . . The Grenadiers of the army were commanded by Colonel Guy Carleton, and part of the light infantry by Lieutenant-Colonel William Howe, both destined to celebrity in after years, in the annals of the American revolution. Colonel Howe was brother of the gallant Lord Howe, whose fall in the preceding year was so generally lamented. Among the officers of the fleet was Jervis, the future admiral, and ultimately Earl St. Vincent; and the master of one of the ships was James Cook, afterwards renowned as a discoverer. About the end of June, the troops debarked on the large, populous, and well-cultivated Isle of Orleans, a little below Quebec, and encamped in its fertile fields. Quebec, the citadel of Canada, was strong by nature. It was built round the point of a rocky promontory, and flanked by precipices. . . . The place was tolerably fortified, but art had not yet rendered it, as at the present day, impregnable. Montcalm commanded the post. His troops were more numerous than the assailants; but the greater part of them were Canadians, many of them inhabitants of Quebec; and he had a host of savages. His forces were drawn out along the northern shore below the city, from the River St. Charles to the Falls of Montmorency, and their position was secured by deep intrenchments. . . . After much resistance, Wolfe established batteries at the west point of the Isle of Orleans, and at Point Levi, on the right (or south) bank of the St. Lawrence, within cannon range of the city. . . . Many houses were set on fire in the upper town, the lower town was reduced to rubbish; the main fort, however, remained unharmed. Anxious for a decisive action, Wolfe, on the 9th of July, crossed over in boats

from the Isle of Orleans to the north bank of the St. Lawrence, and encamped below the Montmorency. It was an ill-judged position. . . . On the 18th of July, Wolfe made a reconnoitering expedition up the river, with two armed sloops, and two transports with troops. He passed Quebec unharmed and carefully noted the shores above it. Rugged cliffs rose almost from the water's edge. . . . He returned to Montmorency disappointed, and resolved to attack Montcalm in his camp, however difficult to be approached, and however strongly posted. Townshend and Murray, with their brigades, were to cross the Montmorency at low tide, below the falls, and storm the redoubt thrown up in front of the ford. Monckton, at the same time, was to cross, with part of his brigade in boats from Point Levi. . . . As usual in complicated orders, part were misunderstood, or neglected, and confusion was the consequence." The assault was repelled and Wolfe fell back across the river, having lost four hundred men, with two vessels, which ran aground and were burned. He felt the failure deeply, and his chagrin was increased by news of the successes of his coadjutors at Ticonderoga and Niagara. "The difficulties multiplying around him, and the delay of General Amherst in hastening to his aid, preyed incessantly on his spirits. . . . The agitation of his mind, and his acute sensibility, brought on a fever, which for some time incapacitated him from taking the field. In the midst of his illness he called a council of war, in which the whole plan of operations was altered. It was determined to convey troops above the town, and endeavor to make a diversion in that direction, or draw Montcalm into the open field. . . . The brief Canadian summer was over; they were in the month of September. The camp at Montmorency was broken up. The troops were transported to Point Levi, leaving a sufficient number to man the batteries on the Isle of Orleans. On the 5th and 6th of September the embarkation took place above Point Levi, in transports which had been sent for the purpose. Montcalm detached De Bougainville with 1,500 men to keep along the north shore above the town, watch the movements of the squadron, and prevent a landing. To deceive him, Admiral Holmes moved with the ships of war three leagues beyond the place where the landing was to be attempted. He was to drop down, however, in the night, and protect the landing. . . . The descent was made in flat-bottomed boats, past midnight, on the 13th of September. They dropped down silently, with the swift current. 'Qui va la?' (who goes there?) cried a sentinel from the shore. 'La France,' replied a captain in the first boat, who understood the French language. 'A quel regiment?' was the demand. 'De la Reine' (the queen's) replied the captain, knowing that regiment was in De Bougainville's detachment. Fortunately, a convoy of provisions was expected down from De Bougainville's, which the sentinel supposed this to be. 'Passe,' cried he, and the boats glided on without further challenge. The landing took place in a cove near Cape Diamond, which still bears Wolfe's name. He had marked it in reconnoitering, and saw that a cragged path straggled up from it to the Heights of Abraham, which might be climbed, though with difficulty, and that it appeared to be slightly guarded at top. Wolfe was among the first that landed and ascended up the steep and narrow path, where not more than two could go abreast, and which had been broken up by cross ditches. Colonel Howe, at the same time, with the light infantry and Highlanders, scrambled up the woody precipices, helping themselves by the roots and

branches, and putting to flight a sergeant's guard posted at the summit. Wolfe drew up the men in order as they mounted; and by the break of day found himself in possession of the fateful Plains of Abraham. Montcalm was thunderstruck when word was brought to him in his camp that the English were on the heights threatening the weakest part of the town. Abandoning his intrenchments, he hastened across the river St. Charles and ascended the heights, which slope up gradually from its banks. His force was equal in number to that of the English, but a great part was made up of colony troops and savages. When he saw the formidable host of regulars he had to contend with, he sent off swift messengers to summon De Bougainville with his detachment to his aid; and De Vaudreil to reinforce him with 1,500 men from the camp. In the meantime he prepared to flank the left of the English line and force them to the opposite precipices." In the memorable battle which ensued, Wolfe, who led the English line, received, first, a musket ball in his wrist, and soon afterward was struck by a second in the breast. He was borne mortally wounded to the rear, and lived just long enough to hear a cry from those around him that the enemy ran. . . . In the meantime the French commander, Montcalm, had received his death-wound, while striving to rally his flying troops. The victory of the English was complete, and they hastened to fortify their position on the Plains of Abraham, preparing to attack the citadel. It was surrendered on September 17, to General Townshend, who had succeeded to the command."—W. Irving, *Life of Washington*, v. 1, ch. 25.

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 2, ch. 27-28.—R. Wright, *Life of Wolfe*, ch. 21-23.—Lord Mahon (Earl Stanhope), *History of England, 1713-1783*, v. 4, ch. 35.—W. Smith, *History of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 6.—J. Knox, *Historical Journal*, v. 1, pp. 255-360; v. 2, pp. 1-132.

1759.—Passing of New France.—"Wolfe's victory on the Plains of Abraham proved decisive in the end; but it was not the last of the great struggle for the Key of Canada. After Wolfe had died on the field of battle, and Monckton had been disabled by his wounds, Townshend took command, received the surrender of Quebec on the 18th, and waited till the French field army had retired towards Montreal. Then he sailed home with Saunders, leaving Murray to hold what Wolfe had won. Saunders left Lord Colville in charge of a strong squadron, with orders to wait at Halifax till the spring. . . . Montcalm's successor, Lévis, now made a skilful, bold, and gallant attempt to retake Quebec before navigation opened. Calling the whole remaining strength of New France to his aid, he took his army down in April, mostly by way of the St. Lawrence. . . . After a journey of less than ten days, the whole French army appeared before Quebec. . . . The two armies met at Ste. Foy, a mile and a half beyond the walls; and a desperate battle ensued. . . . At last a British battalion was fairly caught in flank by overwhelming numbers and driven across the front of Murray's guns, whose protecting fire it thus completely masked at a most critical time. Murray thereupon ordered up his last reserve. But even so he could no longer stand his ground. Slowly and sullenly his exhausted men fell back before the French, who put the very last ounce of their own failing strength into a charge that took the guns. Then the beaten British staggered in behind their walls, while the victorious French stood fast, worn out by the hardships of their march and fought to a standstill in the battle. . . . That night Lévis raised

the siege in despair and retired on Montreal. Next morning Lord Colville arrived with the main body of the fleet, having made the earliest ascent of the St. Lawrence ever known to naval history, before that time or since. Then came the final scene of all this moving drama. Step by step overpowering British forces closed in on the doomed and dwindling army of New France. They closed in from east and west and south, each one of their converging columns more than a match for all that was left of the French. Whichever way he looked, Lévis could see no loophole of escape. There was nothing but certain defeat in front and on both flanks, and starvation in the rear. So when the advancing British met, all together, at the island of Montreal, he and his faithful regulars laid down their arms without dishonour, in the fully justifiable belief that no further use of them could possibly retrieve the great lost cause of France in Canada."—W. Wood, *Winning of Canada*, pp. 140-145.

ALSO IN: W. Smith, *History of Canada*, v. 1, ch. 7 (giving the articles of capitulation in full).—F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 2, ch. 29-30.

1759.—New France at the time of the Conquest.—"At the time of the Conquest, the condition of Canada was substantially that of a Province of France; so far as the government was concerned, New France was almost a transcript of the old France across the sea. The King of France was represented by a Governor appointed by the King—usually a noble who desired to replenish his coffers from the wealth of the new land; he had in Canada much the same powers as the King in France; but he had always with him a watchful guardian of the interests of the King and of France—the Intendant—and the Intendant had also very large powers indeed, particularly in respect of finance, police and justice. Then there was a Council, not elected but appointed, who acted as a combination of judge, lawyer and administrator—the King however could disapprove and thereby nullify any act of theirs. There was no such body as a Parliament in the English sense, but the country was governed on feudal principles. In the country were the nobility—the *noblesse*—the seigniors who owned the land—every Canadian noble was a seignior though some seigniors were not noble. The seigniors paid homage to the King or some intermediate superior, for subinfeudation was by no means unknown; they had under them the peasants, 'habitants' (or rather 'habitans') as they called themselves, to whom they leased land to be held on much the same terms as the lands were held by the peasantry in France. This seigniorial tenure was introduced substantially by Richelieu in 1627, and remained in great measure practically unchanged in Lower Canada till 1854. The commonality called themselves 'habitants,' as they did not like the word 'censitaires' or 'roturiers' used in old France to denote those in a similar condition there. These terms were considered to imply a greater degree of dependence upon the feudal lord than the free Canadians were willing to acknowledge themselves to be subject to. We have no English word an exact equivalent of either 'censitaire' or 'roturier' or 'habitant,' but 'tenant' perhaps comes nearest in meaning. Not only did a seignior when he succeeded to his estate pay homage to the King or other feudal superior, but when the seigniorial changed ownership by sale or gift or by inheritance other than in the direct line, a part of its value, usually (at least in theory) a fifth part, had to be paid to such superior. It was the custom to remit one-third of this amount so paid,

but this custom does not seem to have been enforceable at law. The seignior, if an individual and not, as sometimes happened, a religious order, also had the privilege of being eligible to be appointed a member of the Superior Council—if the authorities saw fit, he might also have a commission in the militia; for in time of war all the inhabitants of Canada might be called upon to do service in the army under the Governor or other commander. In all but a very few instances, he did not own his land in the fullest sense—the Crown reserved mines, minerals, oak-timber and masts for ship-building, such lands as might be required for military purposes, and the like. In France, as a rule, the seignior had, as an incident to the ownership of property, the right of exercising judicial powers—in Canada the mere ownership of a seigniorship did not carry with it such right. It could be obtained only by express grant. Most of those who had seigniorships granted after 1633 received such grant, and some exercised the powers given. Sometimes the judicial power extended to all grades of jurisdiction, high, mesne and low (*haute, moyenne ou basse justice*), sometimes only the mesne and low, and sometimes only the low justice. The seigniors whatever their powers very rarely exercised the right of *haute justice*; cases of any importance were generally left to the royal courts to dispose of, whether civil or criminal. There is no record of the death penalty having been inflicted by any seignior, although very many had the power in law to inflict capital punishment. The habitant as 'censitaire' (tenant)—I have pointed out that the words are not precisely synonymous—was under many feudal obligations. . . . If a habitant, being the feudal inferior, desired to dispose of the land which he held, he was obliged to pay a substantial part of the purchase money to the seignior; and worse, the seignior might himself take the land within forty days of the sale. He was liable to the *corvée*, or forced labour, for his seignior, as in France; he must in some instances give the seignior one fish out of every eleven of those caught in seigniorial waters; wood and stone might be taken from his land by the seignior to build or repair manor-house, church or mill. But while the peasants had no part in the government of the country, and were inferiors, their lot was immensely superior to that of their brethren in the old land, as they themselves were essentially superior to the peasants of old France in intelligence and manners. They were free, bold and adventurous, frugal, industrious and moral; and made the very best of soldiers for the kind of country in which they were called upon to fight. Next to, if not sometimes above, the seignior, was the Curé—sometimes the only one in the seigniorship except (or possibly not excepting) the seignior, who could read and write. The essentially religious character of the French-Canadian is seen in the high place the Curé is held in his regard—a place which is but little, if any, lower now than it was a century and a half ago. Indeed it has been said that the Canadian Curé exercised in Canada the power in France of the King, the noble and the priest. The members of the priesthood—in large measure from old France—were devoted sons of the Church, their love for France not clashing with or excelling their love for their spiritual mother. But neither priest nor peasant had any part in making the laws by which they both were governed; their government was arbitrary and military; they were accustomed to obey their superiors—and anything more unlike a constitution in our latter-day sense than was the mode of government of that happy, fearless, primitive people

it would be hard to find."—W. R. Riddell, *Constitution of Canada*, pp. 3-4.

1763.—Ceded to England by the treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war.

1763-1774.—Province of Quebec created.—Eleven years of military rule.—Quebec Act of 1774.—Extension of Quebec province to the Ohio and the Mississippi.—"For three years after the conquest, the government of Canada was entrusted to military chiefs, stationed at Quebec, Montreal and Three Rivers, the headquarters of the three departments into which General Amherst divided the country. Military councils were established to administer law, though, as a rule, the people did not resort to such tribunals, but settled their difficulties among themselves. In 1763, the king, George III., issued a proclamation establishing four new governments, of which Quebec was one. Labrador, from St. John's River to Hudson's Bay, Anticosti, and the Magdalen Islands, were placed under the jurisdiction of Newfoundland, and the islands of St. John (or Prince Edward Island, as it was afterwards called), and Cape Breton (Ile Royale) with the smaller islands adjacent thereto, were added to the government of Nova Scotia. Express power was given to the governors, in the letters-patent by which these governments were constituted, to summon general assemblies, with the advice and consent of His Majesty's Council, 'in such manner and form as was usual in those colonies and provinces which were under the King's immediate government.' . . . No assembly, however, ever met, as the French-Canadian population were unwilling to take the test oath, and the government of the province was carried on solely by the governor general, with the assistance of an executive council, composed in the first instance of the two lieutenant-governors of Montreal and Three Rivers, the chief justice, the surveyor general of customs, and eight others chosen from the leading residents in the colony. From 1763 to 1774 the province remained in a very unsettled state, chiefly on account of the uncertainty that prevailed as to the laws actually in force. . . . The province of Quebec remained for eleven years under the system of government established by the proclamation of 1763. In 1774, Parliament intervened for the first time in Canadian affairs and made important constitutional changes. The previous constitution had been created by letters-patent under the great seal of Great Britain, in the exercise of an unquestionable and undisputed prerogative of the Crown. The colonial institutions of the old possessions of Great Britain, now known as the United States of America, had their origin in the same way. But in 1774, a system of government was granted to Canada by the express authority of Parliament. This constitution was known as the Quebec Act, and greatly extended the boundaries of the province of Quebec, as defined in the proclamation of 1763. On one side, the province extended to the frontiers of New England, Pennsylvania, New York province, the Ohio, and the left bank of the Mississippi; on the other, to the Hudson's Bay Territory. Labrador, and the islands annexed to Newfoundland by the proclamation of 1763, were made part of the province of Quebec. . . . The Act of 1774 was exceedingly unpopular in England and in the English-speaking colonies, then at the commencement of the Revolution. Parliament, however, appears to have been influenced by a desire to adjust the government of the province so as to conciliate the majority of the people. . . . The new constitution came into force in October, 1774. The Act sets forth among the reasons for legislation that the

provisions made by the proclamation of 1763 were 'inapplicable to the state and circumstances of the said province, the inhabitants whereof amounted at the conquest, to above 65,000 persons professing the religion of the Church of Rome, and enjoying an established form of constitution and system of laws, by which their persons and property had been protected, governed, and ordered for a long series of years, from the first establishment of the province.' Consequently, it is provided that Roman Catholics should be no longer obliged to take the test oath, but only the oath of allegiance. The government of the province was entrusted to a governor and a legislative council, appointed by the Crown, inasmuch as it was 'inexpedient to call an assembly.' This council was to comprise not more than twenty-three, and not less than seventeen members, and had the power, with the consent of the governor or commander-in-chief for the time being, to make ordinances for the peace, welfare, and good government of the province. They had no authority, however, to lay on any taxes or duties except such as the inhabitants of any town or district might be authorized to assess or levy within its precincts for roads and ordinary local services. No ordinance could be passed, except by a majority of the council, and every one had to be transmitted within six months after its enactment to His Majesty for approval or disallowance. It was also enacted that in all matters of controversy, relative to property and civil rights, recourse should be had to the French civil procedure, whilst the criminal law of England should obtain to the exclusion of every other criminal code which might have prevailed before 1764. . . . Roman Catholics were permitted to observe their religion with perfect freedom, and their clergy were to enjoy their 'accustomed dues and rights' with respect to such persons as professed that creed. Consequently, the Roman Catholic population of Canada were relieved of their disabilities many years before people of the same belief in Great Britain and Ireland received similar privileges. The new constitution was inaugurated by Major General Carleton, afterwards Lord Dorchester, who nominated a legislative council of twenty-three members, of whom eight were Roman Catholics.—J. G. Bourinot, *Manual of constitutional history of Canada*, ch. 2-3. See U. S. A.: 1774 (March-April).

ALSO IN: W. Houston, *Documents illustrative of the Canadian constitution*, pp. 90-96.

1775-1776.—Invasion by the revolting American colonists.—Successful defense of Quebec.—“The wisdom of his [Washington's] refusal to allow his army to be broken up, and to run the danger of defeat in small detachments, was shown in the result of an expedition to Quebec. Richard Montgomery, with about fifteen hundred men, moved down Lake Champlain, took St. John after a long siege, and entered Montreal November 12, 1775. Arnold, meanwhile, had made a terrible march through the Maine forests, starting up the Kennebec with eleven hundred men and coming down the Chaudière to the St. Lawrence with about five hundred survivors. After making an ineffectual attack on Quebec, Arnold awaited Montgomery, who arrived December 3 with a small body of men. Taking a desperate hazard, they attacked Quebec in a blinding snow-storm, December 31, 1775. Montgomery, leading the main attack, was killed, while Arnold, wounded, was succeeded by Morgan, who was overpowered, and the attack was repulsed. [See U. S. A.: 1755 (August-December).] In failing to take Quebec, Canada was virtually lost. It seems hardly possible, how-

ever, that the city could have been held, if captured, for the Americans had no naval power adequate to its defence. . . . By the capture of New York City, Howe had gained part of the object of his campaign, but he hoped daily, and in vain, that Carleton would report the seizure of Ticonderoga, thus placing in British control the two ends of the coveted line of the Hudson. Carleton was delayed by the stubborn and desperate Benedict Arnold, who, after the stormy night of December 31, 1775, when his little army was repulsed before Quebec, grimly fought, step by step, all the dreary way out of Canada. After the first repulse Arnold received reinforcements enough to keep Quebec in a state of blockade; but small-pox, and desertion because of the terrors of a winter camp, depleted his force, until Carleton drove the little army from the Plains of Abraham, with the aid of British vessels arriving when navigation opened. Carleton, reinforced by Hessians until his army numbered thirteen thousand men, pushed Arnold back and back until he reached Sorel and was reinforced. General John Thomas, assigned to the command in Canada, reached the army late in April, but died soon, so that Arnold was in actual control of the whole retreat. Montreal was now retaken by Carleton, and then the pursuit of Arnold was resumed, until the Americans, after a loss of five thousand men, were driven wholly out of Canada, and in June, 1776, stood at bay, determined to prevent the British gaining control of Lake Champlain. All of Arnold's fierce energy and courage were aroused. While Carleton was gathering a fleet of overpowering strength Arnold constructed, out of the standing timber of the forest, a flotilla of some sixteen vessels, with which he meant to harass and delay Carleton until it should be too late in the season to capture Ticonderoga. He took his stand at Valcour's Island early in October, and when Carleton with an overwhelming fleet bore down upon him, Arnold gave the British seven hours of desperate fighting. The American fleet was almost destroyed, but in the mists of the night Arnold slipped away towards Crown Point. Mending leaks, saving sinking crews, and sailing or rowing as he could, he neared the fort before the enemy overhauled him. Another four hours of furious combat saved the remnant of Arnold's force, and after landing at Crown Point he led his men safely through the woods to Ticonderoga. Carleton came up before that fortress, but thought it too strong to be taken, and led his army back into Canada, to the surprise of his foes and the chagrin of his friends. This strange conduct delayed the campaign of the following year.”—C. H. Van Tyne, *American Revolution, 1776-1783*, v. 9, pp. 46-47, 116-118.—See also U. S. A.: 1776-1777.

ALSO IN: G. Bryce, *Short history of the Canadian people*, ch. 6, sect. 3.—B. J. Lossing, *Life and times of Philip Schuyler*, v. 1, ch. 19-29, and v. 2, ch. 1-4.—J. Sparks, *Life and treason of Benedict Arnold*, ch. 3-5 (*Library of American biography*, v. 3).—J. Armstrong, *Life of Richard Montgomery* (*Library of American Biography*, v. 1).—C. H. Jones, *History of the campaign for the conquest of Canada in 1776*.—J. J. Henry, *Arnold's campaign against Quebec*.

1777.—Burgoyne's disastrous invasion of New York. See U. S. A.: 1777 (July-October).

1779.—Formation of Quebec library. See LIBRARIES: Modern: Canada.

1782-1784.—Influx of United Empire Loyalists.—“A large immigration of United Empire Loyalists from the United States to the British North American provinces, and the Quebec Act of

1791, were the developments in the solution of the second of these problems arising directly out of the war of 1776-1783. The United Empire Loyalists became the wards of the British government after the treaties of Versailles and Paris; and they remained the peculiar care of the British government for a decade after the revolution. The British government arranged for and financed the transportation to Canada of all the United Empire Loyalists who wished to leave the United States. It offered them houses and lands in Nova Scotia and Quebec. It maintained many of them while they were reestablishing themselves; and it also appointed a royal commission to award compensation to them for the material loss they had incurred in the American revolution. Most of the United Empire Loyalists were too poor to go to England. Canada seemed to them the most hopeful country of refuge. The exodus to Canada—an exodus regarded by Canadian historians as comparable with the exodus of the Huguenots from France—had begun before the treaty of peace was signed at Versailles. Nine transports sailed from New York for Annapolis Royal, Nova Scotia, in April, 1782. Another company of 7000 men, women, and children sailed from New York in April, 1783. Half of them went to what is now St. John, New Brunswick, and the other half to Port Roseway, Shelburne County, Nova Scotia. By the end of September, 1783, 18,000 of the loyalists had reached Nova Scotia; and as late as January, 1784, they were still arriving at St. John. Canadian historians compute that the total immigration of 1782-1783 into what are now the Maritime Provinces was about 35,000. There was an immigration of loyalists into Quebec as early as 1776. A stream of immigration began after the defeat of Burgoyne, at Saratoga, in 1777. By the end of that year 3000 loyalists were in the province—most of them in the neighborhood of Three Rivers, where 'everything in reason was done to make the unfortunates comfortable.' After the treaty of peace had been concluded, the stream of immigration overland to Quebec greatly increased in volume. There were nearly 7000 United Empire Loyalists in the French province in the winter of 1783-1784; and the resources of the British government were strained to the utmost to provide for the necessities of the thousands who had thus flocked over the border line from the United States."—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, pp. 62-63.—See also *Nova Scotia: 1782-1860*.

1783.—Settlement of boundaries in the treaty of peace between Great Britain and the United States. See U. S. A.: 1783 (September).

1783-1821.—North West Company organized.—Subsequent history.—Amalgamation.—Hudson's Bay Company, endeavoring to secure a monopoly of the whole fur trade of the northwest, encountered opposition from an unexpected quarter. "A number of Scotch traders began to make their way to the Red River regions, and in 1783 several of these organized the North West Company, with headquarters at Fort William, on Lake Superior. From this point the new company spread its posts and into the valleys of the great rivers flowing toward Hudson Bay, displaying a degree of enterprise which greatly alarmed the authorities of the older company. The traders of the respective companies developed a mutual bitterness and frequently came to blows. It was in an endeavor to put an end to armed collisions between rival bodies of traders and boatmen that the British authorities undertook, in 1821, to mediate between the two organizations. The result was that the two companies were amalgamated, and the North West

Company came to an end as a separate organization."—W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, pp. 437-438.

1791.—Constitutional Act.—Division of the province into Upper and Lower Canada.—"In 1791 a bill was introduced by Pitt dividing the Province into Upper and Lower Canada, the line of division being so drawn as to give a great majority to the British element in Upper Canada and a great majority to the French settlers in Lower Canada. The measure was strongly opposed by Fox, who urged that the separation of the English and French inhabitants was most undesirable. . . . The act was passed, and is known as the Constitutional Act of 1791. . . . In each province the legislature was to consist of the Governor, a Legislative Council and a Legislative Assembly. The Governor had power to give or withhold the royal assent to bills or to reserve them for consideration by the Crown. He could summon, prorogue, or dissolve the legislature, but was required to convene the legislature at least once a year. The Legislative Council in Upper Canada consisted of not less than 7, and in Lower Canada of not less than 15 members, chosen by the King for life, the Speaker being appointed by the Governor-General. The Legislative Assembly was in counties elected by 40s. freeholders, and in towns by owners of houses of £5 yearly value and by resident inhabitants paying £10 yearly rent. The number and limits of electoral districts were fixed by the Governor-General. Lower Canada had 50 members, Upper Canada 16 members, assigned to their respective legislatures. The new Constitution did not prove a success. Serious differences arose between the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly in regard to the control of the revenue and supplies, differences which were aggravated by the conflict that still went on between the French and English races. . . . The discontent resulted in the rebellion of 1837-8."—J. E. C. Munro, *Constitution of Canada*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: W. Houston, *Documents illustrative of the Canadian constitution*, pp. 112-133.—D. Brymner, *Report on Canadian archives*, 1890, app. B.

1793.—Anti-slavery legislation in Upper Canada.—"Slavery had been legalized in the British colonies by an Act of 1732 but the provincial legislators now proceeded to exempt the province from its operations." Upper Canada passed the Negro Slave Law in 1793. "While it did not release the slaves already in ownership within the province, it forbade further importations, and decreed the manumission of children born to slaves on reaching the age of twenty-five."—W. B. Munro, *Canada and British North America*, p. 348.

1793-1795.—Threatening relations with United States over western posts in America.—Jay treaty. See U. S. A.: 1793-1795.

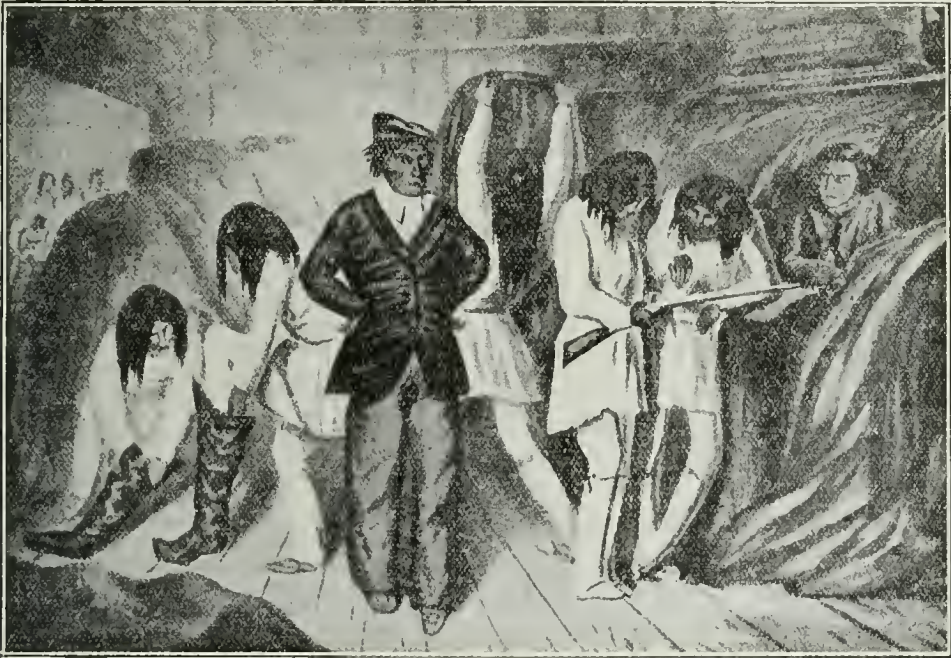
19th century.—Educational development.—Struggle for public elementary system. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: Canada.

1805-1866.—Early History of British Columbia.—"Far away across the Rockies, a solitary little settlement had struggled into being. In 1805 the North-West Company . . . sent Simon Fraser to Glangarry across the Peace River Pass to open up trade with the Indians. The tree-clad heights and crags and rocky torrents recalled to the Scot the land of his sires, and he named it New Caledonia, a name which it retained till 1858. In 1807 he undertook a journey down the turbulent stream which bears his name. Even for Mackenzie this journey had been too much. After a few days of river work he had preferred to strike across the country. Fraser kept on till at last the rapids

proved impassable even to his daring; then with a thousand difficulties he and his men portaged the canoes over the lofty canyons into the short stretches of navigable water, and at last, on July 1st, reached the river's mouth. Here they took the latitude, and were bitterly disappointed to find that this proved that the river which they had descended was not the Columbia. On the way they discovered the Thompson, which they named after the Company's astronomer, David Thompson, a Welshman, who carried on the work of Fraser. In 1807-8 he established Kootenay House, and for many years, while he made no striking journey, he was the great organizer of routes. . . . After the union of 1821, the reinforced Hudson's Bay Company was given a monopoly of trade, not only in Rupert's Land but in all British territory to the south and west of it. The Act of the British Par-

United States of all the mainland south of the forty-ninth parallel. In 1845, in order to be ready for the division, the Company founded Fort Victoria at the foot of Vancouver Island, and put it under the charge of James (afterwards Sir James) Douglas who had long been MacLoughlin's assistant at Fort Vancouver. In 1849 it was made the headquarters, and from it for the next ten years the doughty Douglas, a fine, honourable, hard-headed, plain-spoken Scot, ruled British Columbia as autocratically as any Czar.

"In 1849 coal was discovered on Vancouver Island, which in the same year was handed over to the Hudson's Bay Company on their promise to aid and encourage settlers. Many have accused the Company of having taken over the Island not to aid but to hinder colonists, and in proof of this have pointed to the rule which refused land



HUDSON'S BAY COMPANY'S POST AT MINGAN
(From a drawing by William Hind)

liament also said that owing to 'the state of continued disturbance,' which had existed, this Indian Territory, as it was named, should be subject to the civil and criminal jurisdiction of Upper Canada; but Upper Canada was in no condition to maintain law and order in a country separated from her by two thousand miles of prairie and mountain, and such order as was kept was due to the Hudson's Bay Company. The Company made its head-quarters in the Valley of the Columbia, at the mouth of which river they had a fort named Astoria, which they had bought from John Jacob Astor. . . . Another, named Fort Vancouver, was built at the mouth of the Willamette. Here for twenty years Dr. John MacLoughlin was in charge and made it a place of some importance, building up a trade not only in furs but in salmon, attracting a few settlers, and even exporting a little grain. It is possible that his energy did something to attract the American settlers who came flocking in in 1842-5, and whose presence forced on the division of the country and the giving up to the

settlers at a lower price than one pound (\$4.86) an acre; but this regulation was really made by the Colonial Office, which had taken from Gibbon Wakefield the theory that waste land should be sold, and the money used to bring in more settlers. With land at such a price, very few settlers came in, and these were soon at strife with the Hudson's Bay Company, which had the monopoly of stores and provisions and charged higher prices than the settlers thought fair. In 1851 fifteen of them—it is doubtful if there were any more—petitioned for representative government. Douglas was made Governor by Great Britain and given power to call an Assembly, which he did in 1856, when seven representatives constituted at Victoria the first Canadian Parliament west of the Rockies. . . . Meanwhile on the mainland there were only trading posts till 1857-1858, when gold was discovered in the bed of the Fraser, and at the Forks the name given to its junction with the Thompson . . . and thousands of red-shirted miners flocked into the new field. Some struggled up by land

through the Okanagan Valley to Kamloops, but as a permit could be obtained only at Victoria, most came by sea. In the summer of 1858, over 30,000 poured in. Yale, Hell Bar Camp, and all the Fraser up to the Forks were soon alive with miners. . . . But the diggings were not long a success; by 1860 most of the 30,000 had disappeared. . . . In that year more gold was found . . . in the Cariboo District, and a . . . smaller rush began, which in its turn died away. Still, . . . some remained, and formed the nucleus of a permanent colony. As a result of this inrush of settlers the British Government established the mainland as a separate colony, under the name of British Columbia (1858). The monopoly of the Hudson's Bay Company was taken away. . . . The seat of government was still at Victoria, but in 1859 the town of New Westminster was founded, and the officials soon began to make it the centre for their work on the mainland. To reach the little colony from Canada one had to go by the Grand Trunk Railway to the frontier, then cross to Detroit, and go by rail to Chicago, thence by rail to St. Paul, thence by wagon across half a continent; from England one had to go round Cape Horn or across the Isthmus of Panama. . . . Order was kept in the rough mining camps by the Chief-justice, Sir Matthew Begbie. . . . The miners of Cariboo protested against the 'dictatorial methods' by which he protected the Indians against them, but in their protest bore unconscious testimony to his worth by pointing out the 'absence of crime in the district'. . . . Soon representative government was demanded, and a Legislative Council was granted, in which some of the members were appointed by the Governor and some were elected. This body first met in 1864. . . . Two years later, British Columbia and Vancouver Island, which by this time had a population of about 8,000 apiece, were joined, and in 1866 the first parliament of the united province met."—W. L. Grant, *History of Canada*, pp. 279-283.—See also OREGON: 1749-1850.

1811-1816.—Selkirk settlement in the Northwest.—"In spite of its fine record in dealing with the Indians, the Hudson's Bay Company proved a hindrance to settlement. Settlers drive the fur-bearing animals further and further afield; the farmer is the worst foe of the hunter and trapper. It was thus to the advantage of the Company to keep the West locked up as long as possible, and they did not hesitate to paint it in the blackest terms to any intending settlers. . . . Thus the only settlements which grew up were on the eastern and the western edges of the great lone land. In 1811 Lord Selkirk, a Scotch nobleman, who had already (1803) founded colonies in Prince Edward Island and at Baldoon near Lake St. Clair, struck by the miserable state of the Scotch labourers and the Highland crofters, conceived the great idea that by emigration to the new and wider lands of the West, the problem of the old world misery might be solved. It was a real vision of empire in the days when the revolt of the American colonies was still in men's minds, and the vision and the dream was vouchsafed to few. Selkirk succeeded in getting control of the majority of the shares of the Hudson's Bay Company, was granted by the Company over 70,000 square miles in which to found a colony, bought out the rights of the Indians, and in 1812-1813 established a number of colonists, at Forts Douglas and Baer (one near Winnipeg, the other near Pembina). But neither the partners in the North-West Company nor their employees had any intention of giving up their hunting grounds, and a small war broke out, in which the hardy

half-breeds had the better of the more peaceful settlers. In 1814 Miles Macdonnell, Governor of the new colony, issued a proclamation taking possession of the soil for Selkirk, and forbidding for a year the export of provisions. Acts of violence on both sides followed, and at last, in June, 1816, in a massacre, known as the battle of Seven Oaks, Governor Semple, who had succeeded Macdonnell, and twenty-one others were killed. In the same year Selkirk sent out a number of old settlers, who captured and plundered the chief post of the North-West Company at Fort William on Lake Superior, and re-established his colony at Kildonan, near Winnipeg. A series of trials and of law suits followed, Selkirk accusing the North-West Company of the murder of Semple, and they accusing him of conspiracy to ruin their trade. The trials were a mere farce—lawyers, judges and juries alike being under the control of the fur-traders. The murderers were acquitted, and Selkirk was heavily fined, retiring at last to Scotland to die of a broken heart."—*Ibid.*, pp. 273-275.

1812-1814.—War of Great Britain with the United States. See U. S. A.: 1812 (June-October); 1813 (April-July); 1813 (October-November).

1814.—Boundary question settled at Treaty of Ghent. See ARBITRATION, INTERNATIONAL: Modern period: 1814; U. S. A.: 1814 (December): Treaty of peace concluded at Ghent.

1818.—Convention between Great Britain and the United States relating to fisheries, etc. See FISHERIES: 1814-1818.

1820-1837.—Family compact.—"The Family Compact manifestly grew out of the principles of the U. E. [United Empire] Loyalists. It was the union of the leaders of the loyalists with others of kindred spirit, to rule Upper Canada, heedless of the rights or wishes of its people. We have admired the patriotic, heroic and sentimental side of U. E. loyalism; but plainly, as related to civil government, its political doctrines and practices were tyrannical. Its prominent members belonged to the class which in the American colonies, in the persons of Governors Bernard and Hutchinson, and many others of high office and standing, had plotted to destroy the liberties of the people and had hastened the American revolution. . . . By the years 1818 or 1820 a junto or cabal had been formed, definite in its aims and firmly combined together, known as the Family Compact, not to its best leaders seeming an embodiment of selfishness, but rather set for patriotic defence and hallowed with the name of religion."—G. Bryce, *Short history of the Canadian people*, ch. 10, sect. 2.—"Upper Canada . . . has long been entirely governed by a party commonly designated throughout the Province as the 'Family Compact,' a name not much more appropriate than party designations usually are, inasmuch as there is, in truth, very little of family connection among the persons thus united. For a long time this body of men, receiving at times accessions to its members, possessed almost all the highest public offices, by means of which, and of its influence in the Executive Council, it wielded all the powers of government; it maintained influence in the legislature by means of its predominance in the Legislative Council; and it disposed of a large number of petty posts which are in the patronage of the Government all over the Province. Successive Governors, as they came in their turn, are said to have either submitted quietly to its influence, or, after a short and unavailing struggle, to have yielded to this well-organized party the real conduct of affairs. The bench, the magistracy, the

high offices of the Episcopal Church, and a great part of the legal profession, are filled by the adherents of this party: by grant or purchase, they have acquired nearly the whole of the waste lands of the Province; they are all powerful in the chartered banks, and, till lately, shared among themselves almost exclusively all offices of trust and profit. The bulk of this party consists, for the most part, of native-born inhabitants of the colony, or of emigrants who settled in it before the last war with the United States; the principal members of it belong to the church of England, and the maintenance of the claims of that church has always been one of its distinguishing characteristics."

—Earl of Durham, *Report on the affairs of British North America*, p. 105.—"The influences which produced the Family Compact were not confined to Upper Canada. In the Lower Province, as well as in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, similar causes led to similar results, and the term Family Compact has at one time or another been a familiar one in all the British North American colonies. . . . The designation Family Compact, however, did not owe its origin to any combination of North American colonists, but was borrowed from the diplomatic history of Europe."—J. C. Dent, *Story of the Upper Canadian rebellion*, ch. 3.

1830.—First railway construction. See RAILROADS: 1830-1853.

1835.—Compromise between Russia and Great Britain regarding the former's claims. See OREGON: 1741-1836.

1836.—Introduction of school bill. See EDUCATION: Agricultural: Canada.

1837.—Causes of discontent which produced rebellion.—"It was in Lower Canada that the greatest difficulties arose. A constant antagonism grew up between the majority of the legislative council, who were nominees of the Crown, and the majority of the representative assembly, who were elected by the population of the province [see above: 1791]. The home Government encouraged and indeed kept up that most odious and dangerous of all instruments for the supposed management of a colony—a 'British party' devoted to the so-called interests of the mother country, and obedient to the word of command from their masters and patrons at home. The majority in the legislative council constantly thwarted the resolutions of the vast majority of the popular assembly. Disputes arose as to the voting of supplies. The Government retained in their service officials whom the representative assembly had condemned, and insisted on the right to pay them their salaries out of certain funds of the colony. The representative assembly took to stopping the supplies, and the Government claimed the right to counteract this measure by appropriating to the purpose such public moneys as happened to be within their reach at the time. The colony—for indeed on these subjects the population of Lower Canada, right or wrong, was so near to being of one mind that we may take the declarations of public meetings as representing the colony—demanded that the legislative council should be made elective, and that the colonial government should not be allowed to dispose of the moneys of the colony at their pleasure. The House of Commons and the Government here replied by refusing to listen to the proposal. . . . It is not necessary to suppose that in all these disputes the popular majority were in the right and the officials in the wrong. No one can doubt that there was much bitterness of feeling arising out of the mere differences of race. . . . At last the representative assembly refused to vote any further supplies or to

carry on any further business. They formulated their grievances against the home Government. Their complaints were of arbitrary conduct on the part of the governors; intolerable composition of the legislative council, which they insisted ought to be elective; illegal appropriation of the public money, and violent prorogation of the provincial parliament. One of the leading men in the movement which afterwards became rebellion in Lower Canada was Mr. Louis Joseph Papineau. This man had risen to high position by his talents, his energy, and his undoubtedly honourable character. He had represented Montreal in the representative Assembly of Lower Canada, and he afterwards became Speaker of the House. He made himself leader of the movement to protest against the policy of the governors, and that of the Government by whom they were sustained. He held a series of meetings, at some of which undoubtedly rather strong language was used. . . . Lord Gosford, the governor, began by dismissing several militia officers who had taken part in some of these demonstrations; Mr. Papineau himself was an officer of this force. Then the governor issued warrants for the apprehension of many members of the popular Assembly on the charge of high treason. Some of these at once left the country; others against whom warrants were issued were arrested, and a sudden resistance was made by their friends and supporters. Then, in a manner familiar to all who have read anything of the history of revolutionary movements, the resistance to a capture of prisoners suddenly transformed itself into open rebellion."—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, v. 1, ch. 3.—Among the grievances which gave rise to discontent in both Upper and Lower Canada, "first of all there was the chronic grievance of the Clergy Reserves [which were public lands set apart by the act of 1791 for the support of the Protestant clergy], common both to British and French, to Upper and to Lower Canada. In Upper Canada these reserves amounted to 2,500,000 acres, being one-seventh of the lands in the Province. Three objections were made against continuing these Reserves for the purpose for which they had been set apart. The first objection arose from the way in which the Executive Council wished to apply the revenues accruing from these lands. According to the Act they were to be applied for 'maintaining the Protestant religion in Canada'; and the Executive Council interpreted this as meaning too exclusively the Church of England, which was established by law in the mother-country. But the objectors claimed a right for all Protestant denominations to share in the Reserves. The second objection was that the amount of these lands was too large for the purpose in view: and the third referred to the way in which the Reserves were selected. These 2,500,000 acres did not lie in a block, but, when the early surveys were made, every seventh lot was reserved; and as these lots were not cleared for years the people complained that they were not utilized, and so became inconvenient barriers to uniform civilization. With the Roman Catholics, both priests and people, the Clergy Reserves were naturally unpopular. . . . An additional source of complaint was found in the fact that the government of Upper and Lower Canada had found its way into the hands of a few powerful families banded together by a Family Compact [see above: 1820-1837]. . . . But the Constitutional difficulty was, after all, the great one, and it lay at the bottom of the whole dispute. . . . Altogether the issues were very complicated in the St. Lawrence Valley Provinces and the Maritime Provinces . . . and so it is not to be won-

dered at that some should interpret the rebellion as a class, and perhaps semi-religious, contest rather than a race-conflict. The constitutional dead-lock, however, was tolerably clear to those who looked beneath the surface. . . . The main desire of all was to be freed of the burden of Executive Councils, nominated at home and kept in office with or without the wish of the people. In Upper Canada, William Lyon Mackenzie, and in Lower Canada, Louis Papineau and Dr. Wolfred Nelson, agitated for independence."—W. P. Greswell, *History of the Dominion of Canada*, ch. 16.

ALSO IN: J. McMullen, *History of Canada*, ch. 19-20.—Earl of Durham, *Report and dispatches*.—Sir F. B. Head, *Narrative*.—*Report of Commissioners appointed to inquire into the grievances complained of in Lower Canada (House of Commons, Feb. 20, 1837)*.

1837-1838.—Rebellion under Papineau and Mackenzie.—Defeat of the rebels.—Burning of the *Caroline*.—End of the rebellion.—Immediately on the breaking out of the rebellion, the constitution of Lower Canada was suspended; the revolt was put down at once, and with little difficulty. Though the outbreak in Upper Canada showed that a comparatively small portion of the population was disaffected to the government, there were some sharp skirmishes before the smouldering fire was completely trodden out. . . . On the night of the 4th of December, 1837, when all Toronto was asleep, except the policemen who stood sentries over the arms in the city hall, and a few gentlemen who sat up to watch out the night with the Adjutant-General of Militia in the Parliament House, the alarm came that the rebels were upon the city. They were under the command of a newspaper editor named Mackenzie, whose grotesque figure was until lately [this was published in 1865] familiar to the frequenters of the Canadian House of Assembly. Rumours had been rife for some days past of arming and drilling among the disaffected in the Home and London districts. . . . The alarm threw Toronto into commotion. . . . The volunteers were formed in the market square during the night and well armed. In point of discipline, even in the first instance, they were not wholly deficient, many of them being retired officers and discharged men from both the naval and military services. . . . Towards morning news came of a smart skirmish which had occurred during the night, in which a party of the rebels were driven back and their leader killed. During the succeeding day and night, loyal yeomen kept pouring in to act in defence of the crown. Sir Allan, then Colonel, Macnab, the Speaker of the House of Assembly . . . raised a body of his friends and adherents in the course of the night and following day, and, seizing a vessel in the harbour at Hamilton, hurried to Toronto. . . . The rebels were defeated and dispersed next day, at a place some two miles from Toronto. In this action, the Speaker took the command of the Volunteers, which he kept during the subsequent campaign on the Niagara frontier, and till all danger was over. . . . Mackenzie soon rallied his scattered adherents, and seized Navy Island, just above Niagara Falls, where he was joined by large numbers of American 'sympathizers,' who came to the spot on the chance of a quarrel with the English. On receipt of this intelligence, the Speaker hastened from the neighbourhood of Brantford (where he had just dispersed a band of insurgents under the command of a doctor named Duncombe) to reinforce Colonel Cameron, formerly of the 79th, who had taken up a position at Chippewa. Navy Island, an eyott [island] some quarter of a mile

in length, lies in the Niagara River within musket-shot of the Canadian bank. The current runs past the island on both sides with great velocity, and, immediately below it, hurries over the two miles of rocks and rapids that precede its tremendous leap. The rebels threw up works on the side facing the Canadians. They drew their supplies from Fort Schlosser, an American work nearly opposite the village of Chippewa."—Viscount Bury, *Exodus of the western nations*, v. 2, ch. 12.

A small American steamboat, named the *Caroline*, had been secured by the insurgents and was plying between Fort Schlosser and Navy island. She "had brought over several field-pieces and other military stores; [but] Great Britain was not at war with the United States, and to cut out an American steamer from an American port was to incur a heavy responsibility. Nevertheless Colonel Macnab determined to assume it." A party sent over in boats at night to Fort Schlosser surprised the *Caroline* at her wharf, fired her and sent her adrift in the river, to be carried over the falls.—Viscount Bury, *Exodus of the western nations*, v. 2, ch. 12.—"On all sides the insurgents were crushed, jails were filled with their leaders, and 180 were sentenced to be hanged. Some of them were executed and some were banished to Van Dieman's Land, while others were pardoned on account of their youth. But there was a great revulsion of feeling in England, and after a few years, pardons were extended to almost all. Even Papineau and Mackenzie, the leaders of the rebellion, were allowed to come back, and, strange to say, both were elected to seats in the Canadian Assembly."—W. P. Greswell, *History of the dominion of Canada*, ch. 16, sect. 15.—On the American border the Canadian rebellion of 1837-1838 was very commonly called "the Patriot War."

ALSO IN: C. Lindsey, *Life and times of William Lyon Mackenzie*, v. 2.—J. C. Dent, *Story of the United Canada rebellion*.

1838-1843—Questions at issue in rebellion.—Crown colonies.—Suspension of Constitution.—Durham's report.—Sydenham and Bagot.—"The questions at issue in the decade which preceded the rebellions of 1837 were (1) the clergy reserves; (2) responsible government—the demand for an executive dependent upon a majority in the assembly, as was the constitutional usage in England; (3) full control by the assembly over taxation and appropriations; (4) an elected instead of a nominated legislative council; (5) the exclusion of judges from the legislature; (6) the system under which judges held office at the will of the government; and (7) the abolition of the system of plural office holding. Cartier, the best-equipped statesman the French province ever gave to the Dominion, was, in his youth, associated with Papineau in the rebellion in Quebec. He always insisted that it was a rebellion, not against British authority, or against the British connection, but against the vicious system of government which existed in Lower and Upper Canada for a generation before 1837. It was a rebellion against governments at Quebec and Toronto that were Bourbon in outlook, oligarchic, and corrupt. 'Narrow-minded and tyrannical,' is Egerton's characterization of the government at Toronto. These governments bore down ruthlessly on all attempts at reform from outside; and the colonial office in London made no attempt either to check or to reform them. From the American revolution until responsible government was conceded to all the British North American provinces in the forties of the nineteenth century, Quebec and Ontario, Nova Scotia, New

Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island were under what would be described today as Crown colony rule; and from 1820 to 1837 Crown colony government was seen at its worst in Toronto and Quebec. . . . William IV's conception of colonies, and of the relation of the sovereign to them, was very similar to that of George III. When Lord Gosford was sent out to Quebec as governor-general in 1835, the king told him that he would never consent to the establishment of an elective legislative council. The king held that control of the legislative council, by nomination, was one of the prerogatives of the crown. 'It was,' he said, 'a safeguard for the preservation of the wise and happy connection between the mother country and the colonies, which it was both his duty and his inclination to maintain.' The development of the British cabinet had not reached its present stage in 1835. William IV was the last sovereign to assume an attitude of this kind towards his ministers; and for the United Kingdom, as well as for the colonies, an era of less monarchical rule began with the advent of Queen Victoria.

"The rebellions necessitated immediate legislation at Westminster. Accordingly on January 16, 1838, a bill was introduced in the House of Commons suspending the constitution of Lower Canada for four years, and authorizing Durham, the new governor-general, in concert with an executive council of five members, to frame ordinances for the province. Durham was further authorized to investigate and report on conditions in all the British North American provinces, and his commission constituted him governor-general of all the provinces except Newfoundland. Durham was in his forty-sixth year when he was intrusted with this mission to Canada. He was a man of great wealth, derived largely from coal mines in the county of Durham; and he was son-in-law to Grey, the Whig premier of reform bill fame. He was one of the most aggressive members of the cabinet during the crises over the reform bill of 1830-1832; always ready to force the struggle with William IV; always ready to fight for the bill either in the cabinet or in parliament; and the politically courageous part Durham had in framing and carrying the reform bill would have given him a conspicuous place in British history even if his achievements of 1830-1832 had not been overshadowed by his contribution of 1838 to the inauguration of the new era in British colonial policy. Durham's famous report has been more frequently reprinted, more frequently edited and annotated, and more widely read over the English-speaking world than any other British state paper of the nineteenth century. He was in Canada only from May 29 to November 1, 1838. He resigned and returned to England, because the Melbourne government, holding that he had exceeded his powers, disallowed an ordinance of June 28, 1838, banishing eight rebels to Bermuda. He was succeeded in August, 1839, by Poulett Thomson, afterwards Lord Sydenham, who as a colonial governor ranks second only to Durham in the history of the establishment of responsible government in the dominions. . . .

"Sir Charles Bagot . . . succeeded Sydenham as governor-general in 1841. He was appointed by the Peel government—a Conservative administration that had come into power in September, 1841. Bagot, who in British politics was a Tory, continued Sydenham's policy. At a crisis in Quebec, he formed his government 'in unison with the known will of the majority of the popular assembly.' Bagot, in fact, was so situated that he had to adopt Sydenham's principles of government. Acting on the broad principle that the con-

stitutional majority had the right to rule under the constitution, he appointed Louis Hyppolite Lafontaine to the executive council, in association with Robert Baldwin, the leader of the Liberals of Ontario. Lafontaine had succeeded Papineau as leader of the French-Canadian Liberals; and with Lafontaine's appointment to the executive council there was also the appointment to office of several French-Canadians who had been concerned in the rebellion. . . . This action brought down on him the censure of the home government. Thereafter it was hopeless for him to attempt to continue as governor-general. He asked for his recall. His request was complied with; and he died in Canada soon after the arrival of his successor, Sir Charles T. Metcalfe."—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, pp. 86-87, 95-97, 116-118.

1840.—Reunion of the provinces.—Opposition of races.—Clear Grits and Conservatives.—"The reunion of the two Provinces had been projected before: it was greatly desired by the British of the Lower Province; and in 1822 a bill for the purpose had actually been brought into the Imperial Parliament, but the French being bitterly opposed to it, the Bill had been dropped. The French were as much opposed to reunion as ever, clearly seeing, what the author of the policy [Lord Durham] had avowed, that the measure was directed against their nationality. But since the Rebellion they were prostrate. Their Constitution had been superseded by a Provisional Council sitting under the protection of Imperial bayonets, and this Council consented to the union. The two Provinces were now [July, 1840] placed under a Governor-General with a single legislature, consisting, like the legislatures of the two Provinces before, of an Upper House nominated by the Crown and a Lower House elected by the people. Each province was to have the same number of representatives, although the population of the French Province was at that time much larger than that of the British Province. The French language was proscribed in official proceedings. French nationality was thus sent, constitutionally, under the yoke. But to leave it its votes, necessary and right as that might be, was to leave it the only weapon which puts the weak on a level with the strong and even gives them the advantage, since the weak are the most likely to hold together and to submit to the discipline of organised party. The French . . . 'had the wisdom,' as their manual of history . . . complacently observes, 'to remain united among themselves, and by that union were able to exercise a happy influence on the Legislature and the Government.' Instead of being politically suppressed, they soon, thanks to their compactness as an interest and their docile obedience to their leaders, became politically dominant. The British factions began to bid against each other for their support, and were presently at their feet. . . . The statute proscribing the use of the French language in official proceedings was repealed, and the Canadian Legislature was made bilingual. The Premiership was divided between the English and the French leader, and the Ministries were designated by the double name—'the Lafontaine-Baldwin,' or 'the Macdonald-Taché.' The French got their full share of seats in the Cabinet and of patronage; of public funds they got more than their full share, especially as being small consumers of imported goods they contributed far less than their quota to the public revenue. By their aid the Roman Catholics of the Upper Province obtained the privilege of Separate Schools in contravention of the principle of religious equality and severance of the Church from the State. In time

it was recognized as a rule that a Ministry to retain power must have a majority from each section of the Province. This practically almost reduced the Union to a federation, under which French nationality was more securely entrenched than ever. Gradually the French and their clergy became, as they have ever since been, the basis of what styles itself a Conservative party, playing for French support, by defending clerical privilege, by protecting French nationality, and, not least, by allowing the French Province to dip her hand deep in the common treasury. On the other hand, a secession of thorough-going Reformers from the Moderates . . . gave birth to the party of the 'Clear Grits,' the leader of which was Mr. George Brown, a Scotch Presbyterian, and which having first insisted on the secularization of the Clergy Reserves, became, when that question was out of the way, a party of general opposition to French and Roman Catholic influence. . . . A change had thus come over the character and relations of parties. French Canada, so lately the seat of disaffection, became the basis of the Conservative party. British Canada became the stronghold of the Liberals. . . . A period of tricky combinations, perfidious alliances, and selfish intrigues now commenced, and a series of weak and ephemeral governments was its fruit."—G. Smith, *Canada and the Canadian question*, ch. 7.

ALSO IN: W. Houston, *Documents illustrative of the Canadian constitution*, pp. 149-185.—J. G. Bourinot, *Manual of the constitutional history of Canada*, ch. 5.

1840-1841.—International imbroglio consequent on the burning of the *Caroline*.—McLeod case.—The burning of the steamer *Caroline* (see above: 1838) gave rise to a serious question between Great Britain and the United States. "In the fray which occurred, an American named Duffree was killed. The British government avowed this invasion to be a public act and a necessary measure of self-defence; but it was a question when Mr. Van Buren [president of the United States] went out of office whether this avowal had been made in an authentic manner. . . . In November, 1840, one Alexander McLeod came from Canada to New York, where he boasted that he was the slayer of Duffree, and thereupon was at once arrested on a charge of murder and thrown into prison. This aroused great anger in England, and the conviction of McLeod was all that was needed to cause immediate war. . . . Our [the American] government was, of course, greatly hampered in action . . . by the fact that McLeod was within the jurisdiction and in the power of the New York courts, and wholly out of reach of those of the United States. . . . Mr. Webster [who became secretary of state under President Taylor] . . . was hardly in office before he received a demand from Mr. Fox for the release of McLeod, in which full avowal was made that the burning of the *Caroline* was a public act. Mr. Webster determined that . . . the only way to dispose of McLeod was to get him out of prison, separate him, diplomatically speaking, from the affair of the *Caroline*, and then take that up as a distinct matter for negotiation with the British government. . . . His first step was to instruct the Attorney-General to proceed to Lockport, where McLeod was imprisoned, and communicate with the counsel for the defence, furnishing them with authentic information that the destruction of the *Caroline* was a public act, and that therefore McLeod could not be held responsible. . . . This threw the responsibility for McLeod, and for consequent peace or war, where it belonged, on the New York authorities, who seemed, however, but little inclined to assist the general government. McLeod

came before the Supreme Court of New York in July, on a writ of habeas corpus, but they refused to release him on the grounds set forth in Mr. Webster's instructions to the Attorney-General, and he was remanded for trial in October, which was highly embarrassing to our government, as it kept this dangerous affair open." But when McLeod came to trial in October, 1841, it appeared that he was a mere braggart who had not even been present when Duffree was killed. His acquittal happily ended the case, and smoothed the way to the negotiation of the Ashburton treaty, which opened at Washington soon afterwards and which settled all questions between England and the United States.—H. C. Lodge, *Daniel Webster*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: W. H. Seward, *Works*, v. 2, pp. 547-588.—D. Webster, *Works*, v. 6, pp. 247-269.

1842.—Settlement of boundary disputes with the United States by the Ashburton treaty. See AROOSTOOK WAR; U. S. A.: 1842: Treaty with England.

1843-1849.—Lafontaine-Baldwin ministry.—Metcalf's governorship.—Attempt to stay responsible government.—Lord Elgin's views on the subject.—Draper-Viger ministry.—Rebellion losses bill.—Montreal riots.—Appeal to imperial parliament.—Triumph of responsible government.—"Unlike Durham, Sydenham, and Bagot, Metcalf, who was created a peer in 1845, had had a varied experience of governorships before he reached Canada in 1843. . . . Metcalf did not follow the policy of Sydenham and Bagot. He refused recognition of the principle of responsible government—any recognition that would satisfy Canadian political leaders. At the time Bagot resigned, the Lafontaine-Baldwin ministry was in power. This was the ministry whose formation had been the cause of Bagot's loss of prestige in Downing Street. Kingston was then the seat of government of the United Provinces; and Metcalf, soon after he had established himself in that city as governor-general, undertook to make himself practically minister of the colony. He refused to accept the recommendations of the executive council in regard to public appointments. He 'refused to follow the advice of his ministers in matters which were within their absolute province.' Furthermore, when he was interviewed by a deputation of electors from Upper Canada, who asked that he follow the constitutional practice initiated by Sydenham, Metcalf made a speech, much more suited to the political atmosphere of India than to that of any British North American province after the rebellion. . . . 'If you mean,' said Metcalf, 'that the governor is to have no exercise of his own judgment in the administration of the government, and is to be a mere tool in the hands of the council, I totally disagree with you. That is a condition to which I never can submit, and which her majesty's government, in my opinion, can never sanction. If you mean that every word and deed of the governor is to be previously submitted for the advice of the council then you propose what, besides being unnecessary, is utterly impossible, consistent with the due despatch of business.' . . . His attempt in 1843-1845 to stay the progress towards responsible government was as useless as it would have been for him to command the waters of Lake Erie to cease flowing over Niagara Falls. Racial divisions existed in the legislature of the United Provinces from 1841 to 1866. But party lines were not identical with race lines. All the members from Quebec were not Liberal, nor all the members from Ontario Conservative. Combinations of groups from each province were necessary to secure a party majority in the assembly.

It was by a combination of this kind that the Lafontaine-Baldwin administration was formed when Bagot was governor-general. Such an administration was known as a double-majority and double-headed cabinet, because a British and a French party leader—of equal rank in the cabinet, and each with his regimented following in the assembly—were necessary to keep the administration in power. Robert Baldwin, who with Lafontaine was at the head of the government when Metcalfe attempted to restore the old régime and enforce his old crown colony ideal of colonial government, was the leader of the Liberals in Ontario. He had been in the political life of the upper province since 1829, when association with radicals and reformers meant a boycott for a professional man—he was a lawyer—and meant also social ostracism. With Baldwin from 1820 to 1849, responsible government was the alpha and omega of political reform. He was the author of the municipal code of 1849, a democratic measure of much value in the domestic history of Ontario.

"But his fame today, like that of Lafontaine, rests chiefly on his part in the successful struggle for responsible government under the constitution of 1840. The Lafontaine-Baldwin government resigned in September, 1844. It was succeeded by the Draper-Viger government, which had as its following members of the assembly from both Quebec and Ontario, who were willing to accede to Metcalfe's views of responsible government. But these members were not numerous enough to give the Draper-Viger administration a majority in the assembly. Without a majority there could be no votes in supply—no money with which to carry on the government. Under the constitution a session of the legislature had to be held each year, and a legislature might continue in existence for four years. But, as under the British constitution, the governor-general had power, as he has today, to dissolve the legislature at a crisis which seemed to make expedient a new appeal to the electorate. Metcalfe, under the conditions which confronted him in the autumn of 1844—with Lafontaine and Baldwin out of office, but with their followers still compact and hostile to the new government—was compelled to dissolve the legislature. He was compelled to take this step, or to yield to the demand for responsible government, as the radicals conceived it. The new ministers, Draper and Viger—were Conservatives—Tories, as Conservatives in Canada were called until 1855. Metcalfe had had no experience in the management of elections. Elections were unknown in India. But he threw himself into the election of 1844 with all the vigor that had characterized Head's intervention in the election in Upper Canada in 1836, and with such success that a majority was secured in the assembly for Draper and Viger. As Metcalfe was the last governor-general to assume what today would be regarded as a distinctly unconstitutional position towards an administration, so also was he the last governor who was openly partisan. He was the last to interfere in a general election in the interest of either party. Within less than a year of his success at the election of 1844, Metcalfe died. . . .

"During the whole of her sixty-four years' reign the Queen can scarcely have done what are now the dominions a more valuable service than when she suggested the appointment of Elgin to Stanley. . . . Today Elgin ranks with Durham and Sydenham among the great colonial administrators of the nineteenth century. Had he followed in Metcalfe's footsteps—made speeches like that of Metcalfe to the advocates of responsible government, and interfered in elections—his name would have been

of interest only to colonial antiquaries. . . . At the time that Elgin was governor-general of Canada, and for at least a quarter of a century afterwards, the attitude of many statesmen in England—Conservatives as well as Liberals—was that colonies such as Canada, Australia, and New Zealand would end the connection with Great Britain as soon as they were strong enough to stand alone. Many English statesmen were convinced that the constitutions framed by parliament after 1840 for colonies with representative government were only provisional—only preliminary to constitutions in which these colonies would assert their complete independence. . . . Elgin never held this view of the temporary character of the connection between the dominions and Great Britain. He did not go to Canada with the idea that he was to aid in perfecting a system of government that was to be only provisional, or with the conviction that the British North American colonies would follow the example of the American colonies, and end the connection with Great Britain. As Elgin conceived it, his mission was to convince Canadians that, without severing the bonds that united them with Great Britain, 'they might attain the degree of perfection and of social and political development to which organized communities of freemen had the right to aspire.' The principles on which Elgin based his policy as governor were identical with those that had guided Sydenham in 1841. He would identify himself with no party, but would make himself a moderator between the influential of all parties. He would have no ministers who did not enjoy the confidence of the Canadian people; and he would not refuse his consent to any measure, proposed by the ministry, unless it were of an extreme party character, such as the assembly or the electors would be sure to disapprove. Elgin arrived at Montreal at the end of December, 1847. On the day that he took oath as governor-general, he received an address of welcome from the municipality of Montreal. In reply he intimated that he had frankly and unequivocally adopted Durham's view of colonial governorship—an intimation that caused no little astonishment to the Family Compact and its partisans, who had scarcely more sympathy with Durham's principles of colonial government than they had with republicanism in the United States. The Draper-Viger government was at this time still in office. The leaders and their partisans were in good humor, as they were in enjoyment of the offices to which as Tories of the Family Compact group they were convinced they had a prescriptive right. The Liberals were in a hopeful mood, as they were convinced—rightly, as it developed—that with the end of the Metcalfe régime a better era would open for the advocates of responsible government. A dissolution of the legislature came at the end of 1847. As soon as the newly elected assembly convened, early in 1848, the Draper-Viger ministry was again in the position in which it was when it was first organized. It was in a minority, and unable to carry on the government. A new ministry—again a Lafontaine-Baldwin administration—was formed from the opposition; and at this juncture the members of the two parties observed a truce long enough to concur in an expression of admiration of the perfect fairness and impartiality with which Elgin had conducted himself during the election and the formation of the new ministry. Within a year of his assuming the governor-generalship, Elgin thus succeeded in carrying into effect the second of the principles on which his administration was to be based—that he would have no ministers, no members of the executive council,

who could not command a majority in the legislative assembly. He had still to make a fight, in the end successful, for his third principle, that he would not refuse his consent to any measure proposed by the cabinet, unless it were of an extreme party character, such as the assembly or the electors would disapprove.

"The test came on the measure known in Canadian history as the rebellion losses bill—a bill almost as important in the constitutional history of Canada as the act of union of 1840, and quite as important as the tariff acts of 1858-1859, out of which developed the right of British colonies, with representative and responsible governments, to frame their own tariffs without interference from the colonial office or parliament at Westminster. The object of the rebellion losses bill was to provide for the indemnification of men in Lower Canada whose property had been destroyed during the rebellion. Elgin regarded the bill as a questionable measure; 'but,' to use his own words, 'one which the preceding administration had rendered almost inevitable by certain proceedings adopted by them' during Metcalfe's term of office. Some compensation had been paid to persons who had suffered loss of property in the rebellion. In the last session of the old legislature of Upper Canada a compensation bill was enacted; and by an ordinance, passed by the council that was in existence in Lower Canada during the suspension of the constitution from 1838 to the union in 1840, some compensation was also paid in Lower Canada. In both provinces the payments made were deemed inadequate; and in the first session of the legislature of the United Provinces—1841—a bill was enacted for further compensation for sufferers in Upper Canada. In 1845 there was an appeal on behalf of sufferers in Lower Canada. It was addressed to Metcalfe, who responded by appointing a commission of inquiry. The commission reported in April, 1846, that there were losses for which compensation should be paid. . . . The bill that was introduced into the legislature in 1848 by the Lafontaine-Baldwin government appropriated \$90,000 for this purpose. There was a provision in the bill that no person who had been convicted, or who had pleaded guilty of treason, during the rebellion, should be entitled to any compensation. The Tories in both provinces raised a great commotion against the bill. There was much hard language from the loyalists against Elgin, who was urged to dissolve the legislature, though little more than a year had elapsed since the general election. The bill, however, was persisted in by the Lafontaine-Baldwin administration. In all British legislatures money bills originate in the lower house. They are based on resolutions. If the resolutions are carried they are embodied in a bill which is introduced, and goes through all its stages in both houses like any other measure. The resolutions on which the rebellion losses bill was based—resolutions which, by constitutional usage, could not have been submitted to the legislative assembly had the governor-general not signified his assent to them by message to the house—were carried by fifty to twenty-five votes. The bill was carried by forty-seven to eighteen votes. The reasons which induced Elgin to give his assent to the resolutions were explained in a letter which he wrote from Montreal to Grey, who was secretary for the colonies in the Russell administration of 1846-1852. 'The measure itself,' he wrote, 'is not indeed altogether free from objection; and I very much regret that an addition should be made to our debt for such an object at this time. Nevertheless, I must say, I do not see how my present government could have taken any

other course in this matter than that which they have followed. . . . From the assembly the rebellion losses bill went to the legislative council; and here it should be noted that Elgin in appointing members to the council had acted on the advice of his ministers. By so doing, he had accepted another demand of the protagonists of responsible government, and established the usage which has continued at Ottawa and at Quebec and Halifax to the present day. It is in accordance with this usage that appointments to the senate, and to the legislative councils in the provinces where these exist, are made by the governor-general, or the lieutenant-governors, as representatives of the crown, but invariably on the advice of the cabinet at Ottawa or the provincial executives at Quebec and Halifax. The bill, having passed the assembly and the council, was ready for the royal assent on April 25, 1849. It received the royal assent from Elgin on that day. As Elgin left the parliament house in Montreal he was received with mingled cheers and hooting, and his carriage was pelted with rotten eggs, thrown by a 'small knot of individuals consisting of persons of a respectable class in society.' An open-air demonstration in the Champs de Mars followed the outbreak at the parliament building. Inflammatory speeches were made; and on a sudden the mob proceeded to the house of parliament, where the members were still sitting. After breaking the windows, the mob set fire to the building, and burned it to the ground. The crowd then dispersing, members of the legislature were permitted to leave without molestation; and no resistance was offered by the riotous loyalists to the soldiers who came on the scene to assist in extinguishing the fire. At the next sitting of the assembly an address was voted to the governor-general. It expressed abhorrence of the outrage of April 25, and approval of Elgin's 'just and impartial administration of the government.' It also commended his attitude towards the Draper-Viger ministry as well as towards the Lafontaine-Baldwin cabinet. Elgin went into the city on April 30 to receive this address. He was escorted by a troop of volunteer dragoons. On his way through the streets he was greeted with a shower of stones. Returning from the parliament house to Monklands, his residence on Mount Royal, Elgin varied his route to avoid further hostile demonstrations. But the mob, discovering his purpose, rushed in pursuit. They again assailed his carriage with stones, rotten eggs, and other missiles; and it was only by furious driving that the governor-general reached Monklands unhurt. . . . Grey would not hear of Elgin's resignation. Were he to resign it would be a most serious loss to her majesty's service and to the province. Moreover, with conditions as they were in Montreal, it would be 'most injurious to the public welfare, from the encouragement which it would give to those who had been concerned in the violent and illegal opposition' to Elgin's government. . . . The loyalists then appealed to England. Petitions were sent from Montreal to Westminster for the disallowance of the rebellion losses bill. Gladstone, who, it will be recalled, was not of the Liberal party until 1859, denounced the bill in the house of commons as a measure for the rewarding of rebels; and Herries, who had been a member of the Wellington and Peel administration, moved for an address to the Queen for its disallowance. There was a debate on this motion extending over two nights. In the course of it Elgin's policy was defended by Peel, almost as strongly as by Russell. Russell stoutly contended that under the constitution of 1840 the majority in the United Provinces

must rule. The premier's speech was remarkable, in view of his dread in 1837, and again in 1840, of responsible government in Canada. 'Not only,' he said, 'has Canada self-government, but responsible government, which has never been enjoyed to such an extent as it has been since the time of the Earl of Elgin. If the present ministry in Canada are sustained by popular opinion and by the assembly, they will remain in office. If, on the contrary the opinion of the province is adverse to them, the governor-general will take other advisers, and will act strictly in accordance with the rule that has been adopted here.' There was a majority of 141 against the motion to disallow. In the house of lords a majority also supported the position that Russell had taken in the house of commons; and by these two epoch-making divisions at Westminster in June, 1849, a struggle that had been going on in Canada since 1828 was brought to a triumphant conclusion. Thereafter there was no more discussion of Canadian grievances in parliament at Westminster. There were no more petitions from Conservatives in Canada who objected to responsible government. Thenceforward a new principle governed the colonial office in its relations with colonies with representative and responsible government. This principle was that the imperial government had no interest whatever in exercising any greater influence in the internal affairs of the colonies than was indispensable, either for the purpose of preventing any one colony from adopting measures injurious to another, or to the empire at large.—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, pp. 119-125, 127-129, 131-140, 142-145.

1846.—Settlement of boundary between British Columbia and Oregon. See BRITISH COLUMBIA; OREGON: 1818-1846.

1851.—Grand Trunk railway built by British capital.—'The Grand Trunk Railway, which dates its charter from 1851, came into existence almost entirely as the result of the investment of private capital, largely British.'—H. E. Fiske, *Dominion of Canada*, p. 113.—See also RAILROADS: 1830-1853; 1853-1919.

1853.—Beginning of Inter-Colonial railway. See RAILROADS: 1853-1918.

1854.—Reciprocity tariff treaty with U. S. See TARIFF: 1854-1866.

1854.—Seigniorial tenure in Lower Canada abolished.—'In Quebec [as we have seen], the land was at first held in seigniority, the seignor (generally a noble) had under him the *censitaires* or tenants, "habitans" they called themselves, who were bound to render certain services, pay certain rents, etc. . . . In 1854, the United Province of Canada directed the value of all these rights to the seignor to be determined by commissioners appointed by the Governor, and upon their report being filed, and notice thereof published in the *Official Gazette*, the habitant was relieved of all duties, etc., except the fixed yearly rent, and thereafter held his land in *france-à-leu roturier*—at his option he might pay a lump sum once for all.

'In this instance all the feudal duties were turned into a money payment—yearly, indeed, unless the tenant paid a lump sum. No one doubts that when the Legislature said that a lump sum might be paid instead of the *rente constituée*, it was perfectly valid legislation.'—W. R. Riddell, *Constitution of Canada*, p. 132.

1866-1871.—Fenian invasions.—The Fenian movement had its most serious outcome in an attempted invasion of Canada from the United States, which took place in 1866. "Canadian volunteers were under arms all day on the 17th of March,

1866, expecting a Fenian invasion, but it was not made: in April an insignificant attack was made upon New Brunswick. About 900 men, under Col. O'Neil, crossed from Buffalo to Fort Erie on the night of May 31st. Moving westward, this body aimed at destroying the Welland Canal, when they were met by the Queen's Own Volunteer Regiment of Toronto, and the 13th battalion of Hamilton Militia, near the village of Ridgeway. Here, after a conflict of two hours, in which for a time the Volunteers drove the enemy before them, the Canadian forces retired to Ridgeway, and thence to Port Colborne, with a loss of nine killed and 30 wounded. Col. Peacock, in charge of a body of regulars, was marching to meet the volunteers, so that O'Neil was compelled to flee to Fort Erie, and, crossing to the United States with his men, was arrested, but afterwards liberated. The day after the skirmish the regulars and volunteers encamped at Fort Erie, and the danger on the Niagara Frontier was past. A Fenian expedition threatened Prescott, aiming at reaching the capital at Ottawa, and another band of marauders crossed the border from St. Albans, Vermont, but both were easily driven back. The Fenian troubles roused strong feeling in Canada against the American authorities. . . . A Fenian attack was led by Col. O'Neil on the Lower Canadian frontier, in 1870, but it was easily met, and the United States authorities were moved to arrest the repulsed fugitives. A foolish movement was again made in 1871 by the same leader, through Minnesota, against Manitoba. Through the prompt action of the friendly American commander at Fort Pembina, the United States troops followed the Fenians across the border, arrested their leader, and, though he was liberated after a trial at St. Paul, Minnesota, the expedition ended as a miserable and laughable failure. These movements of the Fenian Society, though trifling in effect, yet involved Canada in a considerable expense upon the maintenance of bodies of the Active Militia at different points along the frontier. The training of a useful force of citizen soldiery however resulted.'—G. Bryce, *Short history of the Canadian people*, pp. 468-470.

ALSO IN: G. T. Denison, Jr., *Fenian raid on Fort Erie.—Correspondence relating to the Fenian invasion.—Official report of General John O'Neil.*

1867.—Rights of Hudson's Bay Company transferred. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: Chronological summary: 1867.

1867.—Federation of the provinces of British North America in the Dominion of Canada.—Constitution of the Dominion.—'The Union between Upper and Lower Canada lasted until 1867, when the provinces of British North America were brought more closely together in a federation and entered on a new era in their constitutional history. For many years previous to 1865, the administration of government in Canada had become surrounded with political difficulties of a very perplexing character. . . . Parties at last were so equally balanced on account of the antagonism between the two sections, that the vote of one member might decide the fate of an administration, and the course of legislation for a year or a series of years. From the 21st of May, 1862, to the end of June, 1864, there were no less than five different ministries in charge of the public business. Legislation, in fact, was at last practically at a dead-lock. . . . It was at this critical juncture of affairs that the leaders of the government and opposition, in the session of 1864, came to a mutual understanding, after the most mature consideration of the whole question. A coalition government was formed on the basis of a federal union of all

the British American provinces, or of the two Canadas, in case of the failure of the larger scheme. . . . It was a happy coincidence that the legislatures of the lower provinces were about considering a maritime union at the time the leading statesmen of Canada had combined to mature a plan of settling their political difficulties. The Canadian ministry at once availed themselves of this fact to meet the maritime delegates at their convention in Charlottetown, and the result was the decision to consider the question of the larger union at Quebec. Accordingly, on the 10th of October, 1864, delegates from all the British North American provinces assembled in conference, in 'the ancient capital,' and after very ample deliberations during eighteen days, agreed to 72 resolutions, which form the basis of the Act of Union. These resolutions were formally submitted to the legislature of Canada in January, 1865, and after an elaborate debate, which extended from the 3d of February to the 14th of March, both houses agreed by very large majorities to an address to her Majesty praying her to submit a measure to the Imperial Parliament 'for the purpose of uniting the provinces in accordance with the provisions of the Quebec resolutions.' Some time, however, had to elapse before the Union could be consummated, in consequence of the strong opposition that very soon exhibited itself in the maritime provinces, more especially to the financial terms of the scheme." Certain modifications of the terms of the Quebec resolutions were accordingly made, and "the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, being at last in full accord, through the action of their respective legislatures, the plan of union was submitted on the 12th of February, 1867, to the Imperial Parliament, where it met with the warm support of the statesmen of all parties, and passed without amendment in the course of a few weeks, the royal assent being given on the 20th of March. The new constitution came into force on the First of July [annually celebrated since, as 'Dominion Day'] 1867, and the first parliament of the united provinces met on November of the same year. . . . The confederation, as inaugurated in 1867, consisted only of the four provinces of Ontario [Upper Canada], Quebec [Lower Canada], Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. By the 146th section of the Act of Union, provision was made for the admission of other colonies on addresses from the parliament of Canada, and from the respective legislatures of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia. Rupert's Land and the North-west Territory might also at any time be admitted into the Union on the address of the Canadian Parliament. . . . The title of Dominion did not appear in the Quebec resolutions. The 71st Res. is to the effect that 'Her Majesty be solicited to determine the rank and name of the federated Provinces.' The name ['the Dominion of Canada'] was arranged at the conference held in London in 1866, when the union bill was finally drafted."—J. G. Bourinot, *Manual of constitutional history of Canada*, ch. 6-7 (with foot-note).—"The Federal Constitution of the Dominion of Canada is contained in the British North America Act, 1867, a statute of the British Parliament (36 Vict., c. 3). I note a few of the many points in which it deserves to be compared with that of the United States. The Federal or Dominion Government is conducted on the so-called 'Cabinet system' of England, i. e., the Ministry sit in Parliament, and hold office at the pleasure of the House of Commons. The Governor-General [appointed by the crown] is in the position of an irresponsible and permanent executive similar to

that of the Crown of Great Britain, acting on the advice of responsible ministers. He can dissolve Parliament. The Upper House or Senate, is composed of 78 persons, nominated for life by the Governor-General, i. e., the Ministry. The House of Commons has at present 210 members, who are elected for five years. Both senators and members receive salaries. The Senate has very little power or influence. The Governor-General has a veto but rarely exercises it, and may reserve a bill for the Queen's pleasure. The judges, not only of the Federal or Dominion Courts, but also of the provinces, are appointed by the Crown, i. e., by the Dominion Ministry, and hold for good behaviour. Each of the Provinces, at present [1888] seven in number, has a legislature of its own, which, however, consists in Ontario, British Columbia, and Manitoba, of one House only, and a Lieutenant-Governor, with a right of veto on the acts of the legislature, which he seldom exercises. Members of the Dominion Parliament cannot sit in a Provincial legislature. The Governor-General has a right of disallowing acts of a Provincial legislature, and sometimes exerts it, especially when a legislature is deemed to have exceeded its constitutional competence. In each of the Provinces there is a responsible Ministry, working on the Cabinet system of England. The distribution of matters within the competence of the Dominion Parliament and of the Provincial legislatures respectively, bears a general resemblance to that existing in the United States; but there is this remarkable distinction, that whereas in the United States, Congress has only the powers actually granted to it, the State legislatures retaining all such powers as have not been taken from them, the Dominion Parliament has a general power of legislation, restricted only by the grant of certain specific and exclusive powers to the Provincial legislatures. Criminal law is reserved for the Dominion Parliament; and no Province has the right to maintain a military force. Questions as to the constitutionality of a statute, whether of the Dominion Parliament or of a Provincial legislature, come before the courts in the ordinary way, and if appealed, before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council in England. The Constitution of the Dominion was never submitted to a popular vote, and can be altered only by the British Parliament, except as regards certain points left to its own legislature. . . . There exists no power of amending the Provincial constitutions by popular vote similar to that which the peoples of the several States exercise in the United States."—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, v. 1, app., note (B) to ch. 30.—See also BRITISH NORTH AMERICA ACT; CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1867; 1871; FEDERAL GOVERNMENT; Modern federations.

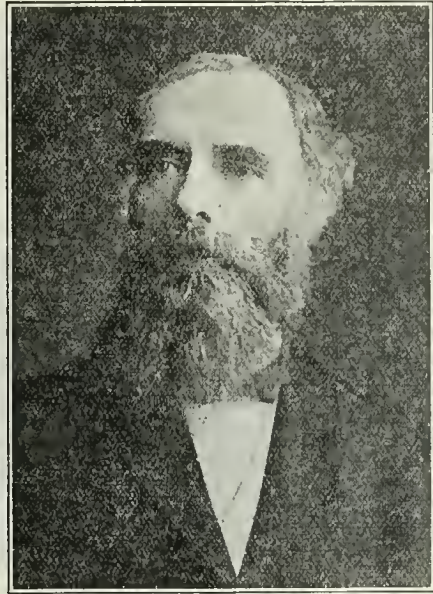
ALSO IN: J. E. C. Munro, *Constitution of Canada (with text of Act in app.)*.—*Parliamentary debate on Confederation*, 3d Session, 8th Provisional Parliament of Canada.—W. Houston, *Documents illustrative of the Canadian Constitution*, pp. 186-224.—*Canadian constitutional studies publication by the University of Toronto press*.

1868.—Postal savings banks established. See POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

1869-1873.—Acquisition of the Hudson Bay Territory.—First Riel rebellion.—Admission of Manitoba, British Columbia, Prince Edward Island.—Selkirk's "soldier settlers remained at Kildonan, and in the Red River Valley there gradually grew up a settlement composed mainly of Scotch and French half-breeds, living by hunting and trapping, and occasionally rebelling against even the mild rule of the [Hudson's Bay Company] Company. . . . But the West was destined for bet-

ter things than to remain for ever a hunting ground. Once Upper and Lower Canada had begun to settle down and to find that it was possible to live together in peace, if not in harmony, the wider vision and the larger hope began to dawn. In 1857 the Conservative Government sent Chief-Justice Draper to England to try to negotiate with the Hudson's Bay Company. Although his mission failed, the Canadian hope did not die and was fostered by the great men of both parties. The liberal leader, George Brown, and his lieutenant, William MacDougall, were instant in season and out of season for the acquisition by Canada of this great domain. Once Canada had become federated, and had thus obtained the power and the resources necessary to govern so vast a territory, the negotiations were renewed. . . . In 1868 Sir Georges Cartier and Mr. Macdougall were sent to London to negotiate. There the British Government co-operated with them, and as a result the Hudson's Bay Company, while retaining its trading rights, gave up all its powers of government on condition of receiving one-twentieth of the land [two sections in every township], certain small areas around its own forts, and \$1,500,000. This seems to us now a small price to pay for the great western heritage of Canada, yet so little was the greatness then realized that many men attacked the Government for its wanton extravagance. . . . But the West was not to yield up her treasures without a struggle. The half-breeds around the Hudson's Bay Company post of Fort Garry (now Winnipeg) had no desire to leave the mild rule of the Company, and a series of mistakes and mishaps drove them into armed rebellion."—W. L. Grant, *History of Canada*, p. 276.—"The Canadian Government, . . . not as efficient in administration as it should have been, overlooked the necessity of consulting the wishes and the prejudices of the men on the spot. It was not merely land and buffalo herds which were being transferred but also sovereignty over a people. In the valley of the Red River there were some twelve thousand *métis*, or half-breeds, descendants of Indian mothers and French or Scottish fathers. The Dominion authorities intended to give them a large share in their own government but neglected to arrange for a formal conference. The *métis* were left to gather their impression of the character and intentions of the new rulers from indiscreet and sometimes overbearing surveyors and land seekers. In 1869, under the leadership of Louis Riel, the one man of education in the settlement, able but vain and unbalanced, and with the Hudson's Bay officials looking on unconcerned, the *métis* decided to oppose being made 'the colony of a colony.' The Governor sent out from Ottawa was refused entrance, and a provisional Government under Riel assumed control. The Ottawa authorities first tried persuasion and sent a commission of three, . . . when the act of Riel in shooting Thomas Scott, an Ontario settler and a member of the powerful Orange order, set passions flaring. Mgr. Taché, the Catholic bishop of the diocese, on his return aided in quieting the *métis*. Delegates were sent by the Provisional Government to Ottawa, and, although not officially recognized, they influenced the terms of settlement. An expedition under Colonel Wolsley marched through the wilderness north of Lake Superior only to find that Riel and his lieutenants had fled. By the Manitoba Act the Red River country was admitted to Confederation as a self-governing province, under the name of Manitoba while the country west to the Rockies was given territorial status. The Indian tribes were handled with tact and

justice, but though for the time the danger of armed resistance had passed, the embers of discontent were not wholly quenched."—O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, p. 155.—"On the formation of the Dominion of Canada, the provincial legislature [of British Columbia] passed a unanimous motion in favor of union with it. This was delayed for a year or two by the Governor and some of the officials, who disliked the union, but the Governor was replaced, the British Government used its influence with the officials, and on July 1st, 1871, British Columbia became part of the Dominion. [See BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1858-1871.] Of the terms of the union the chief was that Canada should within two years begin, and within ten years complete, a railway binding the Pacific province to Lake Huron and the east. Canada now stretched from the Atlantic to the Pacific. On



DONALD A. SMITH (LORD STRATHCONA)

Last resident governor of the Hudson's Bay Company. One of the builders of the Canadian Pacific Railway. High Commissioner to London for Canada from 1896 to 1911.

the one side she looked out to the old world of Europe, on the other to the still older world of China and Japan. But she was still length without breadth. Her enemies contemptuously likened her to 'a bundle of fishing-rods tied together by the ends.' Her westward expansion was ended; her northward expansion was to begin."—W. L. Grant, *History of Canada*, pp. 283-284.—Prince Edward Island, which declined to join the confederation in 1866, was admitted in 1873.—See also NORTH-WEST TERRITORIES OF CANADA.

1871.—British North America Act, 1871.—Text. See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1871.

ALSO IN: G. M. Adam, *Canadian Northwest*, ch. 1-13.—G. L. Huyshe, *Red river expedition*.—W. P. Greswell, *History of the Dominion of Canada*, p. 313.—J. E. C. Munro, *Constitution of Canada*, ch. 2.—G. E. Ellis, *Hudson Bay Company (Narrative and critical history of America*, v. 8).—J. McCarthy, *History of our own times*, v. 4, ch. 55.—J. McCoun, *Manitoba and the great Northwest*.

1873.—Royal North West Mounted Police authorized.—"From the year 1873 onward there

has been in existence a force of military character operating in Western Canada, under control of the Dominion Government, which has established for itself a reputation which is world wide. At the time the Hudson's Bay Company's Territory was taken over by the Government of Canada, the early settlers who went west required, it was thought, the protection that could only be afforded by a force of constabulary. Statutory power was granted to the Governor in Council under an Act passed in 1873 to constitute a Police Force in and for the North-West Territories."—W. L. Griffith, *Dominion of Canada*, p. 247.

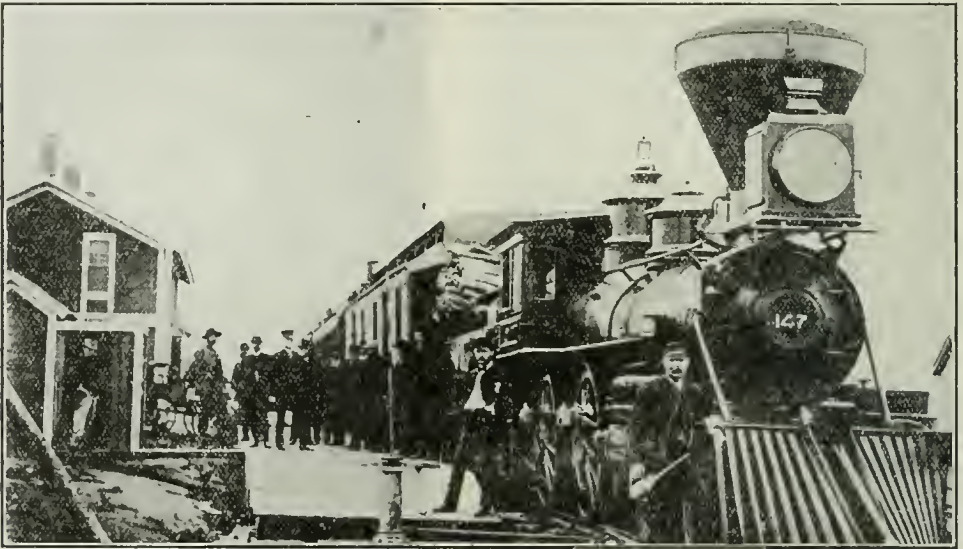
1875.—Parliament of Canada Act.—Text. See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1875.

1875-1876.—Foundation of school of art and design of Ontario. See EDUCATION: Art: Modern Period: Canada.

Pacific received much financial assistance from public funds both from the dominion and from the provinces and it also received large land grants. Public assistance either directly or indirectly given to the company is estimated to have been more than \$228,500,000. In addition it has raised hundreds of millions of new capital from private sources largely from the sale of ordinary (common) stock which now has a book value of around \$120 a share. It has become a great and successful corporation operating a system of nearly 20,000 miles of road."—H. E. Fisk, *Dominion of Canada*, p. 113. —See also RAILROADS: 1871-1910; BRITISH COLUMBIA: 1886-1888.

ALSO IN: W. L. Griffith, *Dominion of Canada*, ch. 8.—O. D. Skelton, *Railway builders*.

1880.—Office of High Commissioner created. See HIGH COMMISSIONER.



FIRST TRAIN THROUGH CALGARY, ALBERTA, IN 1885

1876.—Formation of Keewatin. See KEEWATIN.
1877.—Halifax fishery award. See FISHERIES: 1877-1898.

1879-1881.—Formal transfer of British claims to the Dominion.—Removal of British soldiers. —"In 1879 the British Government transferred to Canada all its rights and claims over the islands in the Arctic Archipelago and all other British territory in North America save Newfoundland and its strip of Labrador. From the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the forty-ninth parallel to the North Pole, now all was Canadian soil."—O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, p. 158.—The last British regiments left the Dominion in 1881, leaving the defense of the country to the Canadian militia.

1879.—Tariff legislation.—Protective tariff. See TARIFF: 1879-1894.

1879-1921.—Forest reserves.—Irrigation in the northwest. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1879-1921.

1880.—Canadian Pacific railway organized.—"In 1880 the Canadian Pacific railway was organized for the purpose of completing a transcontinental line the construction of which had hitherto been undertaken by the dominion government and upon which the government up to that time had expended upward of \$37 million. The Canadian

1884.—Colonial conference at Ottawa. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1804.

1886.—British North America Act, 1886.—Text. See CANADA, CONSTITUTION OF: 1886.

1886-1899.—Bering sea question. See BERING SEA QUESTION; U. S. A.: 1889-1892.

1890-1896.—Manitoba school question.—"The Manitoba school question was an echo of the racial and religious strife which followed the execution of Riel and in which the Jesuits' Estates controversy was an episode. In the early days of the province, when it was still uncertain which religion would be dominant among the settlers, a system of state-aided denominational schools had been established. In 1890 the Manitoba Government swept this system away and replaced it by a single system of non-sectarian and state-supported schools which were practically the same as the old Protestant schools. Any Roman Catholic who did not wish to send his children to such a school was thus compelled to pay for the maintenance of a parochial school as well as to pay taxes for the public schools. A provision of the Confederation Act, inserted at the wish of the Protestant minority in Quebec, safeguarded the educational privileges of religious minorities. A somewhat similar clause had been inserted in the Manitoba Act of 1870. To this pro-

tection the Manitoba minority now appealed. The courts held that the province had the right to pass the law but also that the Dominion Government had the constitutional right to pass remedial legislation restoring in some measure the privileges taken away. The issue was thus forced into federal politics. A curious situation then developed. The leader of the Government, Sir Mackenzie Bowell, was a prominent Orangeman. The leader of the Opposition, Wilfrid Laurier, was a Roman Catholic. The Government, after a vain attempt to induce the province to amend its measure, decided to pass a remedial act compelling it to restore to the Roman Catholics their rights. The policy of the Opposition leader was awaited with keen expectancy. Strong pressure was brought upon Laurier by the Roman Catholic hierarchy of Quebec. Most men expected a temporizing compromise. Yet the leader of the Opposition came out strongly and flatly against the Government's measure. He agreed that a wrong had been done but insisted that compulsion could not right it and promised that, if in power, he would follow the path of conciliation. At once all the wrath of the hierarchy was unloosed upon him, and all its influence was thrown to the support of the Government. Yet when the liberals blocked the Remedial Bill by obstructing debate until the term of Parliament expired, and forced an election on this issue in the summer of 1896, Quebec gave a big majority to Laurier, while Manitoba stood behind the party which had tried to coerce it. The country over, the Liberals had gained a decisive majority. The day of new leaders and a new policy had dawned at last."—O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, pp. 197-199.

ALSO IN: H. Egerton, *Canada* (pt. ii).—Lucas, *Historical geography of the British Colonies*, v. 5).—J. Castell Hopkins, *Canada*, ch. 26.—T. G. Snead Cox, *Mr. Laurier and Manitoba* (*Nineteenth Century*, Apr., 1897).

1895.—Northern territories formed into provisional districts.—"The unorganized and unnamed portion of the Dominion this year was set apart into provisional districts. The territory east of Hudson's Bay, having the province of Quebec on the south and the Atlantic on the east, was to be hereafter known as Ungava. The territory embraced in the islands of the Arctic Sea was to be known as Franklin, the Mackenzie River region as Mackenzie, and the Pacific coast territory lying north of British Columbia and west of Mackenzie as Yukon. The extent of Ungava and Franklin was undefined. Mackenzie would cover 538,000 square miles, and Yukon 225,000 square miles, in addition to 143,500 square miles added to Athabasca and 470,000 to Keewatin. The total area of the Dominion was estimated at 3,456,383 square miles."—*Annual Register*, 1895, p. 391.

1895.—Judicial Committee Amendment Act. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial federation: Privy Council as Supreme Court.

1895.—Union with Newfoundland refused. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1895.

1896 (June-July).—Liberal triumph in parliamentary elections.—Formation of ministry by Sir Wilfrid Laurier.—General elections held in Canada on June 23, 1896, gave the Liberal party 113 seats out of 213 in the Dominion House of Commons; the Conservatives securing eighty-eight, and the Patrons of Industry and other Independents twelve. The effect of the election was to call the Liberal leader, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, of Quebec, to the head of the government, the Conservative ministry, under Sir Charles Tupper, retiring on July 8.

1896-1897.—Policy of the Liberal government.—Revision of the tariff.—"The position of the Canadian Liberals, when they came into power after the General Election of 1896, was not unlike that of the English Liberals after the General Election of 1892. Both Liberal parties had lists of reforms to which they were committed. The English measures were in the Newcastle Programme. Those of the Canadian Liberals were embodied in the Ottawa Programme, which was formulated at a convention held at the Dominion Capital in 1893. . . . A large part of the Ottawa Programme was set out in the speech which the Governor-General read in the Senate when the session of 1897 commenced. There was then promised a measure for the revision of the tariff; a bill providing for the extension of the Intercolonial railway from Levis to Montreal; a bill repealing the Dominion Franchise Act and abolishing the costly system of registration which goes with it; and a measure providing for the plebiscite on the Prohibition question. Neither of these last two measures was carried through Parliament. Both had to be postponed to another session; and the session of 1897 was devoted, so far as legislation went, chiefly to the tariff, and to bills, none of which were promised in the Speech from the Throne, in retaliation for the United States Contract Labor Laws, and the new United States tariff."—E. Porritt, *New administration in Canada* (*Yale Review*, Aug., 1897).—The tariff revision took the direction of discriminating duties in favor of Great Britain, and reciprocity with those nations entitled thereto by virtue of a treaty with Great Britain. For the details of this tariff, see TARIFF: 1897-1898.

1897.—Colonial conference at London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1897.

1897.—Boundary dispute with United States. See ALASKA BOUNDARY QUESTION: 1867-1903.

1897 (October).—Self-government for the Northwestern territories.—By an Act passed in October, a system of self-government, going far towards the full powers of a provincial government, but having some limitations, was provided for the Northwest Territories.

1898 (January).—Encyclical letter of the pope on the Manitoba school question.—On the report made by his delegate, Monsignor Merry del Val, Pope Leo XIII addressed an encyclical letter to the Roman church in Canada, concerning the duty of Catholics in the matter of the Manitoba schools (see above: 1890-1896), which was made public at Quebec on January 9, 1898. The letter has great general importance as defining with precision the attitude of the church towards all secular school systems: "For the Catholic there is but one true religion, the Catholic religion; hence in all that concerns doctrine, or morality, or religion, he cannot accept or recognize anything which is not drawn from the very sources of Catholic teaching. Justice and reason demand, then, that our children have in their schools not only scientific instruction but also moral teachings in harmony, as we have already said, with the principles of their religion, teachings without which all education will be not only fruitless but absolutely pernicious. Hence the necessity of having Catholic teachers, reading books, and text-books approved of by the bishops, and liberty to organize the schools, that the teaching therein shall be in full accord with Catholic faith as well as with all the duties that flow therefrom. For the rest, to decide in what institutions their children shall be instructed, who shall be their teachers of morality, is a right inherent to parental authority. When, then, Catholics demand,

and it is their duty to demand, and to strive to obtain, that the teaching of the masters shall be in conformity with the religion of their children, they are only making use of their right; and there can be nothing more unjust than to force on them the alternative of allowing their children to grow up in ignorance, or to expose them to manifest danger in what concerns the supreme interests of their souls. It is not right to call in doubt or to abandon in any way these principles of judging and acting which are founded on truth and justice, and which are the safe-guards both of public and private interests. Therefore, when the new law in Manitoba struck a blow at Catholic education, it was your duty, venerable brothers, to freely protest against the injury and disaster inflicted."

1898 (September).—Popular vote on the question of prohibition.—Pursuant to a law passed by the Dominion Parliament the previous June, a vote of the people in all the provinces of the dominion was taken, on September 29, 1898, upon the following question: "Are you in favor of the passing of an act prohibiting the importation, manufacture or sale of spirits, wine, ale, beer, cider, and all other alcoholic liquors for use as beverages?" The result of the voting was a majority for prohibition in every province except Quebec, Ontario pronouncing for it by more than 30,000, Nova Scotia by more than 29,000, New Brunswick by more than 17,000, Manitoba by more than 9,000, Prince Edward Island by more than 8,000, and the Northwest Territories by more than 3,000, while British Columbia gave a small majority of less than 600 on the same side. Quebec, on the other hand, shouted a loud "No" to the question, by 93,000 majority. The net majority in favor of prohibition was 107,000. The total of votes polled on the question was 540,000. This was less than 44 per cent of the total registration of voters; hence the vote for prohibition represented only about 23 per cent of the electorate, which the government considered to offer too little support for the measure proposed.

1898-1899.—Joint high commission for settlement of all unsettled questions between Canada and the United States.—"A Joint High Commission was constituted in 1898. The members from the United States were Senator Fairbanks, Senator Gray, Representative Nelson Dingley, General Foster, J. A. Kasson, and T. J. Coolidge of the State Department. Great Britain was represented by Lord Herschell, who acted as chairman, Newfoundland by Sir James Winter, and Canada by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, Sir Richard Cartwright, Sir Louis Davies, and John Charlton, M. P. The Commission held prolonged sittings, first at Quebec and later at Washington, and reached tentative agreement on nearly all of the troublesome questions at issue. The bonding privileges on both sides the border were to be given an assured basis; the unneighborly alien labor laws were to be relaxed; the Rush-Bagot Convention regarding armament on the Great Lakes was to be revised; Canadian vessels were to abandon pelagic sealing in Bering Sea for a money compensation; and a reciprocity treaty covering natural products and some manufacturers was sketched out. Yet no agreement followed. One issue, the Alaska boundary, proved insoluble, and as no agreement was acceptable which did not cover every difference, the Commission never again assembled after its adjournment in February, 1899."—O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, pp. 231-232.

1898-1910.—Tariff war with Germany.—Final agreement. See TARIFF: 1898-1910.

1899-1902.—Canada's part in the Boer War.—

"In addition to the first contribution (of 10,169 men who had sailed October 31) were the Canadian Mounted Rifles, 398 officers and men; the Royal Canadian Dragoons, 379 officers and men; the Royal Canadian Artillery, 530 officers and men; Lord Strathcona's special corps, 597 officers and men—all these sent out in 1899-1900, and making a force of 3,092 officers and men. In 1901 a second force of Canadian Mounted Rifles of 900 men and 1,200 men for the South African Constabulary were sent out. Early in the year 1902 the Second Regiment, Canadian Mounted Rifles, were despatched, 900 men strong. They returned in July. In April, four regiments, the Third, Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Regiments Canadian Mounted Rifles, comprising over 2,000 men, went to the front, but saw no service, were on land only a week or so, and returned home in September. These, together with the 1,004 who volunteered for special garrison duty at Halifax, in order to permit the Imperial troops stationed there to go to the front, make an aggregate of 9,200 officers and men. . . . The total cost of the war to Canada was about \$2,000,000, which was borne cheerfully by the country. The service was not a deadly one, for the number of deaths from action and disease up to October 1, 1901, was only 176."—F. B. Tracy, *Tercentenary history of Canada*, pp. 1028-1029.

ALSO IN: O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, ch. 5.

1899-1919.—Growth of Canadian northern railway system. See RAILROADS: 1809-1919.

20th century.—Status of education.—Growth of consolidated school movement. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

1900 (November).—General election.—The general election of members of the Dominion House of Commons was held November 7, resulting as follows:

PROVINCES	Liberal	Conservative	Independent	Total
Nova Scotia	15	5	—	20
New-Brunswick	9	5	—	14
Prince Edward Island	3	2	—	5
Quebec	57	8	—	65
Ontario	33	54	5	92
Manitoba	2	3	2	7
Northwest Territories	2	—	2	4
British Columbia	3	2	1	6
Totals	124	79	10	213

As in the election of 1896, the Liberal ministry of Sir Wilfrid Laurier found its strong support in the province of Quebec. Its party suffered unexpected losses in Ontario.

1900-1918.—Labor legislation. See ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Canada: 1900-1918.

1901-1902.—New apportionment of parliamentary representation.—The new distribution of parliamentary representation, determined this year by the census of the Dominion, gave the House of Commons a total membership of 214, apportioned as follows: Quebec 65 (as guaranteed by the Confederation Act); Ontario, 86; Nova Scotia, 18; New Brunswick, 13; Manitoba, 10; British Columbia, 7; Northwest Territories, 10; Prince Edward Island, 4; the Yukon, 1. The basis was one repre-

representative for each 2500 people. Ontario lost 6 seats, Nova Scotia 2, New Brunswick and Prince Edward Island 1 each; all the other provinces gained, British Columbia to the extent of 7 seats, the Northwest Territories 4, and Manitoba, 3.

1902.—Colonial conference at London.—Preferential trade agreement. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences; 1902.

1903.—Adoption of empire day in Great Britain. See ENGLAND: 1903 (June).

1903.—Discovery of cobalt-silver mines in Ontario.—Ore bodies carrying values in silver, cobalt, nickel, and arsenic were discovered in 1903, during the building of the Temiskaming and North Ontario railway near the town of Haileybury, at a distance of about 103 miles from North bay. The railway line ran over the most important vein that has been found, and signs of the latter were noticed in the spring of the year named. Prospecting was begun in the fall with quick results of important discovery, and the rapid attraction of a large mining population to what has become famous as the Cobalt District. The production of silver in the district increased from \$111,887 in 1904 to \$9,500,000 in 1908. The ores are said to be unique among those of North America.—*Sixteenth Annual Report of Ontario Bureau of Mines.*

1903-1905.—Attitude of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association toward Great Britain and the United States on the tariff question.—“The attitude of the Canadian Manufacturers' Association toward both the United States and Britain has been very frequently misrepresented by opponents of tariff reform in Canada and England. . . . The views of the Association were clearly set forth in the recommendations made by the Tariff Committee at the annual meeting in September, 1903, and adopted by the Association after full discussion. The attendance was very large, and the meeting was practically unanimous, only one member dissenting. The resolutions were as follows: (1) That we reaffirm the tariff resolution passed at the last annual meeting in Halifax, as follows: Resolved, That in the opinion of this Association, the changed conditions which now obtain in Canada demand the immediate and thorough revision of the tariff, upon lines which will more effectually transfer to the workshops of our Dominion the manufacture of many of the goods which we now import from other countries; that, in any such revision, the interests of all sections of the community, whether of agriculture, mining, fishing, or manufacturing, should be fully considered, with a view, not only to the preservation, but to the further development, of all these great natural industries; that, while such a tariff should primarily be framed for Canadian interests, it should nevertheless give a substantial preference to the Mother Country, and also to any other part of the British Empire with which reciprocal preferential trade can be arranged, recognizing always that under any conditions the minimum tariff must afford adequate protection to all Canadian producers. (2) That, except in very special cases, we are opposed to the granting of bounties in Canada as a substitute for a policy of reasonable and permanent protection. (3) That we are strongly opposed to any reciprocity treaty with the United States affecting the manufacturing industries of Canada. (4) We recommend that the Dominion Government establish in Canada a permanent tariff commission of experts, who shall have constant supervision of tariff policy and changes, and shall follow closely the workings of the Canadian tariff with a view to making such recommendations to the Government as will best conserve and ad-

vance the interests of the Dominion.’ These resolutions were reaffirmed at the annual conventions in 1904 and 1905, meeting with no opposition.”—W. Griffin, *Canadian manufacturers' tariff campaign*, (*North American Review*, Aug., 1906).

1903-1908.—Anti-Indian agitation. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1903-1908.

1904.—General election.—Continuance of the Laurier ministry.—Earl of Minto succeeded as governor-general by Earl Grey.—The general election in 1904 resulted in a parliamentary majority of sixty-four for the Liberals, thus firmly reseating the Laurier ministry. The Conservatives carried Ontario, but were beaten heavily in the maritime provinces, in Quebec, and in the west. The general prosperity of the country gave a backing to the Liberals which no political criticism could overcome. The earl of Minto was succeeded as governor-general, in 1904, by Earl Grey, who held office until 1910.

1904.—Operation of Board of Railway Commissioners. See RAILROADS: 1904-1909.

1904.—Temiskaming and Northern Ontario railway in Ontario. See RAILROADS: 1904-1921.

1904-1909.—Race problems.—Restriction of Chinese immigration.—Labor hostility.—Riotous attacks on Japanese, Chinese, and Hindu laborers. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.

1905.—New provinces created.—Alberta and Saskatchewan.—Revival of the separate school controversy.—Compromise settlement.—By bills brought into the Dominion Parliament by the premier, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, on February 21, 1905, and subsequently passed, the four Northwest Territories ceded to the Dominion by Great Britain in 1870 (see NORTHWEST TERRITORIES OF CANADA), were reorganized as two provinces, and admitted to membership in the Canadian Federal Union, bearing the names of Alberta and Saskatchewan, with Edmonton for the capital of the former and Regina for the latter. Saskatchewan includes the territories of Saskatchewan, Assiniboia, and one-half of Athabasca; and Alberta, the territory of Alberta and the remainder of Athabasca. The entire area of the two provinces is 550,345 square miles, and it extends from Manitoba west to the 110th meridian, and from the United States boundary to 60 north latitude. The population of each province was reckoned at 250,000, and was rapidly increasing. The dominion government retains control of the public lands. Each of the new provinces received at the beginning five representatives in the Dominion House of Commons and four in the Senate. A single legislative chamber of twenty-five members was provided for each; each has a lieutenant-governor, with a cabinet of responsible ministers. The dominion treasury contributes \$250,000 yearly to the revenue of each.

A provision in these bills for conceding separate schools to religious minorities revived the controversy which raged in Canada for many years, after the province of Manitoba, in 1890, had abolished denominational schools and established a free compulsory, unsectarian school system [see CANADA: 1890-1896, and 1898 (January)]. The government was forced to amend the provision, devising a compromise which cannot be said to have satisfied either party to the dispute, but which saved the government from a probable defeat. As explained at the time by a writer in *The Outlook*, the working of the system is as follows: “The half-hour is the only noteworthy feature of the separate schools. They are liable for no other school taxation than that which is necessary to support those schools. In all other respects, in every detail of government control and oversight,

they are exactly like the schools of the majority. From nine o'clock in the morning until three o'clock in the afternoon the order of lessons is the same for all; so are the text-books, the standards of efficiency, and the qualifications of the teachers. There cannot be any control of the school by any clerical or sectarian body. There cannot be any sectarian teaching between nine o'clock in the morning and three o'clock in the afternoon. The Normal schools of the new provinces will give a uniform normal training for all teachers, and there will be uniform curricula and courses of study for all schools of the same grade. There will be complete and absolute control of all schools as to their government and conduct by the central school authority created by the new provincial Legislature. The distribution of the legislative grant to all schools will be according to educational efficiency, a wise provision which did not apply to separate schools of the old type. To recapitulate, all the schools are alike, except that where the trustees are Protestant there is Protestant religious teaching from half-past three to four, and where the trustees are Roman Catholic there is Roman Catholic teaching during the half-hour. That is the only distinction, and neither Protestant nor Roman Catholic children, when they are in the minority, need remain to bear any religious teaching against their parents' wishes."

1906.—Lord's Day Act. See SUNDAY OBSERVANCES: Legal institution of a weekly rest day.

1906 (May)—Departure of the last British garrison.—On May 1, 1906, the last British garrison in the dominion was withdrawn from Esquimaux, in British Columbia, under an arrangement which leaves the Canadian government in undivided control of all military posts.

1906-1907.—Political experiments in Ontario.—Broadening the functions of government.—The Canadians of their Middle West, who used to be the most conservative of Britons, have manifested lately a new spirit, wafted, perhaps, from adventuresome New Zealand, and are trying governmental experiments that would stagger Oklahoma,—trying them, too, with what looks like success. For the development of the rich cobalt and silver mining region on its eastern border, and for the encouragement of colonization farther northward on the same border, the Ontario government has not hesitated to construct and own and operate officially an important line of railway, the Temiskaming and Northern Ontario, which is reported to have been profitable from the start. The road may possibly be extended to James Bay, the southward projection of Hudson bay. The progressive government of Ontario has also undertaken to work for its own benefit the mines in a large lately opened block of the Cobalt mining territory, covering about 100 square miles. In somewhat the same line of economic policy, it determined in 1906 to control the development and transmission of electric power at and from Niagara Falls, and accomplished its purpose by a contract with the Ontario Power Company, which secures power to municipalities in Ontario at an extremely reasonable rate.

This adventurous policy in economic directions is less surprising, however, than an absolutely novel experiment in the officializing of political parties, as agencies in representative government, which has been put on trial in Ontario during two parliamentary sessions. For the first time in constitutional history, the opposition leader in a legislature has been made a recognized functionary and salaried by the government to the extent of \$7,000 a year. Theoretically, the importance of an ef-

fectively critical opposition to the majority party in a legislature is always acknowledged. Is there not good sense, then, theoretically at least, in a policy of government which aims to increase the efficiency of that criticism and give it a responsible character, in the mode which the Ontarians are trying?

After between two and three years' trial of this last named experiment, with a salaried leader of the Opposition, the Toronto correspondent of the *London Times* wrote, in June, 1909, to that paper as follows: "This is an experiment in Parliamentary government which has not been attempted elsewhere. It has both advantages and disadvantages. There are few men of wealth or leisure in Canadian public life, and generally a private party fund has been provided for the support of the leader of the Opposition. The charge was commonly made that as this fund was likely to be provided by the few wealthy men of the party they would exact compensation in the form of official appointment or legislative favour when the Opposition leader became the head of the Government. It was decided, therefore, to give a salary, equal to the emoluments of a Minister of the Crown, to the leader of the Opposition. Mr. Borden [leader of the opposition in Ontario for some time past] sanctioned this legislation and accepted the remuneration provided. It was argued that he thus became a pensioner on the Government, and that a servile consideration for his salary would affect his independence and restrain his criticism of the paymasters on the Treasury benches. Mr. Borden, while disposed more than once to relinquish the salary, felt that this criticism was unjust, and, knowing the grave financial distresses which some of his predecessors had experienced, waited patiently for the attack to exhaust itself and for opportunity to prove that he was not a dependent of the Treasury. At length his course seems to be justified, and the appropriation of a salary for the leader of the Opposition seems likely to become a settled feature of the Canadian Parliamentary system. The real test will come, however, if the system of Parliamentary groups should ever replace the established two-party system in Canada. But for the time the experiment has been justified, and under the conditions which so often obtain in Canada it may even be said that the official salary enhances the independence and dignity of the Opposition leader in Parliament."

1906-1908.—Canada Temperance Act. See LIQUOR PROBLEM: Canada: 1906-1908.

1906-1919.—Dominion Act.—Preservation of forests, waterways and game. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Canada: 1906-1921.

1907.—Imperial conference at London.—Formation of constitution.—Discussions of defense of privy council. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1907.

1907.—Tariff revision. See TARIFF: 1907.

1907-1909.—Convention respecting commercial relations with France and its amendment.—A convention which greatly liberalized the tariff regulations affecting trade between Canada and France was concluded between the British and French governments and signed at Paris on September 19, 1907. It gave "the benefit of the minimum tariff and of the lowest rates of customs duty applicable to like products of other foreign origin," reciprocally, in each country to certain enumerated products of the other; with mutual pledges that every reduction granted by either to any foreign country should apply to similar products of the other. In January, 1909, an amended convention was nego-

tiated which liberalized still further this commercial agreement, enlarging the schedules of favored products, especially the agricultural schedules, giving important advantages to Canada in the French market. The amended convention was ratified in France on July 13, and in Canada early in December.

1908.—General election.—The Liberals were again victorious in 1908. Two chief causes contributed to this: the Conservatives were still disorganized, and it was felt that Sir Wilfrid Laurier merited another term.

1908 (April).—Convention for the preservation and propagation of food fishes in waters contiguous to the United States and Canada. See FISHERIES: 1908.

1908 (April).—Treaty respecting the demarcation of the international boundary between the United States and Canada.—A treaty "providing for the more complete definition and demarcation of the international boundary between the United States and the Dominion of Canada," negotiated by Ambassador Bryce and Secretary Root, appointed plenipotentiaries of the Governments of Great Britain and the United States, respectively, was signed at Washington on June 4, 1908. The treaty provides for parcelling the boundary line in eight sections, for the determination in each of which each government "shall appoint, without delay, an expert geographer or surveyor to serve as Commissioner." Its first article prescribes with minuteness the procedure to be followed and the consideration to be given to former surveys and determinations of the boundary line "in the waters of Passamaquoddy Bay from the mouth of the St. Croix River to the Bay of Fundy." The second article defines similarly the task appointed to the commissioners who shall determine the "line drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix from its mouth in the Bay of Fundy to its sources." The third article instructs the commissioners who shall fix the line from the source of the St. Croix to the St. Lawrence. The fourth deals in like manner with the next section of the line, from "the point of its intersection with the St. Lawrence River near the forty-fifth parallel of north latitude, as determined under articles I and VI of the Treaty of August 9, 1842, between Great Britain and the United States, and thence through the Great Lakes and communicating waterways to the mouth of Pigeon River, at the western shore of Lake Superior." The fifth pursues the line from "the mouth of Pigeon River to the north-westernmost point of the Lake of the Woods." The sixth traces the work to be done on the line from that point of the Lake of the Woods to the summit of the Rocky mountains. The seventh relates to the section of boundary "along the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude, from the summit of the Rocky Mountains westward to the eastern shore of the Gulf of Georgia, as defined in article I. of the Treaty of June 15, 1846, between Great Britain and the United States and as marked by monuments along its course,"—for the renewing and completing of which monuments commissioners were appointed by concurrent action of the two governments in 1902 and 1903. The eighth article has to do with the western terminal section of the task, carrying the boundary line from the forty-ninth parallel of north latitude along the middle of the channel which separates Vancouver Island from the mainland and through the Haro channel and the middle of Fuca's straits to the Pacific ocean, as defined in article one of the treaty of June 15, 1846, between Great Britain and the United States, and as determined by the award made on October 21, 1872, by the German emperor

as arbitrator. In articles one and two there are provisions for the arbitration of disagreements; and the concluding article contains the following: "If a dispute or difference should arise about the location or demarcation of any portion of the boundary covered by the provisions of this Treaty and an agreement with respect thereto is not reached by the Commissioners charged herein with locating and marking such portion of the line, they shall make a report in writing jointly to both Governments, or severally each to his own Government, setting out fully the questions in dispute and the differences between them, but such Commissioners shall, nevertheless, proceed to carry on and complete as far as possible the work herein assigned to them with respect to the remaining portions of the line. In case of such a disagreement between the Commissioners, the two Governments shall endeavor to agree upon an adjustment of the questions in dispute, and if an agreement is reached between the two Governments it shall be reduced to writing in the form of a protocol, and shall be communicated to the said Commissioners, who shall proceed to lay down and mark the boundary in accordance therewith, and as herein provided, but without prejudice to the special provisions contained in Articles I and II regarding arbitration. It is understood that under the foregoing articles the same persons will be appointed to carry out the delimitation of boundaries in the several sections aforesaid, other than the section covered by Article IV, unless either of the Contracting Powers finds it expedient for some reason which it may think sufficient to appoint some other person to be Commissioner for any one of the above-mentioned sections."

Also in: *Treaties affecting Canada*, 1867.

1908 (July).—Tercentenary celebration of the founding of Quebec.—The three hundredth anniversary of the founding of Quebec by Champlain was celebrated at that city in July, 1908, with remarkable spirit and success. The government of the dominion took an active and important part in the preparations, nationalizing the battle-field of Wolfe's victory over Montcalm, on the Plains of Abraham, and converting it into a park, where the principal pageants and ceremonies of the occasion were performed. The imperial government interested itself warmly in the undertaking, the prince of Wales, Lord Roberts, the duke of Norfolk, and other distinguished personages from Great Britain coming as guests of the festivity and to bear a part. Living descendants of Wolfe and Montcalm were also invited guests, and the governments of France and the United States were officially represented. Battleships from the fleets of these nations and from Germany, Italy, Spain, Japan and Argentina were brought to a friendly concourse in the harbor of Quebec, for participation in the brilliant spectacles of the fête. These included a military representation of the armies of Wolfe and Montcalm, on the field where they fought; a representation of the landing of Champlain, from a ship which duplicated the structure and equipment of his own, and a number of other historical pageants, all admirably planned and executed, and offering a rare entertainment to the many thousands of visitors who were attracted to Quebec from all parts of the Dominion and the United States. The celebration began on the 10th of July and continued through two weeks.

1908 (September).—Act to amend Civil Service Act.—Merit system introduced. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: Canada: 1908.

1908-1919.—Immigration facts.—The immigration figures for the years 1908-1919 are as follows:

Year.	British Isles.	From U. S. A.	Other Countries.	Total.
Fiscal year ending March 31.....1908	120,182	58,312	83,975	262,469
" " " ".....1909	52,901	59,832	34,175	145,908
" " " ".....1910	50,790	103,798	45,206	208,794
" " " ".....1911	123,014	121,451	66,620	311,084
" " " ".....1912	138,121	133,710	82,406	354,237
" " " ".....1913	150,542	139,009	112,881	402,432
" " " ".....1914	142,622	107,530	134,726	384,878
" " " ".....1915	43,276	59,779	41,734	144,789
" " " ".....1916	8,664	36,937	2,936	48,537
" " " ".....1917	8,282	61,389	5,703	75,374
" " " ".....1918	3,178	71,314	4,582	79,074
" " " ".....1919	9,194	40,715	7,073	57,702

Canada's total immigration represents 53 nationalities.

Of total immigration, July 1, 1900, to March 31, 1919, of 3,311,498, 1,188,946 were British; United States 1,268,793; Continental, 853,039.—F. Yeigh, 5,000 facts about Canada.

1909 (January).—Waterways treaty between the United States and Great Britain, concerning the waters between the former and Canada.—“In 1905 a temporary waterways commission was appointed, and four years later [1909] the Boundary Waters treaty provided for the establishment of a permanent Joint High commission, consisting of three representatives from each country, and with authority over all cases of use, obstruction, or diversion of border waters. Individual citizens of either country were allowed to present their case directly before the commission, an innovation in international practice. Still more significant of the new spirit was the inclusion to this treaty of a clause providing for reference to the Commission, with the consent of the United States Senate and the Dominion Cabinet, of any matter whatever at issue between the two countries. With little discussion and as a matter of course, the two democracies, in the closing years of a full century of peace, thus made provision for the sane and friendly settlement of future line-fence disputes.”—O. D. Skelton, *Canadian Dominion*, p. 238.

1909.—Great Mackenzie basin.—Newest Canadian west.—A report on the agricultural possibilities of the great Mackenzie basin, prepared by a select committee of the dominion senate, was made public in the summer of 1909. “Basing their calculations upon the testimony of witnesses, the Committee calculate that some two million square miles between the northern limits of Saskatchewan and Alberta and the Arctic Circle can be used for pasturage and for the cultivation of wheat, barley, potatoes, and other vegetables. Until a few years ago not only the Mackenzie basin but the valley of Peace rivers were on account of their high latitudes considered to be unfit for cultivation. The comparatively mild climate, which, as the report shows, they in reality enjoy, is said to be due to the proximity of large bodies of water such as the Great Slave and Great Bear lakes and to the *chinook* wind, the warm current of air that blows across the Rocky Mountains from the Pacific. The shortness of the sub-Arctic summer appears to be offset by the proportionate length of the days and by the clearness of the air. In regard to the future of the district with which it deals the report points out that in 1870 the representatives of the people of Eastern Canada were anxious to obtain in regard to what is now the prosperous province of Manitoba exactly the same information as the Committee has been engaged in collecting about Canada's ‘newest west.’”

1909.—Opposition in Newfoundland to union with the Dominion. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1909.

1909.—Power of railway commission to regulate rates on American railways entering Canada. See RAILROADS: 1904-1909.

1909.—Industrial combinations. See TRUSTS: Canada: 1909.

1909 (June).—Imperial press conference at London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (June).

1909 (July-August).—Imperial Defense conference at London. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British Imperial Defense conference.

1909-1910.—Share of undertakings of British Imperial defense. See WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909-1910.

1910.—Canadian naval policy.—“When the Canadian parliament met in January 1910 Sir Wilfrid Laurier submitted the Naval Service Bill, which provided for the establishment of fleets according to the plan finally approved by the Admiralty. The ships were to be under the control of the Dominion Government which might, in case of emergency, place them at the disposal of the Admiralty, summoning parliament to ratify such action. The bill was passed in March. In the autumn the cruiser *Niobe* (11,000 tons) and the *Rainbow* (3600 tons), purchased from the Admiralty, reached Canadian waters, where they were to serve as training-ships. Recruiting for these ships was begun and, while not speedy, was reported by the department as satisfactory. The Halifax and Esquimalt dockyards were taken over. Early in 1911 a Naval College was opened at Halifax; and in May tenders were received, ranging from eleven to thirteen millions, from six British and Canadian firms, for the construction, in Canada, of four Bristol cruisers, one Boadicea cruiser, and six destroyers.”—O. D. Skelton, *Day of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*, p. 308.

1910.—Combine Investigation Act.—“The Combine Investigation Act, providing for the investigation of combines, monopolies, trusts and mergers, is modelled in principle upon the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act 1907 and similarly will be administered by the Department of Labour.” Provisions are made for the appointment of Boards of investigation and any person reported “as continuing to offend against the act is rendered liable to a daily penalty not exceeding \$1,000 and costs.”—*Canadian Year Book*, 1910, p. 17. See TRUSTS: Canada: 1910-1912.

1910.—Agreements with Belgium, Holland and Italy.—“As a result of correspondence between the Minister of Finance and other consular representatives in Canada, Orders of Council were passed on June 7 by which the benefit of the Ca-

nadian intermediate tariff was extended to specified goods, the produce or manufacture of Belgium, Holland and Italy."—*Canadian Year Book*: 1910, p. xxxi.

1910.—Statistics of trade unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1910-1911.—Proposed reciprocity with the United States.—"The revival of the tariff issue was the most spectacular and most important episode in the new relationship. The revival started in the Republic. For some years a steadily growing agitation in favour of reciprocity with Canada had been carried on in the New England and Northwest states. Nothing might have come of the agitation, however, had not the Payne-Aldrich tariff of 1909 compelled official negotiation and opened up the whole broad issue. Under that tariff the system of maximum and minimum schedules was adopted, the maximum designed to serve as a club to compel other nations to yield their lowest rates. The president was directed to enforce these higher duties against all countries which had not agreed by April, 1910, to grant the concessions demanded. The proposal partook of the highwayman's methods and ethics even more than is usual in protectionist warfare; and it was with wry faces that one by one the nations with maximum and minimum tariffs consented to give the United States their lower rates. France and Germany were the last of European nations to accept. Canada alone remained. It was admitted that the preference granted other parts of the Empire did not constitute discrimination against the United States, but it was contended that the concessions made to France should be given to the United States. Canada resented this demand, in view of the fact that the minimum tariff of the United States stood much higher than the maximum of Canada, and it was proposed to retaliate by a surtax on American goods. . . . President Taft proposed a conference at Albany; the Dominion Government accepted, and an agreement was reached on the 30th of March, the last day of grace but one. Canada conceded to the United States its intermediate rates on a few articles of minor importance—china-ware, window-glass, feathers, nuts, prunes, and other goods—and the United States accepted these as equivalent to the French concessions. Then, to complete the comedy, Canada at once made these lower rates part of its general tariff, applying to any country, so that the United States in the end was where it started—enjoying no special concessions whatever. Canada had gone through the motions of making a concession, and that sufficed. This agreement, however, was only the beginning. President Taft, who recognized too late that he had antagonized the growing low-tariff sentiment in the United States by his support of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, decided to attempt a stroke for freer trade. He proposed a broad revision of trade relations with Canada. In negotiations which began at Ottawa and were concluded at Washington in January, 1911, an agreement for a wide measure of reciprocal free trade was effected. It was nearly as broad as the treaty of 1854. Grain, fruit and vegetables, dairy products, live stock, fish, hewn lumber and sawn boards, and many minerals were put on the free list. Meats, flour, coal and other articles free in the earlier agreement were subjected to reduced rates, a limited number of manufactured articles were included, some of them Canadian and some of them American specialties. The agreement was to be effected, not by treaty but by concurrent legislation for an indefinite period. The Canadian Government announced that the same terms would be granted all parts of the British Empire. . . .

On the economic issues concerned the advocates of the agreement apparently had a good case. The farmer, the miner, the fisherman stood to gain from it, not so notably as they would have done twenty years before, but yet undoubtedly to gain. It was contended that the United States was itself a rival producer of most of the commodities in question, and that Canada would be exposed to the competition of the British Dominions and the most-favoured nations. These arguments had force, but could not balance the advantages of the arrangement, especially to the western farmer. That this gain would accrue and a large trade north and south be created, to the destruction of trade east and west, was in fact made by the opponents of the treaty the chief corner-stone of their economic argument. It was held, too, that the raw products of farm and sea and forest and mine ought not to be shipped out of the country, but ought to be kept at home as the basis of manufacturing industries. And though the arrangement scarcely touched the manufacturers, the thin end of the wedge argument had much weight with them and their workmen. It would lead, they thought, to a still wider measure of trade freedom which would expose them to the competition of American manufacturers. But it was the political aspect of the pact that the Conservatives most emphasized. Once more, as in 1891, they declared Canadian nationality and British connection to be at stake. Reciprocity would prove the first long step towards annexation. Such was the intention, they urged, of its American upholders, a claim given some colour by President Taft's maladroit 'parting of the ways' speech and by Speaker Clark's misplacedly humorous remark, 'we are preparing to annex Canada.' And while in Canada there might be as yet few annexationists, the tendency of a vast and intimate trade north and south would be to make many. Where the treasure was, there would the heart be also. The movement for imperial preferential trade, then strong in the United Kingdom, would be for ever defeated if the American offer should be accepted. Canada must not sell her birthright for a mess of Yankee pottage. The advocates of reciprocity denounced these arguments as the sheerest buncombe. Annexation sentiment in the United States they declared to be rapidly disappearing, and in any case it was Canada's views, not those of the United States, that mattered. Reciprocity from 1854 to 1866 had killed, not fostered, annexation sentiment in Canada. And, if the doubling and trebling of imports from the United States in recent years had not kept national and imperial sentiment from rising to flood-tide, why now should an increase of exports breed disloyalty? Canadian financiers and railway operators were entering into ever closer relations with the United States; why should the farmer be denied the same right? The reciprocity proposed in 1911, unlike the programme of twenty years earlier, did not involve discrimination against Great Britain, but in fact went along with a still greater preference to the mother country. The claim that reciprocity would kill imperial preference was meaningless in face of this actual fact. Moreover, the British tariff reformers proclaimed their intention, if Mr. Chamberlain's policy prevailed, of making reciprocity treaties with foreign countries as well as preferential arrangements with the Dominions, so why should not Canada exercise the same freedom? . . . The result of the elections, which were held on the 21st of September, was the overwhelming defeat of Sir Wilfrid Laurier's Ministry. In Ontario the Liberals saved only thirteen seats out of eighty-six. In the rest of the country they

had a majority, but not sufficient to reduce substantially this adverse Ontario vote. The complete returns gave 133 Conservatives to 88 Liberals. As usual, the popular vote was more equally divided than the parliamentary seats, for the Liberals secured 625,000 and the Conservatives 669,000 votes. The Liberal majority of only 5000 in Quebec, 3000 in the maritime provinces, and 20,000 in the prairie provinces was overcome by the Conservative majority of 63,000 in Ontario and 9000 in British Columbia. A fortnight later Sir Wilfrid Laurier tendered his resignation to the governor-general and Mr. Borden formed his Government." Thus the reciprocity movement was definitely closed.—O. D. Skelton. *Day of Sir Wilfrid Laurier*, p. 260-266, 268-269.

ALSO IN: *Annals of American academy of political and social science*, v. 45, Jan., 1913.—C. Sifton. *Reciprocity*.—A. Lamb, *Canadian commonwealth*, ch. 5.

1910-1919.—Shipping companies on Great Lakes.—Union with railroads.—Nationalization of railroads. See RAILROADS: 1899-1919.

1910-1920.—Relations with Jamaica. See JAMAICA: 1910-1920.

1911 (May-June).—Imperial conference at London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1911.

1911 (July).—International fur seal convention. See FISHERIES: 1911.

1911 (October).—Appointment of the duke of Connaught as governor general.—"In January official notice was received by the Government that H. R. H. Duke of Connaught would be appointed to succeed Lord Grey as Governor-General of Canada upon the expiration of His Excellency's term of office later in the year. On October 13th Duke and Duchess of Connaught were welcomed at Quebec where the new Governor-General was duly sworn in."—*Canadian Year Book*, 1911, p. xxiii.

1911-1913.—Customs agreement with Japan.—The existing customs tariff upon importations into Canada from Japan was continued for two years from July 17, 1911 (when the act came into force by order of the governor in council) "with a view to the negotiation within that period of a new commercial treaty between Canada and Japan, the Dominion Government having decided not to adhere to the new commercial treaty concluded between Great Britain and Japan. A condition precedent to the coming in force of the act was that Canadian imports into Japan should not be liable to duties or restrictions different from those imposed by Japan upon imports from other countries."—*Canadian Year Book*, 1911, p. 15.

"On April 10, 1913, the Japanese Treaty Act was assented to. Under this Act the treaty of April 3, 1911, between the United Kingdom and Japan was sanctioned and declared to have the force of law in Canada, subject to two provisos: (1) that the treaty or act should not repeal or affect any of the provisions of the Immigration Act and (2) that Article VIII of the treaty relating to the products of the United Kingdom and Japan respectively should be deemed not to apply to Canada."—*Ibid.*, 1913.

1912.—Foundation of Ontario College of Art. See EDUCATION: Art: Modern Period: Canada.

1912.—Extension of boundaries.—"By the Boundary Extension Acts passed by the Dominion Parliament in 1912 the provinces of Manitoba, Ontario and Quebec were enlarged by the addition of areas that were previously part of the Northwest Territories. The boundaries of Manitoba were thus extended northwards to the 60th parallel of

north latitude between the eastern boundary of Saskatchewan and the western shore of Hudson Bay; and from the point where the northern boundaries of Manitoba and Ontario formerly coincided the boundary of Manitoba was extended due north to a point defined and thence northeasterly to the point where the 89th meridian of west longitude intersects the southern shore of Hudson Bay. The northern boundaries of Ontario were extended to the southern shores of Hudson Bay, the new western boundary of Ontario coinciding with the new eastern boundary of Manitoba. To the province of Quebec were added the whole of the territory of Ungava and that part of Labrador which is within the Dominion of Canada. . . . By the revision of the boundaries Manitoba received about 178,000, Ontario 146,400 and Quebec 354,961 square miles of additional territory. Quebec, instead of British Columbia, is now the largest province of the Dominion, Ontario being second, and British Columbia third in point of size."—*Canadian Year Book*, 1912, p. 1.

1912-1916.—Bi-lingual school question in Ottawa.—"When the bi-lingual question became acute the French committee at Ottawa resented the provision in the Ontario law that all pupils must be taught English. As a matter of fact, in some of the schools of Ottawa, English, if taught at all, was taught in a manner so perfunctory that it had no value. The French committee disliked inspection by the government at Toronto. When, by an accident of circumstances, the inspector was a Protestant, they declared it to be insulting that a Protestant inspector should be sent to Roman Catholic schools. When, however, a Roman Catholic inspector was appointed, they refused to admit him to the schools, since he was certain to find that they were not complying with the law in respect to the teaching of English. On October 12, 1912, the pupils of the Garneau school walked out when an English-speaking inspector entered. When Instruction 17, requiring that English should be taught in all schools in Ontario, was issued in 1912, the Ottawa Board definitely refused to obey it and remained obstinate in this decision. It appointed its own inspector, proceeded to get rid of all lay teachers and to replace them by the less costly service of members of religious orders, some of whom, under the regulations in force in Ontario, were not qualified to teach in the schools. At the same time the Board proceeded with the plan for building new schools and for borrowing large sums of money for this purpose. The English-speaking element on the Board protested against these acts of defiance and, in the end, brought an action at law to restrain the Board dominated by their French-speaking colleagues. Before judgment was given a dramatic crisis was reached. On April 29, 1914, an injunction was issued forbidding, until the case was tried, the Ottawa Board to employ or pay teachers without legal qualifications or to pass by-laws for borrowing money, so long as the provincial regulations were not obeyed. The answer of the Ottawa Board was to turn out the whole staff of teachers and to close for a time every French-English school in Ottawa and leave seven or eight thousand boys and girls without any means of instruction. Thus, in obeying the letter of the injunction, the Board committed a new act of defiance. A preliminary judgment in the case was given on September 11, 1914, ordering the trustees to reopen the schools and to employ only legally qualified teachers. When the case was appealed, the Ontario Court of Appeal in July, 1915, confirmed the original judgment.

"The Ottawa Separate School Board based their

right to defy the authority of the Provincial Government on the ground that the rights of the separate schools in Ontario were guaranteed by an Imperial Act of Parliament, the British North America Act, that the rights of trustees included the authority to determine what language might be used in the schools, and that no merely provincial regulations had any authority to modify such rights. Believing itself strong in this legal argument the Board persistently refused to obey Instruction 17. At last, in 1915, the Legislature of Ontario passed a bill authorizing the Department of Education to hand over to a commission the powers of the Ottawa Separate School Board in conducting the schools. On August 4, 1915, three Commissioners were appointed. They assumed authority over the Ottawa schools and refused to accept any teachers not qualified to teach under the regulations of the Province of Ontario. The testing came in the case of the Misses Deloges, whom the Ottawa Board had appointed, but who had not the necessary legal qualifications. When the Commission required them to withdraw from the school where they had taught they did so but their pupils retired with them. There were some stormy scenes in Ottawa. Mobs composed largely of women refused to permit entry to the schools of the teachers named by the Commission. Racial passions were all aflame. Happily, however, there was no religious passion as the struggle was between persons of the same faith. . . . It was inevitable that appeal should be made to the highest court in the British Empire, the Privy Council, and the final decision was given on November 2, 1916. The result was looked for with keen expectancy. On the whole the Privy Council confirmed the action of the Government of Ontario. It declared, indeed, that the appointment of the special Commission to control the Ottawa Separate Schools was *ultra vires*. The law, it pointed out, gives to the electors who support the schools the power to name trustees to control them. To put a special commission in charge of the schools would unjustly deprive those who supported the schools of the right of control. On the general question, however, of the right of the government of Ontario to determine to what extent French, or any other language, might be taught or used in the schools the Privy Council was emphatic. The rights guaranteed by the British North America Act, which could not be altered by a provincial measure, were rights in respect to religious teaching, not in respect to race or language. This pronouncement of the Privy Council will be found finally to have settled the bi-lingual question in Ontario.

"It is of happy augury that both Pope Benedict XV and the Roman Catholic Bishops, French-speaking and English-speaking, in the dioceses affected have united to insist that the law governing questions of language in the schools must be respected, and at the same time to urge the opposing elements to show mutual consideration and forbearance. Another effort at conciliation brings the comforting reflection that special dangers arouse special efforts to counteract them. The strained relations between Quebec and Ontario led to a movement which has come to be known by the promising name of the *Bonne Entente*. In the autumn of 1916 a group of nearly a hundred men of affairs from Ontario visited important centres in Quebec and were received with marked cordiality. At banquets and public meetings messages of good-will passed from one side to the other. In January, 1917, the men of Quebec made a return visit to Ontario. At a banquet in Toronto,

the Lieutenant-Governor of Ontario, the prime ministers of the two provinces, the leader of the Liberal Party in Ontario, and many others in influential positions, dwelt upon the vital need of unity. Frank statement of the causes of strife and misunderstanding was not wanting, but the desire for coöperation dominated all the utterances. Business men find that peace is advantageous to trade, and even the politician has learned that to stir up racial strife is to use a two-edged sword which may injure him who carries it."—J. O. Miller, *New era in Canada*, pp. 251-254.

1913-1918.—Arctic expeditions of Stefansson and Anderson. See ARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1913-1918.

1913-1919.—Canadian Immigration Act.—Trend of immigration.—Immigration Amendment Act 1919.—"The Canadian Government immigration regulations require that immigrants arriving between the first day of March and the thirty-first day of October shall have in actual and personal possession at time of arrival, money belonging to themselves to the amount of at least \$25 (£5), in addition to ticket to destination in Canada. If arriving between the first of November and the last day of February the amount of landing money required is \$50. Asiatics (except Chinese and Japanese) are required to have \$200 at time of arrival. Chinese pay a head-tax of \$500, and Japanese immigration is restricted by an Agreement between the Governments of Japan and of Canada. Certain persons are exempt from the money regulation, the classes being as follows: (1) immigrants going to assured employment at farm work; (2) female immigrants going to employment as domestic servants; (3) immigrants, whether male or female, going to a relative as follows: (a) wife going to husband, (b) child going to parent, (c) brother or sister going to brother, (d) minor going to married or independent sister, (e) parent going to son or daughter, provided always that the relative in Canada is in a position to receive and care for the immigrant. The exemption from money regulation does not apply to immigrants belonging to any Asiatic race. The Canadian Immigration Act absolutely prohibits the landing in Canada of (i) idiots, imbeciles, feeble-minded persons, epileptics, insane persons, and persons who have been insane within five years previous, (ii) persons afflicted with any loathsome disease or with a disease which is contagious or infectious, or which may become dangerous to the public health; (iii) immigrants who are dumb, blind, or otherwise physically defective, unless they belong to a family accompanying which gives satisfactory security or are going to relatives in Canada which give security or unless they have sufficient money, occupation, trade or employment to guarantee that they will not become a public charge, (iv) persons coming into Canada for any immoral purpose, and prostitutes and persons living on the avails of prostitution, (v) professional beggars, vagrants or persons likely to become a public charge. The Canadian Immigration Act provides for the deportation of undesirable immigrants within three years from the date of their landing in Canada. A bonus of £1 on persons 18 years of age and over, and 10s. on persons between 1 and 18 years of age, is paid to selected steamship booking agents in Great Britain and Ireland, and in France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Finland, on agriculturists and domestic servants, induced by them to come to Canada to engage in farm work or domestic service."—M. Keith, *Anglo-Canadian Year Book*, 1915-1916, p. 106.—The following review of Canadian immigration appeared

as an editorial in the *Montreal Gazette* of August 27, 1913: "The total immigration into Canada in the fiscal year which ended with March 31 last, according to a recent publication of the Department of the Interior, numbered 402,432 persons. These figures were fully 48,000 greater than those of 1911-12; and those of 1911-12 exceeded the record of 1910-11 by some 43,000. There is no question now about the stream of home and work seekers having been turned toward this country. The story is one full of interest. It took many years and much work on varied lines to convince the people of countries where the land is too narrow for those who have to live on it that in the new regions which in 1870 were added to the Canadian Federation, there were opportunities for the home maker not surpassed anywhere in the world. People came in the earlier years but only in comparatively small numbers. In 1900-1901 almost 50,000 arrivals from abroad were recorded, and the fact was counted one of great promise. In 1902-3 the arrivals numbered 128,000. From that year onward there was fairly steady progress, till last year the result above noted was achieved. The efforts of the department are specially directed to the United Kingdom, the United States, the Scandinavian countries, France, Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and Germany. In the past advertising campaigns were conducted in Finland, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, but for sufficient reasons it was lately dropped. The Finns and Russians and the Galicians and other peoples from the Austrian Empire who figure in the returns of the past year came as the result of earlier propaganda, or are induced to move by that most effective of immigration literature, the reports of relatives, friends, and acquaintances who started earlier and found they had gone to a land of promise where promise turned to fulfillment. Naturally the chief source of immigration to Canada is Great Britain, which as a whole is able to send away a constant stream of its active and enterprising peoples and still grow stronger at home. The division of peoples entering Canada last year by main source of origin was as follows: British, 150,542; United States, 130,009; other countries, 112,881; total, 402,432. It has been said in some parts of Great Britain that the emigration of the people, and largely to Canada, is becoming of serious consequence. The figures of the returns have a direct bearing upon this. They indicate that from 1900 to the close of 1912-13 British immigrants arrived in Canada in the following numbers: From England and Wales, 712,064; from Scotland, 202,632; from Ireland, 59,034; total, 973,730.

"The figures as regards Scotland are the most remarkable. By the census of 1911 Scotland had a population of 4,759,000, and England and Wales one of 36,075,000. From England and Wales last year there came to Canada 108,082 people and from Scotland 30,735. The ratio of population moving from Scotland is vastly greater than that from England, and suggests that there is a real ground for the complaint from the northern kingdom that its industries are beginning to suffer from lack of workers. It is indicative of the intention of the newcomers to stay that 10 per cent, or almost one-fifth, of the English and Welsh arrivals became homesteaders in the western provinces, with 20 per cent of the Irish and 16 per cent of the Scotch. When those who are not heads of families are excluded from the total of the immigrants the meaning of these figures will be better understood. They are excelled, however, in the case of immigrants from the continent of Europe, 29 per cent of whom become homesteaders, and in the case of those from the United States, 33 per cent of whom made

entry. Next to the countries named above the chief contributors to Canada's population since 1900 have been: Austria-Hungary, 164,527; Italy, 88,000; Russia, 67,378; Jewish lands, 61,384; Germany, 30,762; Poland, 24,396; Finland, 17,535; China, 25,016; Sweden, 24,220; Norway, 17,332; Newfoundland, 17,130; Japan, 14,617; Bulgaria, 12,395; Belgium, 12,010. Smaller numbers came from other countries, European, Asiatic, African, and American. Some came to stay, some only to work for a while and then return to their native lands. In this latter regard, however, Canada is only repeating the experience of that other great land of hope for emigrating peoples, the United States. The number of immigrants in a given number of years does not indicate the increase in population in the stated time from immigration. The number who come may exceed the number who stay by 25 or 30 per cent and in the case of countries from which many unskilled laborers come the figure may reach 50 per cent or over. What is noted, however, shows that as the result of long-continued, intelligent, and persistent work by officers of the department concerned Canada now gets a full share of the best emigrating peoples of the northern countries of the world."

Acts passed in 1919 to amend the Immigration Act "provide for the exclusion from Canada of persons not being born or naturalized in Canada who believe in or advocate the overthrow, by force, of constituted authority, or who disbelieve in or are opposed to organized government, who advocate the destruction of public officials or who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property, or who are members of or affiliated to societies advocating any of such things. Enemy aliens, persons guilty of espionage, persons guilty of high treason are also excluded. Furthermore, persons over fifteen years of age unable to read in some language or dialect designated by such persons are excluded, except in cases where such exclusion would break up family ties by excluding the relatives of persons already resident in Canada."

—*Canadian Year Book*, 1919, p. 647.

1914.—Summary of concessions obtained by the Dominion since 1867.—"The fullness of the concessions to the old British North American provinces was made obvious by half a century's experience of the working of the British North America act. From 1867 to the outbreak of the war in 1914, the imperial government was even more ready to make concessions than it had been from 1840 to Confederation. The growth and development of Canada created new needs, needs which had not existed when there were not more than two or three million people in all the British North American provinces. But in these forty-seven years—1867 to 1914—the Dominion had sought, had had bestowed on her, or had asserted, only six rights or powers which had not been enjoyed by the United Provinces and the Maritime Provinces between 1859 and 1867. The rights thus obtained by the Dominion between 1867 and 1914 were (1) the right to make her own tidewater coastwise navigation laws—a right first exercised in 1870; (2) the right of the Dominion cabinet to veto a nomination to the office of governor-general—a right that has existed at least since 1882; (3) the right of the Dominion to direct representation on the judicial committee of the privy council at Whitehall—a right first exercised in 1897, when Sir Henry Strong, then chief justice of Canada, took his seat on the judicial committee; (4) the right of the Dominion to decide whether it will be a party to treaties made by Great Britain, a right enjoyed since 1872; (5) the right of the



CANADA

1. View of Quebec, looking down on Dufferin Terrace from the citadel.
2. Moose Jaw, Saskatchewan.
3. A wheatfield in western Canada.



Dominion to make her own immigration laws, and to exclude paupers and other undesirables from the United Kingdom or elsewhere in the British Empire—a right first asserted and exercised in 1904; and (6) the right of the Dominion to appoint her own plenipotentiaries for the negotiation of commercial treaties and conventions—a right partially conceded as early as 1870, and fully conceded by the imperial government in 1907.”—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, p. 215.

1914.—Representation Act.—As a result of the census of 1911 which necessitated a redistribution of seats an act was passed styled the “Representation Act, 1914.” This provided that “the House of Commons . . . shall consist of 234 members of whom 3 shall be elected from Prince Edward Island, 16 from Nova Scotia, 11 from New Brunswick, 65 from Quebec, 82 from Ontario, 15 from Manitoba, 16 from Saskatchewan, 12 from Alberta, 13 from British Columbia and one from Yukon Territory.”—*Canadian Year Book*, 1914, pp. 5-6.

1914.—Railway lines completed to west.—Percentage controlled by government. See RAILROADS: 1853-1919; 1917-1919.

1914 (July).—Eve of the World War.—“The week preceding the declaration of war was one of subdued and tense emotion. It gave the Canadian people the necessary breathing-spell in which to take national stock and decide what course Canada would pursue should the worst come. Throughout those days of anxious waiting the country remained stoically calm, no jingoes clamoring for war, no public demonstrations such as preceded the outbreak of hostilities in Italy. The idol of the hour was Sir Edward Grey, who made such strenuous efforts to avert the calamity. And even after Germany had declared war against Russia and France, Canadians persisted in the hope that Great Britain might not be dragged into the struggle. In the meantime, however, the Government took preparatory steps; and public opinion became united in support of Great Britain in anticipation of war. As Parliament was not in session at the time, the outlining of the Dominion’s policy fell to the Premier and his Cabinet in consultation with the Governor-General. On Aug. 2, 1914, the following message was sent to Great Britain: ‘If unhappily war should ensue, the Canadian people will be united in a common resolve to put forth every effort and to make every sacrifice necessary to ensure the integrity and maintain the honor of our Empire.’ Although this message was sent by the Premier and his Cabinet in consultation with the leader of the Opposition, without the sanction of Parliament, it voiced Canadian sentiment as truly as if it had been the outcome of a national election. A ‘political truce’ was declared, ‘there is but one mind.’ All the problems discussed at the conferences on imperial federation and in the debates on imperial defense were laid aside. No demand was made that Canada should be given ‘representation,’ a voice in declaring war and making peace, before she could participate. By mutual consent of all parties Canadians felt the only honorable thing to do was to give their hearty support. Thousands of Canadians, however, who are making great sacrifices for this war, are not necessarily committing themselves to support every war in which the Empire may become involved. When the war is over there will be imperial problems to settle which no Britisher is discussing today. When the crisis came Canada forgot that there were any problems. One thing was needful and that at once—men at the front. That was the one problem which the Canadian

Government grappled at the time and which has received the undivided attention of Canadians ever since. In the face of an Empire-crisis such as exists today any other policy would be mad. When the Empire is in safety there will be ample time to make the adjustments which may be found necessary. What they will be, Canadians are not now discussing; and whatever may be Canada’s attitude toward Empire wars in the future, for the present at least the Canadian standpoint is that which the ‘Toronto Globe,’ on the day before war was declared, expressed in no uncertain terms: ‘When Britain is at war Canada is at war.’—*Living Age*, 1916, pp. 388-389.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: VIII. Canada.

1914 (September-October).—First contingent sails.—“The great fleet of liners, one by one, left the harbour for the voyage across the broad Atlantic. Troops commenced to flow from Valcartier on September 22nd; by October 1st the last of the transports had sailed from Quebec, proceeding to Gaspé Bay, to be formed into lines. In all they numbered thirty-two steamers, with several warships acting as escorts, and it is said that, with a space of about one and a half miles between them, they covered an area of fifteen square miles. The fleet, which sailed under sealed orders, could advance but slowly—as fast only as the slowest among them, for it included not only some of the most modern and ‘crack’ liners in the British-Canadian passenger service, but also several older cargo vessels of low speed. In England the public were under the impression that the disembarkation would take place at Southampton, and among the troops it was not known that they were making for Plymouth until only a few hours before their arrival. As in the case of the transporting of the Indian contingent, so again was the coming of the Canadians another triumph of organisation, another memorable feat safely achieved, notwithstanding all the activities of a relentless enemy. But this modern Armada steamed into Plymouth a fleet intact, and the Canadian contingent landed in England on October 14th. Not a single life had been lost, not an accident had occurred; in fact, the voyage was accomplished without anything in the nature of excitement.”—W. Haydon, *Canada and the war*, pp. 75-77.

1914 (October).—Defense conference at Ottawa.—“In October an important conference took place at Ottawa to consider, among other matters, the defence of Canada against any possible raid or attack, and with regard to the organising, training, equipment, and dispatch of further expeditionary forces. It was then pointed out that two considerations must be taken into account: first, the provision of rifles, guns, ammunition and other equipment; and second, the ability of the British Government to receive further expeditionary forces, and give them the necessary final training, having regard to the enormous number of troops then being organised and trained in the British Isles. The conclusion arrived at provided for the maintenance under arms of about 8,000 men of the Canadian Militia, to be employed in garrison and outpost duty. According to the military advisers of the Government this force could be rapidly increased at a few hours’ notice, and it was considered that every reasonable safeguard had been made for Canada’s defence of her own territory. It also provided that whenever any force was dispatched to the British Isles, further enlistment should take place, so that 30,000 men would be continuously under training in Canada, in addition to the 8,000 already referred to.”—W. Haydon, *Canada and the war*, pp. 48-49.

1914-1918.—Canadian military and naval activities.—“It is the proud boast of the Canadians that they were in the war from the very first. Canada raised and equipped at her own expense an army of 595,441 men, whose bravery is attested by the words of many witnesses and by the mute testimony of the white crosses standing ‘row on row’ in Flanders fields. Of the total number enrolled, nearly 80 per cent., or 465,984 men, were obtained by voluntary enlistment. The first division of Canada’s expeditionary forces landed on the other side of the Atlantic in the late Summer and early Autumn of 1914 and after three months additional training in England arrived in France on February 11, 1915. The total number of men that served overseas was 418,052. The casualties amounted to 218,433. One cannot use round numbers when speaking of casualties. Of the total, 35,684 were killed in action, 12,437 died of wounds and 155,839 were wounded, the remainder having died of disease, died in Canada, or been posted as missing. The more notable engagements in which the Canadian troops fought were, in 1915, in the second battle of Ypres on April 22. [See *WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: c, 13*], and again in Festubert and Givenchy in May and June. In 1916 the Canadians were heavily engaged at St. Eloi and at Sanctuary Wood and Hooze. In September, October and November the four Canadian divisions fought in the Battle of the Somme [see *WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: d, 20*] and Courcellette, Moquet Farm and the Kenora, Regina and Desire trenches. In 1917 the Canadian troops bore the largest part in taking Vimy Ridge [see *WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: c, 4, 5 and 18*] and Arleux and Fresnoy, on April 28 and May 3, and fought with great success in the advance on Lens and the taking of Hill 70 in August. In 1918 the Canadian corps was in the center of the western front in the second battle of Amiens, August 8 to 17, advancing fourteen thousand yards on the first day, the deepest advance made in one day during the war. In the battle of Cambrai, which lasted from September 27 to October 9, the Canadians after heavy losses took Cambrai, making large captures of men and material.

“While the military achievements of the sons of Canada were notable, the services rendered by Canada’s little navy were also an important factor in bringing the war to a successful conclusion. At the beginning of the war the naval organization of the dominion consisted of one seagoing cruiser on the Pacific coast and one on the Atlantic. The staff of experienced naval officers was small. It immediately became necessary to develop from this insignificant organization a staff capable of superintending the transportation overseas of troops and supplies, and to provide a coast patrol service to protect commerce from the marauding German vessels and submarines, and also to maintain in cooperation with the British Admiralty an efficient naval intelligence department. The organization to accomplish this work, with one or two exceptions, was effected by the efforts of the original staff supplemented by the assistance of a few retired naval officers and many recruits from mercantile life and from among Royal Naval Reserve officers available in Canada. The best tribute to the efficiency of the organization so formed is the fact that many hundreds of thousands of men and great quantities of supplies were transported overseas without the loss of one life through marine accident.”—H. E. Fisk, *Dominion of Canada*, pp. 5-7.—See also *BRITISH EMPIRE: World War: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1915: II. Western front: c, 3, 11, 13; 1917: II. Western front: d, 24; 1918:*

Western front: I, 1; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI. Military and naval equipment: d; XIV. Cost of war: b, 3; b, 8, i; also *EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: World War and education: Re-education.*

1914-1918.—War time prohibition.—“Amongst the many-sided problems of the war, Prohibition of the liquor traffic was one of the most complex and curious. It was claimed to be a great moral issue, it was said to be essential as a physical factor in the improvement of the race, it was supported strenuously as an economic element in the enforcement of public economy and the consequent increase in private and national resources available for war work. All the provinces adopted it in some form or another during 1914-18, and it proved, in fact, to be one of the most extraordinary popular movements on record. In every province of Canada except British Columbia and Ontario the legislation was permanent in character and could hardly be called war measures, though no doubt influenced and aided by war conditions. In Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Prince Edward Island it was adopted by a vote of the electors without any qualification as to the future. In Nova Scotia, New Brunswick and Quebec it was made law by legislative action. In each of these provinces, however, the greater portion of the territory was ‘dry’ by Local Option before the provincial law had been passed. In Ontario a plebiscite was to be taken on the issue when the soldiers had returned. Whether economic, or moral, or an indirect result, as in the United States, of war psychology, there was no doubt of the powerful effect of this wave of sentiment which swept away an institution of centuries, an industry of a hundred millions of dollars, a habit engrained in private life and character, an individual right or liberty which was almost fundamental in its nature. During 1917-18, also, the Dominion Government issued a series of regulations controlling the liquor traffic wherever existing—in order to prevent waste, promote thrift, conserve financial resources and increase natural efficiency. Provincial Prohibition laws were strengthened by the prohibition of import into the Dominion, and in March, 1918, by the prohibition of manufacture and of traffic in liquor between the provinces.”—J. C. Hopkins, *Canada at war: 1914-1918*, pp. 237-238.—In 1920, the war time prohibition was repealed.

1915-1918.—War emergency financial measures.—“To meet these enormous demands special taxation was of course necessary, and Sir Thomas White was not afraid to tax everything except the more essential supplies. Higher customs duties were imposed in 1915 through an *ad valorem* increase of 7½ per cent. to the general tariff and 5 per cent. to the British preferential tariff on all commodities except certain food-stuffs, coal, harvesting machinery, etc.; in 1918 a special duty was put on tea and coffee. Excise duties on liquors and tobacco were greatly increased; war taxes were imposed on transportation tickets, telegrams, money orders, cheques, letters, patent medicines, etc. Under the Business Profits tax the Government, in the case of all business concerns having a capital of \$50,000 and over, took 25 per cent. of the net profits over 7 per cent. and not exceeding 15 per cent., and 50 per cent. of the profits over 15 per cent. and not exceeding 20 per cent. In the case of a business having a capital of \$25,000 or under \$50,000 the Government took 25 per cent. of all profits in excess of 10 per cent. on the capital employed. Companies employing capital of less than \$25,000 were exempted, with the exception of

those dealing in munitions or war supplies. An Income tax was inaugurated for the first time in Canadian history and came into effect in 1918 with a scale which provided for \$1,000 exemption of income in the case of unmarried persons, \$2,000 in the case of married people with \$200 exemption for each child. An issue of \$50,000,000 of War Savings Stamps was announced in 1918 with a view to increasing Government revenue and encouraging individual thrift. . . . Prior to the War the total wealth of the whole Dominion in lands, buildings, live-stock, fisheries, manufactures, railways, canals, shipping, telegraphs, telephones, real estate, coin and bullion, merchandise in store, and current production, was put at \$11,000,000,000. In 1918 the Dominion Census Bureau officially estimated the total at \$19,002,788,125. To this great increase in wealth was due, no doubt, the facility with which money in this one-time borrowing community was obtained from the people for War purposes through National loans—totalling a Government call in the five Loans issued of \$950,000,000 and a general subscription of \$137,729,500 to the first Loan in 1915, \$201,444,800 to the second in 1916, \$260,768,000 to the third in 1917, \$419,280,000 to the fourth in 1917, and \$695,380,277 to the fifth in 1918, or a total of \$1,690,000,000.”—J. C. Hopkins, *Canada at war, 1914-1918*, pp. 213-214.

1916.—Act amending British North America Act.—“In 1916, at the instance of the Dominion parliament, the section of the British North America Act that determines the number of senators, and their distribution among the provinces, was amended by parliament at Westminster; and the senate has since consisted of ninety-six members. There are now four geographical divisions:

Ontario	24
Quebec	24
Maritime Provinces	24
Nova Scotia	10
New Brunswick	10
Prince Edward Island	4
Canada beyond the Great Lakes.....	24
Manitoba	6
Saskatchewan	6
Alberta	6
British Columbia	6

—E. Porritt, *Evolution of the Dominion of Canada*, p. 272.

1916.—Government control of telephone systems in Alberta, Saskatchewan and Manitoba. See TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES: 1916.

1916.—Migratory Bird Treaty with United States. See TREATIES, MAKING AND TERMINATION OF: Treaty making power.

1916.—Price control during World War. See PRICE CONTROL: 1914-1916: Summary of various methods of price control during World War.

1916 (November).—The governor general.—The duke of Devonshire was sworn in as governor general and commander in chief of Canada, November, 1916. The duke of Connaught whom he succeeded had completed five years' service because of the extraordinary situation created by the war.

1917.—Imperial war conference at London. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1917: Imperial War conference.

1917.—Compulsory service bill.—“For many months the Prime Minister [Sir Robert Laird Borden] saw that conscription probably would become inevitable and that only a Coalition or National Government could make the draft system effective. . . . When he got back from London

he knew that the hour for the decision had come . . . He had learned the desperate need for reinforcements for the Canadian army. . . . Hence a few days after he reached Ottawa he induced the Cabinet to agree upon a measure of compulsion and in a comprehensive and luminous statement of the deliberations and recommendations of the War Conference and conditions at the front he announced the momentous decision.” This announcement called forth a storm of protest as well as some expressions of relief. In Quebec, the stronghold of opposition, rioting occurred, but of no serious nature. The subject was hotly debated in Parliament. But “the second reading of the Compulsory Service Bill was carried by the House of Commons by 118 to 55. Sir Wilfrid Laurier's motion in favor of a referendum was lost by 111 to 62. The Majorities for the Government on both divisions were even greater than was expected.”—*Round Table, June-September, 1917*, pp. 776-779.

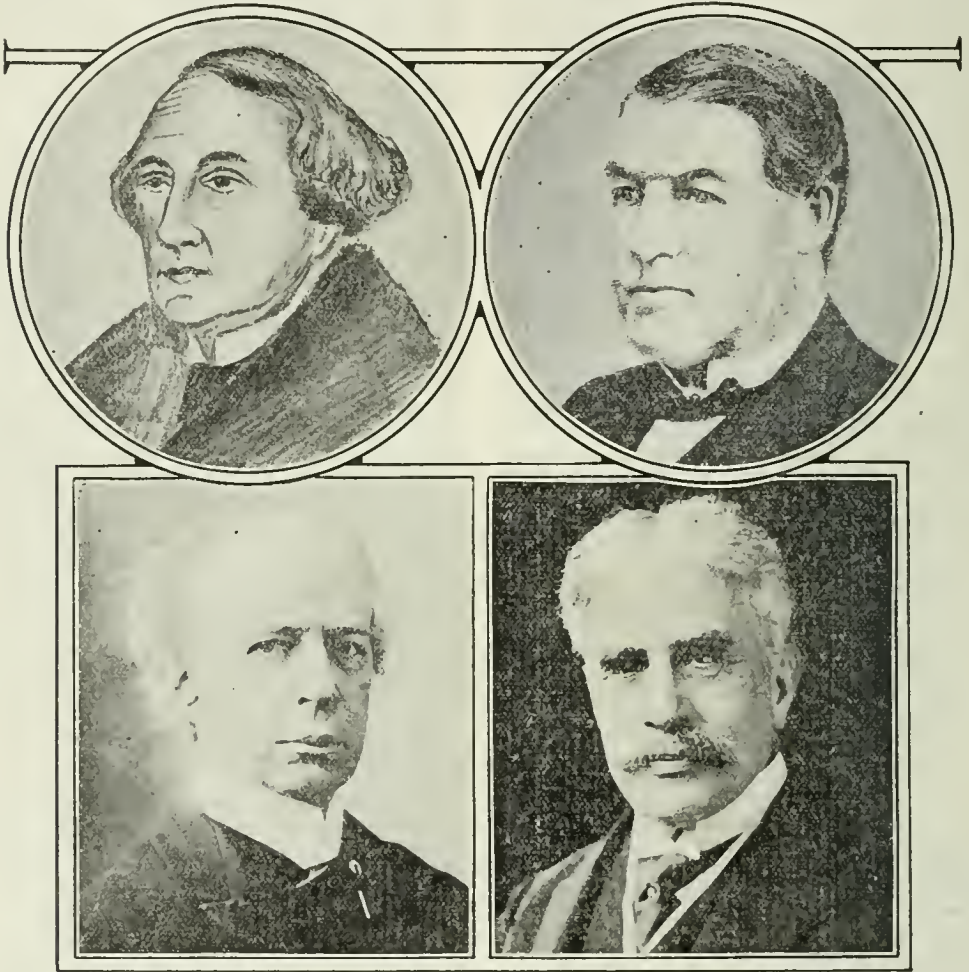
1917.—Coalition government formed under Sir Robert Borden.—“Just when the prospects of a Union Government seemed hopeless, the negotiations between Sir Robert Borden and the Western Liberal leaders were quietly resumed. Indeed, there is reason to think that the negotiations were never wholly abandoned. It was difficult to make headway under the immediate shadow of the Western Liberal Convention. In early August this great gathering of Western Liberals assembled at Winnipeg. It was expected that the leadership of Sir Wilfrid Laurier would be repudiated and resolutions in favour of conscription and union government adopted. Instead, the position of the veteran Liberal leader was endorsed, and a war resolution accepted which carefully evaded any declaration for or against the draft. An amendment to the resolution, declaring that, if necessary, reinforcements for the army should be secured by compulsion, was rejected by an overwhelming majority. Devotion to Sir Wilfrid Laurier and confidence in his wisdom and patriotism were expressed by the chief spokesmen for the Convention, while the Borden Administration was described as incapable and corrupt, the agent of corporate interests and the ally and champion of Eastern protectionists.

“Following the Convention the Western Liberal leaders announced that they could not enter a coalition under Sir Robert Borden, but that they were in favour of a national as distinguished from a party Government, and would take office under Sir George Foster, Sir William Mulock, Sir Adam Beck or Hon. Lyman P. Duff. Sir William Mulock, now Chief Justice of Ontario, was a member of the Laurier Government; Mr. Duff was active in the Liberal party of British Columbia before he was appointed to the Supreme Court of Canada, where he has achieved a position of exceptional distinction and authority. Sir George Foster and Sir Adam Beck are Conservatives of reputation and standing in Canadian affairs. It has to be said, however, that none of these four names excited the imagination of the country or by contrast gave force to the demand for the Prime Minister's removal. This is a tribute to the Conservative leader rather than a reflection upon the nominees of the Western Liberal group. Sir Robert, however, called a caucus of the Conservative parliamentary party and offered to resign in favour of Sir George Foster. Foster himself firmly opposed the resignation, as did all his associates in caucus. Indeed, the occasion will be memorable in Canadian parliamentary history. Not only was there complete unanimity in the declaration of allegiance to the Prime Minister, but there were striking manifestations of affection and confidence

It was made clear that, if the Liberals would not enter a Union Government under Sir Robert Borden, there could be no union. The Prime Minister was authorised by caucus to continue the negotiations in complete assurance that he would have their undivided support as leader of a national Government or a Conservative Government, but with equal assurance that, as he had borne the heavy burden of war from the beginning and had sought with great patience and persistence to effect a coalition with the Liberal party, Conserva-

to party registered at the Winnipeg Convention. For this reason they hesitated, took counsel with their followers, and smoothed the way to decision. Finally, national overcame personal, party, and provincial considerations, and coalition was effected."—*Round Table*, no. 29, Dec., 1917, pp. 166-168.

1917.—Policy of the union government.—"The country looked to the new Government for leadership, and the initial period was therefore critical because of the very breadth of the charter which



FOUR GREAT CANADIAN STATESMEN

Sir John Alexander MacDonal
Sir Wilfrid Laurier

Sir Charles Tupper
Sir Robert Laird Borden

tives would have no other leader nor support coalition under any other leader. It is understood that most of the Western Liberal leaders did not differ greatly from the Conservative caucus. They believed that Sir Robert Borden was the necessary and inevitable head of any national Government. Only a fringe of Liberal support for such a Government could be obtained, and therefore, if a majority of the constituencies were to be carried, the Conservative party must not be divided. The Western leaders, however, doubted if they could hold their followers against Sir Wilfrid Laurier, particularly in consideration of the fresh pledges

the Government received. The approbation won in the election by the principle of Union was, of course, overwhelming; but the implied mandate was embarrassing in its very insistence. The Government was returned with definite instructions to govern. Its friends and its enemies, from different motives, set before it a utopian ideal. On October 18 the Prime Minister had given his new Cabinet an extensive programme. He pledged them to further taxation of war profits and private incomes, the reduction of Government expenditure, the grant of the franchise to women, the improvement of means of transportation, better provision

for the care of returned soldiers, reform of the civil service, the abolition of political patronage, and, above all, the vigorous prosecution of the war. The broadest interpretation was placed by the country on this statement of Unionist policy, and the programme, it may be said, was accepted by the electorate as the very minimum of what might be expected."—*Round Table*, no. 31, June, 1918, pp. 611-612.

1917 (June).—Winnipeg strike.—"The first ominous symptom of a revolutionary temper in Labour appeared in Western Canada. In March a Convention of Western Unionists was held at Calgary which resolved to separate from the American Federation of Labour, to undertake the organisation of One Big Union and practically to supersede the Dominion Trades and Labour Congress. The Convention expressed sympathy with Russian Bolsheviks and German Spartacists, denounced deportation of aliens, demanded cancellation of all sentences imposed upon defaulters and repeal of all Orders-in-Council affecting freedom of Press or platform, and appointed an Executive Committee of Five to extend the organisation throughout Canada. Two of these were concerned in the one-day strike at Vancouver a year ago in honour of a defaulter under the Military Service Act who was shot while resisting arrest, the third is an active organiser among Western miners and an advocate of the release of interned Germans, the fourth frankly challenges the existing industrial and political system, while the fifth, at Winnipeg in 1917, urged a general strike of workers against conscription and national registration. These, designated as the 'Red Five,' have long been active in the councils of Western Labour, and with other agitators of like character have moulded a great body of the workers into the temper of revolt. With the single exception of the Typographical Union, all sections of organised Labour in the four Western Provinces voted in favour of identification with the One Big Union, and many of the Western leaders of Labour refused to appear before the Royal Industrial Commission which has just submitted its report to Parliament, on the ground that since their object was to seize the tools of industry, they were not concerned in any movement to improve relations between employers and workers or to maintain industrial relations between employers and workers or to maintain industrial stability under the existing system.

"The conflict at Winnipeg began in demands by the employees of three iron foundries for shorter hours and higher wages. Simultaneously the building trades demanded very substantial increases in wages and changes in conditions of service. The maximum demand of the builders was for \$1.00 per hour, but the employers contended that to give the wages required would render building prohibitive and increase unemployment. They submitted a counter schedule with a maximum of 90 cents an hour and other proportionate advances over the old scale of remuneration. The strike, however, occurred over the demand of the unions for recognition of collective bargaining rather than in any dispute over wages. The iron manufacturers agreed to negotiate with their workmen, but would not bargain through the Metal Trades Council, which is a combination of unions and was regarded by the employers as an extraneous body with which they had no natural or necessary relation. In support of the position of the Metal Trades Council a general strike was ordered. It is stated, although the evidence is not conclusive, that only 8,000 ballots were cast in favour of the general strike, although 35,000 ceased work at the call of the

Strike Committee. In all, the members of 95 unions went out. Not only were the industries of Winnipeg vitally affected, but the firemen, the staff of the waterworks, the police, the telephone and telegraph operators and the postal employees joined the revolt. Milk and bread deliveries were suspended. Waiters in hotels and restaurants responded to the call of the strike leaders. Moving-picture theatres were closed and the street railway service abandoned. Even the newspapers were not allowed to publish, and for five or six days no issue of any of the three Winnipeg dailies appeared. . . . The trouble spread to Brandon, Saskatoon, Moose Jaw, Regina, Calgary, Edmonton, Prince Albert, Vancouver and Victoria. In none of these places, however, was the strike of such long duration as in Winnipeg, and nowhere, except perhaps in Vancouver, was Labour so generally involved. . . .

"In the third week of June the situation, which had been steadily growing more acute, culminated in a riot in which three lives were lost, and 25 or 30 persons injured. Owing to the danger of conflict between strikers and citizens, all parades and processions were forbidden by proclamation. Despite this, however, strikers and sympathisers among the soldiers determined to hold 'a silent massed parade.' Mounted police who undertook to maintain authority and order were attacked and forced to fire upon the mobs in the streets. According to the official statement in Parliament, 'the first shots were fired by the strikers, and the mounted police fired in self protection.' Convinced by this incident that decisive action was imperative, the federal authorities had the strike leaders arrested and lodged in Stony Mountain Penitentiary. They also seized the books and literature at the Labour Temple at Winnipeg and at the strike headquarters in all other Western centres. . . . With the leaders removed the strike collapsed. Possibly the end was near in any event. Certainly the Citizens' Committee was confident of complete victory without federal intervention. But there was perhaps danger that rioting would be renewed, and possibly the Government acted upon evidence which has not been disclosed."—*Round Table*, no. 36, Sept., 1919, pp. 785-786, 789, 781.

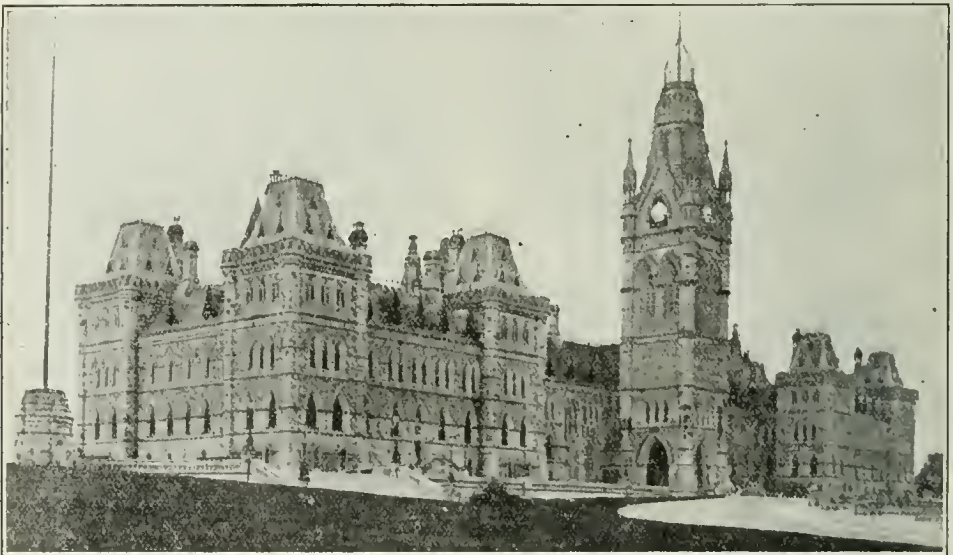
1918.—Canadian war mission at Washington.—"An important piece of new machinery has developed out of war conditions—the Canadian War Mission at Washington. In time of peace we have felt the need of a Canadian representative at the American capital. Technically the British Embassy is there to serve Canadian as well as British interests, but in practice its personnel is necessarily out of touch with affairs in the Dominion. For Canada to use this avenue of approach to the United States Government often causes delay, and this, of course, in time of war is a serious matter. The Canadian War Mission has been erected primarily to deal with questions of war trade, many of them in the form of triangular problems affecting Canada, the United States and our European allies. It was established with the full consent of the British government. Inasmuch as the appointment of an accredited representative of the Dominion at a foreign capital, however, is beyond our powers as a State within the Empire, the instrument giving the mission its authority is careful to save the situation by empowering the Chairman 'to represent the Cabinet and the heads of the various Departments' at Ottawa and to conduct negotiations 'with the heads of the Departments or other administrative branches, committees or commissions or other officials of the Government of the United States.' The Chairman,

therefore, is not officially regarded as representing his own *Government*, nor, technically, is he permitted to treat with the *Government* of a foreign State."—*Round Table*, no. 31, June, 1918, pp. 606, 616-617.

1918.—**General elections.**—The General Election resulted in a decisive majority for the Union Government. The first results gave Sir Wilfrid Laurier ninety seats; but it was estimated that the soldier vote would give the government a majority of fifty-five or sixty, and it was looked upon as doubtful that the Western Provinces would return more than one liberal member. Ontario returned seventy-five members for the Administration. In New Brunswick seven out of eleven and in Nova Scotia six out of sixteen constituencies elected Unionists. On the other hand Prince Edward Island returned four Liberals, and in Quebec only three Unionists were elected. The soldier vote altered these figures even more than was at first

yet general grant of voting rights to women. Most of the provinces fell into line, including Alberta, Saskatchewan, Manitoba and Ontario; the Dominion gave the vote to soldiers' wives and near relations, and finally, in 1918, a full and equal franchise to all women; Quebec remained firm in its opposition."—J. C. Hopkins, *Canada at war*, 1914-1918, p. 238.

1918.—**Survey of organized labor.**—**Organized labor and the war.**—"The growth of Unionism in Canada had been steady and the membership of organized Labour increased from 133,132 in 1911 to 166,163 in 1914 and then, owing to war conditions and partly to recruiting, fell to 143,343 in 1915—rising again to 160,407 in 1916. In this latter year there were 1,842 local Trades Union branches and, up to its close, 22,102 enlistments of members. The proportion of organized to unorganized Labour appears in the fact shown in the 1910 Census that there were 987,302 male workers in the building



THE NEW PARLIAMENT HOUSES AT OTTAWA
After the destruction of the original buildings by fire in February, 1916

expected. "In the early months of the year election returns coming in from the 1917 Soldiers' vote abroad continued to change the membership of the House and to increase the Government majority; in Halifax Hon. A. K. MacLean and Mayor P. F. Martin were returned by acclamation. Final local returns had elected Hon. Frank Oliver in Edmonton but the soldiers' vote later on defeated him by 2,700 and elected Brig.-Gen. W. A. Griesbach; the same vote defeated G. W. Kyte, L. H. Martell, H. J. Logan and other Liberals in Nova Scotia and elected Hon. E. N. Rhodes (Cons.) in Cumberland; changes were made in other constituencies including two in P. E. Island and one in South Perth and in Nipissing, Ontario; in many cases majorities were greatly altered with 88 per cent. of the military and naval vote, overseas, finally shown as in favour of the Union Government which faced Parliament with a majority of 69."—*Canadian Annual Review of Public Affairs*, 1918, pp. 560, 561.

1918.—**Woman suffrage.**—"Another development of a different nature but of essentially wartime character was the sudden and uncalled-for

trades, domestic service, manufacturing establishments, mining, and transportation interests of Canada; there were many more mixed and merged in other occupations and the membership of Labour Unions was about one in eight of the total male workers of the country. So, in the United States, where in 1910 the Census showed 27,194,914 engaged in manual labour, with 7.7 per cent members of labour organizations. Upon the whole, organized labour stood by the country and its Government in this period; it aided in the Compulsory Registration of 1918, and, though opposed to Conscription through its chief officials, fell in, finally, with the popular decision both as workmen and as Canadians; it held disputes and strikes to a minimum which in three years of war included only 162, with 38,075 men involved, as compared with 361 and 110,000 men in the preceding three years—though in the fourth year (1917) there was an increase to 148 disputes and 48,320 men; it sent altogether about 30,000 men to the front in voluntary enlistment, though unorganized labour showed a total estimated at 130,000 in 1917, and totalling for both elements 200,000 before the end

of the war. As an organization, and led by the men already mentioned, the Trades and Labour Congress opposed military or industrial conscription, or war regulation of labour, denounced the War-time Election Act or alien disfranchisement, favoured the formation of an independent Labour party of the British pacifist type, demanded pensions for mothers and old age, urged the 'conscription of wealth.' Eventually organized Labour took part in a Conference with the Government in January, 1918, and discussed the organization of manpower for the prosecution of the war, national registration, the conscription of alien labour and the representation of labour on Government Commissions. It may be added that such strikes as did occur in these years were largely in mines such as those of Alberta District No. 17 of the United Mine Workers of America, the British Columbia mines and those of Northern Ontario, where I. W. W. and alien workmen caused most of the trouble."—J. C. Hopkins, *Canada at war, 1914-1918*, pp. 234-235.—See also ARBITRATION and CONCILIATION, INDUSTRIAL: Canada: 1900-1918; LABOR PARTIES: 1868-1919.

1918.—Imperial War Conference at London.—Decisions on questions of industry and raw materials. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1918; Imperial War Conference.

1919.—Trades and labor congress.—"Immediately following upon the National Industrial Conference at Ottawa, the thirty-fifth annual convention of the Trades and Labor was held at Hamilton, Ontario September 22-27. The executive council . . . made a number of recommendations to the congress, most significant of these being the condemnation of the political strike as essentially 'a strike against the public at large' and of the 'One Big Union as an organization whose leaders preached class hatred throughout the country and staked their existence upon sympathetic and national strikes. Fortunately, their methods had been discredited, and the International Trade Union movement was once more established in the centres which had for a time gone over to the 'One Big Union.' This report was adopted and a further motion that the question of the 'One Big Union' should not again be introduced in the convention was approved with but one dissenting voice."—*Canadian year book, 1919*, p. 671.

1919.—Statistics of ~~made~~ unions. See LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1910-1919.

1919.—Public health enactment. See PUBLIC HEALTH: Canada.

1919 (July).—Treaty of Versailles.—"Sir Robert Borden did not play any meteoric part at Paris, but on one or two occasions he intervened with effect. The British delegation raised some objection to the appointment of a Canadian representative to the board which will supervise the labor convention, but were forced to waive it. Sir Robert Borden and his colleagues retorted with a strong memorandum of protest against the famous Article X in which they took exception first to the idea of committing every nation in the League to participation in every other nation's quarrels, and second to the offhand guarantee of all the territorial adjustments made at Paris. Mr. Doherty, the Canadian Minister of Justice, filed a separate memorandum on his own account suggesting that the fabric of the League might be strengthened by the creation of a world parliament of delegates from the parliaments of each member. The Canadians contented themselves with these steps, and Mr. Doherty and Mr. Sifton attached their signatures to the peace treaty on behalf of Canada, Sir Robert having left Paris. Great parade was at

once made by the Government press of Canada of the fact that Canada had at last fulfilled its destiny and taken its rightful place as an independent unit in the family of nations. But when Mr. Doherty asserted that 'Canada is a nation in the sense as Belgium or Italy or the United States of America is a nation,' and Mr. Rowell in the debate on the peace treaty made a great point of 'the formal recognition of Canada's national status,' it was obvious that some education in constitutional realities was needed at Ottawa. International law has never taken cognizance of nationhood. In its eyes there are only two kinds of states: sovereignties (monarchies or republics) and dependencies (colonies, protectorates, etc.). The government of a sovereign state has absolute and unlimited control over all matters external and internal. Only sovereign states send and receive diplomatic representatives. There has so far been no improvement upon Lincoln's definition of a sovereign state as 'a political community without a political superior.' To this definition Canada fails to conform, for in strict political theory it is a subordinate community whose powers are delegated and limited by the British Parliament according to the terms of the British North America Act of 1867. Although theoretically subject to Great Britain, Canada has for some years assumed save in the matter of foreign affairs all the prerogatives of an independent nation. Even in that exception it had assumed certain rights; for its own plenipotentiaries negotiated the reciprocity treaty in 1911 as well as an earlier commercial treaty with France. But the fact remains that Canada was not a party to the Treaty of Versailles, which according to the preamble was made by five "Principal and Associated Powers," the United States, France, Italy, Japan, and the British Empire, and twenty-two other Powers among whom Canada was not included. Therefore the nationalist school in Canada regard the affixing of Canada's signature to the treaty as merely an honorary function. Lord Milner, now Colonial Secretary in Britain, took the same view, for the correspondence tabled last session and above referred to shows that he thought the ratification of the Canadian Parliament quite superfluous. Sir Robert Borden insisted that the Canadian Parliament was entitled to as much deference as the British, and summoned a special session to ratify the pact. The debate revealed a general desire that the question of the country's status should be clarified. . . . The fact is that while Canada is not technically a sovereign state it is gradually assuming all the characteristics of a sovereign state."—*Nation (N. Y.)*, Dec. 13, 1919.—"The Canadian Parliament ratified the Peace Treaty without amendment. The motion for approval was submitted by Sir Robert Borden in a speech adequate to the occasion and to the subject. He reviewed at length the deliberations at Paris and the relations of the Dominions to the League of Nations. Naturally he put the chief emphasis upon the recognition of Canada as a partner nation in the Empire, which is substantially conceded by the representation accorded to the Dominion Parliaments. There was some conflict of opinion in the criticisms of the Opposition."—*Round Table, December, 1919*, p. 147.—See also PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919 (September).—Industrial conference at Ottawa.—"The Industrial Conference, which was held at Ottawa in September, produced a clearer understanding between employers and leaders of labour. Upon the eight-hour day and recognition of unions there was disagreement, but also mutual

concessions. The employers would not accept the system of Whitley Councils, as developed in Great Britain, but declared in favour of plant councils, and agreed not to challenge the right of unionist organisation in factories, nor to discriminate against unionists. On the other hand the labour leaders conceded that recognition of a union 'does not mean the closed shop unless it is part of the agreement entered into.' In the debate on the eight-hour day employers contended that with the shorter day production could not be maintained, that any such arbitrary regulation could not be applied to fishing, lumbering, or farming, and that there were industries in Canada in which the eight-hour day could not be adopted unless a like regulation prevailed in competitive industries in the United States and other countries. It was shown that the eight-hour day now obtains in 43 per cent. of the factories of Canada, and it was stated by employers that in certain industries in which the eight-hour day was conceded the workers had suggested restoration of the nine or ten-hour day with overtime for the hour or two hours added. The Conference finally agreed to ask the Government to appoint a Commission to report upon the situation of industries in which the eight-hour day has not been established, and to determine in what callings fixed hours of work are impracticable owing to seasonal and climatic conditions.

"The Conference approved minimum wages for women and children, and suggested further inquiry into the probable effects of minimum wages for unskilled labour. Resolutions were adopted in favour of a Speakers' Conference to investigate the merits of proportional representation and of a Bureau in the Department of Labour to assist organisations of employers or employees who may desire by joint voluntary action to establish industrial councils; emphasising the necessity for continuous and active co-operation by the Dominion and Provincial Governments to improve housing; opposing restrictions upon freedom of speech or liberty of the Press "intended to prevent criticism of legislative or governmental action"; recommending co-ordination of the Labour laws of the various provinces; urging equal opportunities in education and compulsory schooling to the fifteenth year, and of part time for the two ensuing years in towns and cities; and asking that boards be appointed to inquire into the subjects of widows' pensions and State insurance against unemployment, old age, sickness, and invalidity. It was significant of the temper of the Conference that no ballot was taken upon any resolution submitted. There was agreement upon so many proposals that it was determined not to emphasise disagreement upon other questions."—*Round Table, December, 1919, pp. 162-163.*—See also COÖPERATION: Canada.

1919-1920.—Tariff system.—Protective tariff. See TARIFF: 1910-1920: World wide tariff tendency.

1919-1921.—Housing problem. See HOUSING: Canada.

1920.—Canadian national railroad.—Review of development.—"The third period of railway development was that which had to do with the construction of the lines heretofore owned by the Canadian Northern and Grand Trunk Pacific Railway Companies. These were nominally private companies, but the construction of their lines was made possible by dominion and provincial subsidies and guarantees. Their common stock was chiefly issued for services to promoters and contractors and represented no actual cash investment and the roads never were profitable undertakings, although up to 1914 Canadian Northern was able to meet its obligations from its own resources.

While the aid rendered to the Canadian Northern was largely in the form of subsidies and guarantees, a larger amount of direct aid was given to the Grand Trunk Pacific, but the financial scheme for this undertaking mainly relied on guarantees, first, by the government, and second, by the Grand Trunk Railway Company. The Grand Trunk Railway is strongly entrenched in the eastern part of Canada and has many United States connections. Its western terminus is on Lake Huron. In 1903 it was planned to extend the Grand Trunk System right across the continent to Prince Rupert and eastwardly to Quebec. The portion of the line west of Winnipeg was to be built by the Grand Trunk Pacific Company with large government assistance, while the line east of Winnipeg was to be built by the government and leased to the Grand Trunk, the Grand Trunk Railway proper holding the entire share capital of the Grand Trunk Pacific.

"The Canadian Northern system was started as a local line in Manitoba in 1896 and built up in the prairie provinces a system which by 1906 comprised more than 2,400 miles. The Canadian Northern had to depend for westbound rail traffic on what the companies in the east handed to it. On the traffic which it had in the west it lost the long haul to the east. It was natural, therefore, that the company should reach out to the east. It was equally natural that the Grand Trunk Company should reach out to the west. There was an opportunity here for coöperation between these two companies which, however, was not availed of, with the result that by 1916 Canada had three transcontinental systems, the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian Northern and its connections, and the Grand Trunk-Government System. Under the war conditions existing the new lines were unprofitable and there was imminent danger that the private investors in these enterprises would suffer great loss through the inability of the companies to meet their charges. In this emergency the dominion government stepped in and took over these new lines. In December of 1918 the Canadian government owned lines were merged with the Canadian Northern for unified control and operation. The year ending December 31, 1919, was therefore the first complete year of operation of this greatly enlarged government system of roads. As the Grand Trunk Railway Company had declined to carry out its agreement to operate the eastern section of the Grand Trunk Pacific and, in March, 1919, also notified the government that it could not continue the operation of the Grand Trunk Pacific, the government declined to relieve the Grand Trunk of its obligations in regard to the Grand Trunk Pacific unless the Grand Trunk lines were included in the national system. This was arranged for in 1919. The amount to be paid for the capital stock is to be fixed by arbitration. Pending this the Grand Trunk will be operated by a committee of management of five, two to be appointed by the government, two by the Grand Trunk and the fifth to be chosen by the four so appointed. On the completion of the transaction the Grand Trunk and allied lines will be merged with the Canadian National System. When this is accomplished the Canadian National System will own upward of 20,000 miles of road or more than half of the entire Canadian railway mileage. The greater part of the other half will be owned by the Canadian Pacific and allied lines."—H. E. Fiske, *Dominion of Canada, pp. 114-116.*—See also RAILROADS: 1920: Canadian government railway operation.

1920.—Construction of railroads in British Columbia. See RAILROADS: 1920: British Columbia.

1920.—Canadian tariff.—Agreements with West Indies.—Rejection of French treaty.—“Canada has a protective tariff which figures out at a slightly higher rate on dutiable goods than in the United States. During the war Canada added a 7½ per cent. war tax on her customs duties on many articles, and so long as this was in force, it raised Canada's average rate about 5½ per cent. above the present rates. This war tax was first imposed late in 1915 and continued in force until May, 1920. Canada's tariff is now back to its pre-war level. . . . The Canadian tariff is of a threefold character. There is the ‘general tariff,’ a ‘preferential tariff’ with Great Britain and certain of the British dominions and colonies, and an ‘intermediate tariff,’ of which several nations have the benefit in part. For some time Canada has had reciprocal trade agreements with the United Kingdom, New Zealand, South Africa and British Guiana. Australia does not extend any tariff preference to Canada. Reciprocal trade agreements have been in force between Canada and the British West Indies since 1913, and by the trade agreement concluded at Ottawa in July, 1920, the existing mutual preference is, in certain cases, increased, while the free list is also extended. Under the terms of this agreement, Canada grants a preference on all goods imported into Canada being the produce or manufacture of any of the British West Indies, which are now subject to duty or which may be made subject to duty at any future time. . . . In 1907 a commercial treaty with France brought most French imports under a special intermediate tariff. This tariff was automatically extended to ‘favored nations,’ including Argentina, Denmark, Japan, Norway, Russia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland and Venezuela. This French treaty was denounced by Canada and France in June of this year, but the favored nations continued to enjoy the benefits of another intermediate tariff which was originally arranged and is still effective with Belgium and the Netherlands and which is only slightly higher than the intermediate tariff with France.”—H. E. Fisk, *Dominion of Canada*, pp. 91-93.

1920.—Arrangements for a Canadian minister at Washington.—“The announcement made in May, 1920, that . . . an agreement had been reached with regard to the appointment of a Canadian Ambassador at Washington shows that the problem has been faced . . . in a bold and statesmanlike way. The Ambassador, Mr. Bonar Law announced, is to be appointed by the King ‘on the advice of his Canadian Ministers’ is to have charge of ‘Canadian affairs’, and is to be in absolute control of the Canadian Government. Just as the British Ambassador remained in the past at all times responsible to the British Government even although Canadian business made up three-fourths of the work of the Embassy, so, it may be assumed the absolute responsibility of the Canadian Ambassador to his government will not be affected by the provision that in the absence of his colleague ‘he will take charge of the whole Embassy and of the representation of Imperial as well as Canadian interests.’”—H. D. Hall, *British commonwealth of nations*, pp. 256-257.—To date no appointment has been made.

1920 (July).—Sir Robert Laird Borden, prime minister of Canada since 1911, retired from office because of ill-health. The Hon. Arthur Meighen was called upon to form a cabinet.

1920 (August).—Press conference at Ottawa. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1920 (August).

1920 (November).—The Dominion of Canada

was represented at the League of Nations conference by Sir George Foster, N. Rowell, and C. J. Dougherty.

1920.—Trade.—“Canada closes 1920 with the knowledge that she has set up a new high mark in the grand total of her external trade with the world and it is practically certain that when final figures are available the \$2,640,000,000 mark will be reached. This will exceed by over \$40,000,000 the hitherto record figure, \$2,599,499,000 set up in 1917, and will exceed 1919 by approximately \$400,000,000. Her total trade thus exceeded her net national debt by \$350,000,000, while the value of her exports alone was within 60 per cent of the net national debt. Canada was the United States' second best customer during 1920 while Canada sold more to the United States in the year than she did to any other country. The United States replaced Britain as Canada's best customer buying products to the value of about \$600,000,000 as compared with about \$350,000,000 by the latter. Canada's purchases from the United States, however, exceeded her total exports thereto by approximately \$350,000,000.

“Based on the returns for the eleven months ending November Canada's total imports will be approximately \$1,350,000,000 and the exports \$1,290,000,000. The large field crops which at a conservative valuation are worth \$145,000,000 more than those of 1919, provide a larger surplus for export than was available at the beginning of 1921 and which should cut down the excess of imports between now and the end of the fiscal year, March 31st, 1921. The most outstanding feature of the trade year is the strength shown by exports, at a time when the rate of exchange cut so deeply into her overseas trade with Britain and the states of Europe generally and when government credits, which had so substantially sustained her exports during the war and for a year after the armistice, had been reduced to a very low point. It is true trade with Roumania, Belgium and Greece was increased by credits, but these made themselves felt only during the first part of the year. That with such strong factors to contend against the total exports were within fifteen or twenty millions of 1919, speaks volumes for the inherent strength of Canada's export trade. Indeed taking into account domestic produce only the 1920 exports exceeded those of the preceding year, the exports of foreign produce having declined to the extent of \$20,000,000 as compared with 1919. This was due to the exports of agricultural products and of lumber, pulp and paper. The pulp and paper industry was a very important factor, the value of its exports being approximately \$175,000,000, or double that of 1919. Vegetable products represented one-third of the exports, and lumber, pulp and paper about 23 per cent.

“Imports into Canada from the United States increased by approximately 28 per cent during the year, having gone from \$720,000,000 to approximately \$925,000,000. The mere increase in these imports during the year was within \$17,000,000 of the value of all imports from the United States into Canada which is indicative of the rapid development of Canadian United States trade. Iron and its products represented 23 per cent of these imports, fibres and textile products represented about 10 per cent. Imports from the United Kingdom increased by about 105 per cent during the year, or from \$87,651,000 in 1919 to approximately \$250,000,000. The rate of increase was not nearly as well maintained during the latter part of the year, due partly to the new practice of valuing at

the rate of exchange imports from countries whose currency is depreciated, and to the reduced demand for certain British products. Imports from France increased \$15,000,000; those from Cuba \$25,000,000; British West Indies approximately \$6,000,000; British East Indies \$7,500,000; Netherlands \$2,500,000; Belgium \$4,000,000. Canada's export trade to the United States received a decided impetus, but that with Britain and France declined materially. In the case of the United States the increase was approximately \$100,000,000 while in respect to Britain the decline was in the neighborhood of \$160,000,000. The premium on United States funds had much to do with the growth of exports to the Republic, to which should be added the strong demand for pulp and paper and the much higher prices which these products commanded in 1920. Exports to France declined to the extent of about \$25,000,000 and with Australia, the decrease was \$4,500,000. There were notable increases in exports to the Netherlands, Italy, Greece, Cuba, Belgium, New Zealand, British South Africa and the British West Indies."—*Supplied by the Dominion of Canada bureau of information, New York City.*

1920.—Immigration problems. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Canada: 1920.

1920.—Treaty with United States concerning fisheries. See U. S. A.: 1920 (July).

1921.—Employment of children in agriculture. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1873-1921.

1921.—Electoral systems. See SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: British empire: 1921.

1921.—Vocational educational act in Ontario. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Canada.

1921.—Imperial conference at London.—Question of Anglo-Japanese alliance.—Declaration of Dominion rights. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921.

1921.—Movement towards complete autonomy.—Possibility of Canadian minister at Washington still discussed.—"Even a casual observer of Canadian public affairs cannot fail to be struck with the strength of the tide toward more complete autonomy during the last five years. Self-government is, of course, an old story in Canada. . . . In the Imperial War Cabinet, which came into being as a piece of emergency war machinery, the Canadian Prime Minister, Sir Robert Borden, took his place, not as a subordinate, but as an equal. And about this time his speeches began to contain frequent references to the 'full nationhood' of the dominions, 'equality of status,' an equal voice in the decisions of peace and war and similar phrases. The culmination was reached when dominion delegates took their place in the Peace Conference, when they became signatories to the Treaty of Versailles and were admitted to independent membership in the League of Nations."—J. R. Bone, *Canada and the British Empire (New York Times Current History, Nov., 1921, pp. 264-265)*.—"An effort to have a Canadian Ambassador sent to Washington was begun about three years ago, but no action has yet been taken, though the Ottawa Government has declared at intervals that an appointment would be made. Premier Meighen has stated unofficially, since his return from London, that the Dominion will before long be represented at the United States capital."—J. V. McKenzie, *Canada as a nation (New York Times Current History, Dec., 1921, p. 461)*.

1921.—Canadian Railway award.—On September 7, the Canadian railway arbitration, composed of Mr. Justice Cassels, Sir Thomas White and Mr. William Howard Taft completed its work. The

majority report stated that the first, second and third preference and the common stock of the Grand Trunk Railway were valueless, and that "any question of compassionate consideration of the shareholders must be a matter for the government and Parliament of the Dominion to deal with and not the board." Mr. Taft filed a minority report in which he held that evidence regarding the replacement value of the system should be admitted and contended that the government's estimate of needed delayed maintenance and capital improvement was too high, and he also declared that "the tragedy in the history of a company which deserves the gratitude of the Canadian people for its pioneer efforts is undoubtedly its association with the Grand Trunk Pacific undertaking."—*Christian Science Monitor, Sept. 8, 1921.*

1921-1922.—Liberal landslide.—William Lyon Mackenzie King elected prime minister.—"By the Liberal landslide which characterized the Canadian general elections of Dec. 6 [1921], William Lyon Mackenzie King of North York, Ontario, who was made the Liberal standard-bearer when Sir Wilfrid Laurier died, was designated to succeed the defeated Arthur Meighen as Prime Minister, and to command the votes of the largest party in the new Parliament. Premier Meighen was defeated even in his home constituency, Portage La Prairie, Manitoba, and his protection policy was repudiated. . . . Figures available on Nov. 13 gave the Liberal Party 117 seats in the new Parliament, the Progressives 65, the Conservatives 51 (the party of the outgoing anti-reciprocity Ministry), and the Labor Party 2. For the first time there was full woman suffrage. The first woman to hold a seat in the Canadian House of Commons is Miss Agnes McPhail, Progressive, elected from the Southeast Grey District of Ontario. The election is considered a victory for tariff reform, looking toward reciprocity with the United States. The Liberal and Progressive platforms were agreed upon reciprocity in natural products with the United States, and upon free trade with Great Britain for five years."—*New York Times Current History, Jan., 1922, pp. 666-667*.—"From a résumé of the new political parties it was gathered that though the Liberal party had been restored to office with an uncertain support in the House of Commons, in the Senate there was a Conservative majority of 30. The desire of Mr. King to form a strictly National Government failed, it was believed, through the inability of Mr. Crerar, leader of the Progressives, and Mr. Drury, leader of the Farm-Labor Coalition in Ontario, to obtain the sanction of their followers to enter the King Cabinet. They were not prepared for the virtual disappearance of the Progressives as a separate party. . . . As the closing climax of the first day's session of the Fourteenth Canadian Parliament on March 9, the Prime Minister, W. L. Mackenzie King, introduced into the House of Commons the treaties drawn at the Washington Arms conference and signed by Sir Robert Borden."—*Ibid., April, p. 157.*

1922.—Codification of criminal law. See CODES: 1922.

Canals. See CANALS: American canals.

CANADA, Constitution of: 1774.—Quebec Act. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

1791.—Constitutional Act. See CANADA: 1791.

1840.—Union Act. See CANADA: 1840-1867.

1867.—British North America Act.—The history of the confederation of the provinces of British North America, forming the Dominion of Canada, is given briefly under CANADA: 1867. The following is the text of the act of the Parliament of Great Britain by which the confederation was formed and its constitution established:

An Act for the Union of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the Government thereof; and for purposes connected therewith. [29TH MARCH, 1867.]

WHEREAS the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick have expressed their desire to be federally united into one Dominion under the Crown of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, with a constitution similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom: And whereas such a Union would conduce to the welfare of the Provinces and promote the interests of the British Empire; And whereas on the establishment of the Union by authority of Parliament it is expedient, not only that the Constitution of the Legislative Authority in the Dominion be provided for, but also that the nature of the Executive Government therein be declared: And whereas it is expedient that provision be made for the eventual admission into the Union of other parts of British North America: Be it therefore enacted and declared by the Queen's most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:

1. This Act may be cited as The British North America Act, 1867.

2. The provisions of this Act referring to Her Majesty the Queen extend also to the heirs and successors of Her Majesty, Kings and Queens of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

3. It shall be lawful for the Queen, by and with the advice of Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, to declare by Proclamation that, on and after a day therein appointed, not being more than six months after the passing of this Act, the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick shall form and be one Dominion under the name of Canada; and on and after that day those three Provinces shall form and be one Dominion under that name accordingly.

4. The subsequent provisions of this Act shall, unless it is otherwise expressed or implied, commence and have effect on and after the Union, that is to say, on and after the day appointed for the Union taking effect in the Queen's Proclamation; and in the same provisions, unless it is otherwise expressed or implied, the name Canada shall be taken to mean Canada as constituted under this Act.

5. Canada shall be divided into four Provinces, named Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick.

6. The parts of the Province of Canada (as it exists at the passing of this Act) which formerly constituted respectively the Provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada shall be deemed to be severed, and shall form two separate Provinces. The part which formerly constituted the Province of Upper Canada shall constitute the Province of Ontario; and the part which formerly constituted the Province of Lower Canada shall constitute the Province of Quebec.

7. The Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick shall have the same limits as at the passing of this Act.

8. In the general census of the population of Canada, which is hereby required to be taken in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one, and in every tenth year thereafter, the respective populations of the four Provinces shall be distinguished.

9. The Executive Government and authority of and over Canada is hereby declared to continue and be vested in the Queen.

10. The provisions of this Act referring to the Governor General extend and apply to the Governor General for the time being of Canada, or other the Chief Executive Officer or Administrator, for the time being carrying on the Government of Canada on behalf and in the name of the Queen, by whatever title he is designated.

11. There shall be a Council to aid and advise in the Government of Canada, to be styled the Queen's Privy Council for Canada; and the persons who are to be members of that Council shall be from time to time chosen and summoned by the Governor General and sworn in as Privy Counsellors, and members thereof may be from time to time removed by the Governor General.

12. All powers, authorities, and functions which under any Act of the Parliament of Great Britain, or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the Legislature of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, are at the Union vested in or exercisable by the respective Governors or Lieutenant Governors of those Provinces, with the advice, or with the advice and consent, of the respective Executive Councils thereof, or in conjunction with those Councils, or with any number of members thereof, or by those Governors or Lieutenant Governors individually, shall, as far as the same continue in existence and capable of being exercised after the Union in relation to the Government of Canada, be vested in and exercisable by the Governor General, with the advice or with the advice and consent of or in conjunction with the Queen's Privy Council for Canada, or any members thereof, or by the Governor General individually, as the case requires, subject nevertheless (except with respect to such as exist under Acts of the Parliament of Great Britain or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland) to be abolished or altered by the Parliament of Canada.

13. The provisions of this Act referring to the Governor General in Council shall be construed as referring to the Governor General acting by and with the advice of the Queen's Privy Council for Canada.

14. It shall be lawful for the Queen, if Her Majesty thinks fit, to authorize the Governor General from time to time to appoint any person or any persons, jointly or severally, to be his Deputy or Deputies within any part or parts of Canada, and in that capacity to exercise during the pleasure of the Governor General such of the powers, authorities, and functions of the Governor General as the Governor General deems it necessary and expedient to assign to him or them, subject to any limitations or directions expressed or given by the Queen; but the appointment of such a Deputy or Deputies shall not affect the exercise by the Governor General himself of any power, authority or function.

15. The Command-in-Chief of the Land and Naval Militia, and of all Naval and Military Forces, of and in Canada, is hereby declared to continue and be vested in the Queen.

16. Until the Queen otherwise directs, the seat of Government of Canada shall be Ottawa.

17. There shall be one Parliament for Canada, consisting of the Queen, an Upper House styled the Senate, and the House of Commons.

18. The privileges, immunities, and powers to be held, enjoyed, and exercised by the Senate and by the House of Commons, and by the members thereof respectively, shall be such as are from time to time defined by Act of the Parliament of Canada, but so that the same shall never exceed those

at the passing of this Act held, enjoyed, and exercised by the Commons House of Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and by the members thereof.

19. The Parliament of Canada shall be called together not later than six months after the Union.

20. There shall be a Session of the Parliament of Canada once at least in every year, so that twelve months shall not intervene between the last sitting of the Parliament in one Session and its first sitting in the next Session.

21. The Senate shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, consist of seventy-two members, who shall be styled Senators.

22. In relation to the constitution of the Senate, Canada shall be deemed to consist of three divisions—1. Ontario; 2. Quebec; 3. The Maritime Provinces, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; which three divisions shall (subject to the provisions of this Act) be equally represented in the Senate as follows: Ontario by twenty-four Senators; Quebec by twenty-four Senators; and the Maritime Provinces by twenty-four Senators, twelve thereof representing Nova Scotia, and twelve thereof representing New Brunswick. In the case of Quebec each of the twenty-four Senators representing that Province shall be appointed for one of the twenty-four Electoral Divisions of Lower Canada specified in Schedule A. to chapter one of the Consolidated Statutes of Canada.

23. The qualification of a Senator shall be as follows:—(1) He shall be of the full age of thirty years: (2) He shall be either a natural born subject of the Queen, or a subject of the Queen naturalized by an Act of the Parliament of Great Britain, or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the Legislature of one of the Provinces of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, before the Union, or of the Parliament of Canada after the Union: (3) He shall be legally or equitably seised as of freehold for his own use and benefit of lands or tenements held in free and common socage, or seised or possessed for his own use and benefit of lands or tenements held in franc-alleu or in roture, within the Province for which he is appointed, of the value of four thousand dollars, over and above all rents, dues, debts, charges, mortgages, and incumbrances due or payable out of or charged on or affecting the same: (4) His real and personal property shall be together worth \$4,000 over and above his debts and liabilities: (5) He shall be resident in the Province for which he is appointed: (6) In the case of Quebec he shall have his real property qualification in the Electoral Division for which he is appointed, or shall be resident in that Division.

24. The Governor General shall from time to time, in the Queen's name, by instrument under the Great Seal of Canada, summon qualified persons to the Senate; and, subject to the provisions of this Act, every person so summoned shall become and be a member of the Senate and a Senator.

25. Such persons shall be first summoned to the Senate as the Queen by warrant under Her Majesty's Royal Sign Manual thinks fit to approve, and their names shall be inserted in the Queen's Proclamation of Union.

26. If at any time on the recommendation of the Governor General the Queen thinks fit to direct that three or six members be added to the Senate, the Governor General may by summons to three or six qualified persons (as the case may be), representing equally the three divisions of Canada, add to the Senate accordingly.

27. In case of such addition being at any time

made the Governor General shall not summon any person to the Senate, except on a further like direction by the Queen on the like recommendation, until each of the three divisions of Canada is represented by twenty-four Senators and no more.

28. The number of Senators shall not at any time exceed seventy-eight.

29. A Senator shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, hold his place in the Senate for life.

30. A Senator may by writing under his hand addressed to the Governor General resign his place in the Senate, and thereupon the same shall be vacant.

31. The place of a Senator shall become vacant in any of the following cases: (1) If for two consecutive Sessions of the Parliament he fails to give his attendance in the Senate: (2) If he takes an oath or makes a declaration or acknowledgment of allegiance, obedience, or adherence to a foreign power, or does an act whereby he becomes a subject or citizen, or entitled to the rights or privileges of a subject or citizen of a foreign power: (3) If he is adjudged bankrupt or insolvent, or applies for the benefit of any law relating to insolvent debtors, or becomes a public defaulter: (4) If he is attainted of treason or convicted of felony or of any infamous crime: (5) If he ceases to be qualified in respect of property or of residence; provided, that a Senator shall not be deemed to have ceased to be qualified in respect of residence by reason only of his residing at the seat of the Government of Canada while holding an office under that Government requiring his presence there.

32. When a vacancy happens in the Senate by resignation, death, or otherwise, the Governor General shall by summons to a fit and qualified person fill the vacancy.

33. If any question arises respecting the qualification of a Senator or a vacancy in the Senate the same shall be heard and determined by the Senate.

34. The Governor General may from time to time, by instrument under the Great Seal of Canada, appoint a Senator to be Speaker of the Senate, and may remove him and appoint another in his stead.

35. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, the presence of at least fifteen Senators, including the Speaker, shall be necessary to constitute a meeting of the Senate for the exercise of its powers.

36. Questions arising in the Senate shall be decided by a majority of voices, and the Speaker shall in all cases have a vote, and when the voices are equal the decision shall be deemed to be in the negative.

37. The House of Commons shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, consist of one hundred and eighty-one members, of whom eighty-two shall be elected for Ontario, sixty-five for Quebec, nineteen for Nova Scotia, and fifteen for New Brunswick.

38. The Governor General shall from time to time, in the Queen's name, by instrument under the Great Seal of Canada, summon and call together the House of Commons.

39. A Senator shall not be capable of being elected or of sitting or voting as a member of the House of Commons.

40. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick shall, for the purposes of the election of members to serve in the House of Commons, be divided into Electoral Districts as follows:—(1) Ontario shall be divided into the Counties, Ridings of Counties, Cities, parts of Cities, and Towns enumerated in the first Schedule to this

Act, each whereof shall be an Electoral District, each such District as numbered in that Schedule being entitled to return one member. (2) Quebec shall be divided into sixty-five Electoral Districts, composed of the sixty-five Electoral Divisions into which Lower Canada is at the passing of this Act divided under chapter two of the Consolidated Statutes of Canada, chapter seventy-five of the Consolidated Statutes for Lower Canada, and the Act of the Province of Canada of the twenty-third year of the Queen, chapter one, or any other Act amending the same in force at the Union, so that each such Electoral Division shall be for the purposes of this Act an Electoral District entitled to return one member. (3) Each of the eighteen Counties of Nova Scotia shall be an Electoral District. The County of Halifax shall be entitled to return two members, and each of the other Counties one member. (4) Each of the fourteen Counties into which New Brunswick is divided, including the City and County of St. John, shall be an Electoral District; the City of St. John shall also be a separate Electoral District. Each of those fifteen Electoral Districts shall be entitled to return one member.

41. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, all laws in force in the several Provinces at the Union relative to the following matters or any of them, namely,—the qualifications and disqualifications of persons to be elected or to sit or vote as members of the House of Assembly or Legislative Assembly in the several Provinces, the voters at elections of such members, the oaths to be taken by voters, the returning officers, their powers and duties, the proceedings at elections, the periods during which elections may be continued, the trial of controverted elections, and proceedings incident thereto, the vacating of seats of members, and the execution of new writs in case of seats vacated otherwise than by dissolution,—shall respectively apply to elections of members to serve in the House of Commons for the same several Provinces. Provided that, until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, at any election for a Member of the House of Commons for the District of Algoma, in addition to persons qualified by the law of the Province of Canada to vote, every male British subject aged twenty-one years or upwards, being a householder, shall have a vote.

42. For the first election of members to serve in the House of Commons the Governor General shall cause writs to be issued by such person, in such form, and addressed to such returning officers as he thinks fit. The person issuing writs under this section shall have the like powers as are possessed at the Union by the officers charged with the issuing of writs for the election of members to serve in the respective House of Assembly or Legislative Assembly of the Province of Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick; and the Returning Officers to whom writs are directed under this section shall have the like powers as are possessed at the Union by the officers with the returning of writs for the election of members to serve in the same respective House of Assembly or Legislative Assembly.

43. In case of vacancy in the representation in the House of Commons of any Electoral District happens before the meeting of the Parliament, or after the meeting of the Parliament before provision is made by the Parliament in this behalf, the provisions of the last foregoing section of this Act shall extend and apply to the issuing and returning of a writ in respect of such vacant District.

44. The House of Commons on its first assembling after a general election shall proceed with all

practicable speed to elect one of its members to be Speaker.

45. In case of a vacancy happening in the office of Speaker by death, resignation or otherwise, the House of Commons shall with all practicable speed proceed to elect another of its members to be Speaker.

46. The Speaker shall preside at all meetings of the House of Commons.

47. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, in case of the absence for any reason of the Speaker from the chair of the House of Commons for a period of forty-eight consecutive hours, the House may elect another of its members to act as Speaker, and the member so elected shall during the continuance of such absence of the Speaker have and execute all the powers, privileges, and duties of Speaker.

48. The presence of at least twenty members of the House of Commons shall be necessary to constitute a meeting of the House for the exercise of its powers, and for that purpose the Speaker shall be reckoned as a member.

49. Questions arising in the House of Commons shall be decided by a majority of voices other than that of the Speaker, and when the voices are equal, but not otherwise, the Speaker shall have a vote.

50. Every House of Commons shall continue for five years from the day of the return of the writs for choosing the House (subject to be sooner dissolved by the Governor General), and no longer.

51. On the completion of the census in the year one thousand eight hundred and seventy-one, and of each subsequent decennial census, the representation of the four Provinces shall be re-adjusted by such authority, in such manner and from such time as the Parliament of Canada from time to time provides, subject and according to the following rules:—(1) Quebec shall have the fixed number of sixty-five members: (2) There shall be assigned to each of the other Provinces such a number of members as will bear the same proportion to the number of its population (ascertained at such census) as the number sixty-five bears to the number of the population of Quebec (so ascertained): (3) In the computation of the number of members for a Province a fractional part not exceeding one-half of the whole number requisite for entitling the Province to a member shall be disregarded; but a fractional part exceeding one-half of that number shall be equivalent to the whole number: (4) On any such re-adjustment the number of members for a Province shall not be reduced unless the proportion which the number of the population of the Province bore to the number of the aggregate population of Canada at the then last preceding re-adjustment of the number of members for the Province is ascertained at the then latest census to be diminished by one-twentieth part or upwards: (5) Such re-adjustment shall not take effect until the termination of the then existing Parliament.

52. The number of members of the House of Commons may be from time to time increased by the Parliament of Canada, provided the proportionate representation of the Provinces prescribed by this Act is not thereby disturbed.

53. Bills for appropriating any part of the public revenue, or for imposing any tax or impost, shall originate in the House of Commons.

54. It shall not be lawful for the House of Commons to adopt or pass any vote, resolution, address, or bill for the appropriation of any part of the public revenue, or of any tax or impost, to any purpose that has not been first recommended to that House by message of the Governor Gen-

eral in the Session in which such vote, resolution, address, or bill is proposed.

55. Where a bill passed by the Houses of the Parliament is presented to the Governor General for the Queen's assent, he shall declare according to his discretion, but subject to the provisions of this Act and to Her Majesty's instructions, either that he assents thereto in the Queen's name, or that he withholds the Queen's assent, or that he reserves the bill for the signification of the Queen's pleasure.

56. Where the Governor General assents to a bill in the Queen's name, he shall by the first convenient opportunity send an authentic copy of the Act to one of Her Majesty's Principal Secretaries of State, and if the Queen in Council within two years after receipt thereof by the Secretary of State thinks fit to disallow the Act, such disallowance (with a certificate of the Secretary of State of the day on which the Act was received by him) being signified by the Governor General, by speech or message to each of the Houses of the Parliament, or by proclamation, shall annul the Act from and after the day of such signification.

57. A bill reserved for the signification of the Queen's pleasure shall not have any force unless and until within two years from the day on which it was presented to the Governor General for the Queen's assent, the Governor General signifies, by speech or message to each of the Houses of the Parliament or by proclamation, that it has received the assent of the Queen in Council. An entry of every such speech, message, or proclamation shall be made in the Journal of each House, and a duplicate thereof duly attested shall be delivered to the proper officer to be kept among the Records of Canada.

58. For each Province there shall be an officer, styled the Lieutenant Governor, appointed by the Governor General in Council by instrument under the Great Seal of Canada.

59. A Lieutenant Governor shall hold office during the pleasure of the Governor General; but any Lieutenant Governor appointed after the commencement of the first Session of the Parliament of Canada shall not be removable within five years from his appointment, except for cause assigned, which shall be communicated to him in writing within one month after the order for his removal is made, and shall be communicated by message to the Senate and to the House of Commons within one week thereafter if the Parliament is then sitting, and if not then within one week after the commencement of the next Session of the Parliament.

60. The salaries of the Lieutenant Governors shall be fixed and provided by the Parliament of Canada.

61. Every Lieutenant Governor shall, before assuming the duties of his office, make and subscribe before the Governor General, or some person authorized by him, oaths of allegiance and office similar to those taken by the Governor General.

62. The provisions of this Act referring to the Lieutenant Governor extend and apply to the Lieutenant Governor for the time being of each Province or other the chief executive officer or administrator for the time being carrying on the government of the Province, by whatever title he is designated.

63. The Executive Council of Ontario and of Quebec shall be composed of such persons as the Lieutenant Governor from time to time thinks fit, and in the first instance of the following officers, namely:—The Attorney-General, the Secretary and Registrar of the Province, the Treasurer of the Province, the Commissioner of Crown Lands, and

the Commissioner of Agriculture and Public Works, with in Quebec the Speaker of the Legislative Council and the Solicitor General.

64. The Constitution of the Executive Authority in each of the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, continue as it exists at the Union until altered under the authority of this Act.

65. All powers, authorities, and functions which under any Act of the Parliament of Great Britain, or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, or of the Legislature of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, or Canada, were or are before or at the Union vested in or exercisable by the respective Governors or Lieutenant Governors of those Provinces, with the advice, or with the advice and consent, of the respective Executive Councils thereof, or in conjunction with those Councils, or with any number of members thereof, or by those Governors or Lieutenant Governors individually, shall, as far as the same are capable of being exercised after the Union in relation to the Government of Ontario and Quebec, respectively, be vested in, and shall or may be exercised by the Lieutenant Governor of Ontario and Quebec respectively, with the advice or with the advice and consent of or in conjunction with the respective Executive Councils, or any members thereof, or by the Lieutenant Governor individually, as the case requires, subject nevertheless (except with respect to such as exist under Acts of the Parliament of Great Britain, or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland), to be abolished or altered by the respective Legislatures of Ontario and Quebec.

66. The provisions of this Act, referring to the Lieutenant Governor in Council shall be construed as referring to the Lieutenant Governor of the Province acting by and with the advice of the Executive Council thereof.

67. The Governor General in Council may from time to time appoint an administrator to execute the office and functions of Lieutenant Governor during his absence, illness, or other inability.

68. Unless and until the Executive Government of any Province otherwise directs with respect to that Province, the seats of Government of the Provinces shall be as follows, namely—of Ontario, the City of Toronto; of Quebec, the City of Quebec; of Nova Scotia, the City of Halifax; and of New Brunswick, the City of Fredericton.

69. There shall be a Legislature for Ontario consisting of the Lieutenant Governor and of one House, styled the Legislative Assembly of Ontario.

70. The Legislative Assembly of Ontario shall be composed of eighty-two members, to be elected to represent the eighty-two Electoral Districts set forth in the first Schedule to this Act.

71. There shall be a Legislature for Quebec consisting of the Lieutenant Governor and of two Houses, styled the Legislative Council of Quebec and the Legislative Assembly of Quebec.

72. The Legislative Council of Quebec shall be composed of twenty-four members, to be appointed by the Lieutenant Governor in the Queen's name, by instrument under the Great Seal of Quebec, one being appointed to represent each of the twenty-four Electoral Divisions of Lower Canada in this Act referred to, and each holding office for the term of his life, unless the Legislature of Quebec otherwise provides under the provisions of this Act.

73. The qualifications of the Legislative Councillors of Quebec shall be the same as those of the Senators for Quebec.

74. The place of a Legislative Councillor of Quebec shall become vacant in the cases, 'mutatis mutandis' in which the place of Senator becomes vacant.

75. When a vacancy happens in the Legislative Council of Quebec, by resignation, death, or otherwise, the Lieutenant Governor, in the Queen's name, by instrument under the Great Seal of Quebec, shall appoint a fit and qualified person to fill the vacancy.

76. If any question arises respecting the qualification of a Legislative Councillor of Quebec, or a vacancy in the Legislative Council of Quebec, the same shall be heard and determined by the Legislative Council.

77. The Lieutenant Governor may from time to time, by instrument under the Great Seal of Quebec, appoint a member of the Legislative Council of Quebec to be Speaker thereof, and may remove him and appoint another in his stead.

78. Until the Legislature of Quebec otherwise provides, the presence of at least ten members of the Legislative Council, including the Speaker, shall be necessary to constitute a meeting for the exercise of its powers.

79. Questions arising in the Legislative Council of Quebec shall be decided by a majority of voices, and the Speaker shall in all cases have a vote, and when the voices are equal the decision shall be deemed to be in the negative.

80. The Legislative Assembly of Quebec shall be composed of sixty-five members, to be elected to represent the sixty-five Electoral Divisions or Districts of Lower Canada in this Act referred to, subject to alteration thereof by the Legislature of Quebec: Provided that it shall not be lawful to present to the Lieutenant Governor of Quebec for assent any bill for altering the limits of any of the Electoral Divisions or Districts mentioned in the second Schedule to this Act, unless the second and third readings of such bill have been passed in the Legislative Assembly with the concurrence of the majority of the members representing all those Electoral Divisions or Districts, and the assent shall not be given to such bills unless an address has been presented by the Legislative Assembly to the Lieutenant Governor stating that it has been so passed.

81. The Legislatures of Ontario and Quebec respectively shall be called together not later than six months after the Union.

82. The Lieutenant Governor of Ontario and of Quebec shall from time to time, in the Queen's name, by instrument under the Great Seal of the Province, summon and call together the Legislative Assembly of the Province.

83. Until the Legislature of Ontario or of Quebec otherwise provides, a person accepting or holding in Ontario or in Quebec any office, commission, or employment, permanent or temporary, at the nomination of the Lieutenant Governor, to which an annual salary, or any fee, allowance, emolument, or profit of any kind or amount whatever from the Province is attached, shall not be eligible as a member of the Legislative Assembly of the respective Province, nor shall he sit or vote as such; but nothing in this section shall make ineligible any person being a member of the Executive Council of the respective Province, or holding any of the following offices, that is to say, the offices of Attorney-General, Secretary and Registrar of the Province, Treasurer of the Province, Commissioner of Crown Lands, and Commissioner of Agriculture and Public Works and, in Quebec, Solicitor-General, or shall disqualify him to sit or vote in the

House for which he is elected, provided he is elected while holding such office.

84. Until the Legislatures of Ontario and Quebec respectively otherwise provide, all laws which at the Union are in force in those Provinces respectively, relative to the following matters, or any of them, namely,—the qualifications and disqualifications of persons to be elected or to sit or vote as members of the Assembly of Canada, the qualifications or disqualifications of voters, the oaths to be taken by voters, the Returning Officers, their powers and duties, the proceedings at elections, the periods during which such elections may be continued, and the trial of controverted elections and the proceedings incident thereto, the vacating of the seats of members and the issuing and execution of new writs in case of seats vacated otherwise than by dissolution, shall respectively apply to elections of members to serve in the respective Legislative Assemblies of Ontario and Quebec. Provided that until the Legislature of Ontario otherwise provides, at any election for a member of the Legislative Assembly of Ontario for the District of Algoma, in addition to persons qualified by the law of the Province of Canada to vote, every male British subject, aged twenty-one years or upwards, being a householder, shall have a vote.

85. Every Legislative Assembly of Ontario and every Legislative Assembly of Quebec shall continue for four years from the day of the return of the writs for choosing the same (subject nevertheless to either the Legislative Assembly of Ontario or the Legislative Assembly of Quebec being sooner dissolved by the Lieutenant Governor of the Province), and no longer.

86. There shall be a session of the Legislature of Ontario and of that of Quebec once at least in every year, so that twelve months shall not intervene between the last sitting of the Legislature in each Province in one session and its first sitting in the next session.

87. The following provisions of this Act respecting the House of Commons of Canada, shall extend and apply to the Legislative Assemblies of Ontario and Quebec, that is to say,—the provisions relating to the election of a Speaker originally and on vacancies, the duties of the Speaker, the absence of the Speaker, the quorum, and the mode of voting, as if those provisions were here re-enacted and made applicable in terms to each such Legislative Assembly.

88. The constitution of the Legislature of each of the Provinces of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, continue as it exists at the Union until altered under the authority of this Act; and the House of Assembly of New Brunswick existing at the passing of this Act shall, unless sooner dissolved, continue for the period for which it was elected.

89. Each of the Lieutenant Governors of Ontario, Quebec, and Nova Scotia shall cause writs to be issued for the first election of members of the Legislative Assembly thereof in such form and by such person as he thinks fit, and at such time and addressed to such Returning Officer as the Governor General directs, and so that the first election of member of Assembly for any Electoral District or any subdivision thereof shall be held at the same time and at the same places as the election for a member to serve in the House of Commons of Canada for that Electoral District.

90. The following provisions of this Act respecting the Parliament of Canada, namely,—the provisions relating to appropriation and tax bills, the recommendation of money votes, the assent to bills, the disallowance of Acts, and the signification of

pleasure on bills reserved,—shall extend and apply to the Legislatures of the several Provinces as if those provisions were here re-enacted and made applicable in terms to the respective Provinces and the Legislatures thereof, with the substitution of the Lieutenant Governor of the Province for the Governor General, of the Governor General for the Queen and for a Secretary of State, of one year for two years, and of the Province for Canada.

91. It shall be lawful for the Queen, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate and House of Commons, to make laws for the peace, order, and good government of Canada, in relation to all matters not coming within the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the Provinces; and for greater certainty, but not so as to restrict the generality of the foregoing terms of this section, it is hereby declared that (notwithstanding anything in this Act) the exclusive legislative authority of the Parliament of Canada extends to all matters coming within the classes of subjects next hereinafter enumerated, that is to say,—1. The Public Debt and Property. 2. The regulation of Trade and Commerce. 3. The raising of money by any mode or system of Taxation. 4. The borrowing of money on the public credit. 5. Postal service. 6. The Census and Statistics. 7. Militia, Military and Naval Service, and Defence. 8. The fixing of and providing for the salaries and allowances of civil and other officers of the Government of Canada. 9. Beacons, Buoys, Lighthouses, and Sable Island. 10. Navigation and Shipping. 11. Quarantine and the establishment and maintenance of Marine Hospitals. 12. Sea coast and inland Fisheries. 13. Ferries between a Province and any British or Foreign country, or between two Provinces. 14. Currency and Coinage. 15. Banking, incorporation of banks, and the issue of paper money. 16. Savings Banks. 17. Weights and Measures. 18. Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes. 19. Interest. 20. Legal tender. 21. Bankruptcy and Insolvency. 22. Patents of invention and discovery. 23. Copyrights. 24. Indians, and lands reserved for the Indians. 25. Naturalization and Aliens. 26. Marriage and Divorce. 27. The Criminal Law, except the Constitution of Courts of Criminal Jurisdiction, but including the Procedure in Criminal Matters. 28. The Establishment, Maintenance, and Management of Penitentiaries. 29. Such classes of subjects as are expressly excepted in the enumeration of the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the Provinces. And any matter coming within any of the classes of subjects enumerated in this section shall not be deemed to come within the class of matters of a local or private nature comprised in the enumeration of the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the Provinces.

92. In each Province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to matters coming within the classes of subjects next hereinafter enumerated; that is to say,—1. The amendment from time to time, notwithstanding anything in this Act, of the Constitution of the Province, except as regards the office of Lieutenant Governor. 2. Direct Taxation within the Province in order to the raising of a Revenue for Provincial purposes. 3. The borrowing of money on the sole credit of the Province. 4. The establishment and tenure of Provincial offices and the appointment and payment of Provincial officers. 5. The management and sale of the Public Lands belonging to the Province and of the timber and wood thereon. 6. The establishment, maintenance, and management of public and reformatory prisons in and for the Province. 7.

The establishment, maintenance, and management of hospitals, asylums, charities, and eleemosynary institutions in and for the Province, other than marine hospitals. 8. Municipal institutions in the Province. 9. Shop, saloon, tavern, auctioneer, and other licenses in order to the raising of a revenue for Provincial, local, or municipal purposes. 10. Local works and undertakings other than such as are of the following classes,—*a.* Lines of steam or other ships, railways, canals, telegraphs, and other works and undertakings connecting the Province with any other or others of the Provinces, or extending beyond the limits of the Province. *b.* Lines of steamships between the Province and any British or foreign country. *c.* Such works as, although wholly situate within the Province, are before or after their execution declared by the Parliament of Canada to be for the general advantage of Canada or for the advantage of two or more of the Provinces. 11. The incorporation of companies with Provincial objects. 12. The solemnization of marriage in the Province. 13. Property and civil rights in the Province. 14. The administration of justice in the Province, including the constitution, maintenance, and organization of Provincial Courts, both of civil and of criminal jurisdiction, and including procedure in Civil matters in those Courts. 15. The imposition of punishment by fine, penalty, or imprisonment for enforcing any law of the Province made in relation to any matter coming within any of the classes of subjects enumerated in this section. 16. Generally all matters of a merely local or private nature in the Province.

93. In and for each Province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education, subject and according to the following provisions: (1) Nothing in any such law shall prejudicially affect any right or privilege with respect to denominational schools which any class of persons have by law in the Province at the Union. (2) All the powers, privileges, and duties at the Union by law conferred and imposed in Upper Canada on the separate schools and school trustees of the Queen's Roman Catholic subjects shall be and the same are hereby extended to the dissentient schools of the Queen's Protestant and Roman Catholic subjects in Quebec. (3) Where in any Province a system of separate or dissentient schools exists by law at the Union or is thereafter established by the Legislature of the Province, an appeal shall lie to the Governor General in Council from any Act or decision of any Provincial authority affecting any right or privilege of the Protestant or Roman Catholic minority of the Queen's subjects in relation to education. (4) In case any such Provincial law as from time to time seems to the Governor General in Council requisite for the due execution of the provisions of this section is not made, or in case any decision of the Governor General in Council on any appeal under this section is not duly executed by the proper Provincial authority in that behalf, then and in every such case, and as far only as the circumstances of each case require, the Parliament of Canada may make remedial laws for the due execution of the provisions of this section and of any decision of the Governor General in Council under this section.

94. Notwithstanding anything in this Act, the Parliament of Canada may make provision for the uniformity of all or any of the laws relative to property and civil rights in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and of the procedure of all or any of the Courts in those three Provinces; and from and after the passing of any Act in that behalf the power of the Parliament of Canada to make laws in relation to any matter comprised in

any such Act shall, notwithstanding anything in this Act, be unrestricted; but any Act of the Parliament of Canada making provision for such uniformity shall not have effect in any Province unless and until it is adopted and enacted as law by the Legislature thereof.

95. In each Province the Legislature may make laws in relation to Agriculture in the Province, and to Immigration into the Province; and it is hereby declared that the Parliament of Canada may from time to time make laws in relation to Agriculture in all or any of the Provinces, and to Immigration into all or any of the Provinces; and any law of the Legislature of a Province relative to Agriculture or to Immigration shall have effect in and for the Province as long and as far only as it is not repugnant to any Act of the Parliament of Canada.

96. The Governor General shall appoint the Judges of the Superior, District, and County Courts in each Province, except those of the Courts of Probate in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick.

97. Until the laws relative to property and civil rights in Ontario, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the procedure of the Courts in those Provinces, are made uniform, the Judges of the Courts of those Provinces appointed by the Governor General shall be selected from the respective Bars of those Provinces.

98. The Judges of the Courts of Quebec shall be selected from the Bar of that Province.

99. The Judges of the Superior Courts shall hold office during good behaviour, but shall be removable by the Governor General on address of the Senate and House of Commons.

100. The salaries, allowances, and pensions of the Judges of the Superior, District, and County Courts (except the Courts of Probate in Nova Scotia and New Brunswick), and of the Admiralty Courts in cases where the Judges thereof are for the time being paid by salary, shall be fixed and provided by the Parliament of Canada.

101. The Parliament of Canada may, notwithstanding anything in this Act, from time to time, provide for the constitution, maintenance, and organization of a general Court of Appeal for Canada, and for the establishment of any additional Courts for the better administration of the Laws of Canada.

102. All duties and revenues over which the respective Legislatures of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick before and at the Union had and have power of appropriation, except such portions thereof as are by this Act reserved to the respective Legislatures of the Provinces, or are raised by them in accordance with the special powers conferred on them by this Act, shall form one Consolidated Revenue Fund, to be appropriated for the public service of Canada in the manner and subject to the charges in this Act provided.

103. The Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada shall be permanently charged with the costs, charges, and expenses incident to the collection, management, and receipt thereof, and the same shall form the first charge thereon, subject to be reviewed and audited in such manner as shall be ordered by the Governor General in Council until the Parliament otherwise provides.

104. The annual interest of the public debts of the several Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick at the Union shall form the second charge on the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada.

105. Unless altered by the Parliament of Canada, the salary of the Governor General shall be ten thousand pounds sterling money of the United

Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, payable out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada, and the same shall form the third charge thereon.

106. Subject to the several payments by this Act charged on the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Canada, the same shall be appropriated by the Parliament of Canada for the public service.

107. All stocks, cash, banker's balances, and securities for money belonging to each Province at the time of the Union, except as in this Act mentioned, shall be the property of Canada, and shall be taken in reduction of the amount of the respective debts of the Provinces at the Union.

108. The public works and property of each Province, enumerated in the third schedule to this Act, shall be the property of Canada.

109. All lands, mines, minerals, and royalties belonging to the several Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick at the Union, and all sums then due or payable for such lands, mines, minerals, or royalties, shall belong to the several Provinces of Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in which the same are situate or arise, subject to any trusts existing in respect thereof, and to any interest other than that of the Province in the same.

110. All assets connected with such portions of the public debt of each Province as are assumed by that Province shall belong to that Province.

111. Canada shall be liable for the debts and liabilities of each Province existing at the Union.

112. Ontario and Quebec conjointly shall be liable to Canada for the amount (if any) by which the debt of the Province of Canada exceeds at the Union sixty-two million five hundred thousand dollars, and shall be charged with interest at the rate of five per centum per annum thereon.

113. The assets enumerated in the fourth Schedule to this Act belonging at the Union to the Province of Canada shall be the property of Ontario and Quebec conjointly.

114. Nova Scotia shall be liable to Canada for the amount (if any) by which its public debt exceeds at the Union eight million dollars, and shall be charged with interest at the rate of five per centum per annum thereon.

115. New Brunswick shall be liable to Canada for the amount (if any) by which its public debt exceeds at the Union seven million dollars, and shall be charged with interest at the rate of five per centum per annum thereon.

116. In case the public debt of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick do not at the Union amount to eight million dollars and seven million dollars respectively, they shall respectively receive by half-yearly payments in advance from the Government of Canada interest at five per centum per annum on the difference between the actual amounts of their respective debts and such stipulated amounts.

117. The several provinces shall retain all their respective public property not otherwise disposed of in this Act, subject to the right of Canada to assume any lands or public property required for fortifications or for the defence of the country.

118. The following sums shall be paid yearly by Canada to the several Provinces for the support of their Governments and Legislatures: Ontario, eighty thousand dollars; Quebec, seventy thousand dollars; Nova Scotia, sixty thousand dollars; New Brunswick, fifty thousand dollars; [total] two hundred and sixty thousand dollars; and an annual grant in aid of each Province shall be made, equal to eighty cents per head, of the population as ascertained by the census of one thousand eight hundred and sixty-one, and in the case of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, by each subsequent decennial

census until the population of each of those two Provinces amounts to four hundred thousand souls, at which rate such grant shall thereafter remain. Such grant shall be in full Settlement of all future demands on Canada, and shall be paid half-yearly in advance to each Province; but the Government of Canada shall deduct from such grants, as against any Province, all sums chargeable as interest on the Public Debt of that Province in excess of the several amounts stipulated in this Act.

119. New Brunswick shall receive by half-yearly payments in advance from Canada, for the period of ten years from the Union, an additional allowance of sixty-three thousand dollars per annum; but as long as the Public Debt of that Province remains under seven million dollars a deduction equal to the interest at five per centum per annum on such deficiency shall be made from that allowance of sixty-three thousand dollars.

120. All payments to be made under this Act, or in discharge of liabilities created under any Act of the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick respectively, and assumed by Canada, shall, until the Parliament of Canada otherwise directs, be made in such form and manner as may from time to time be ordered by the Governor General in Council.

121. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of any one of the Provinces shall, from and after the Union, be admitted free into each of the other Provinces.

122. The Customs and Excise Laws of each Province shall, subject to the provisions of this Act, continue in force until altered by the Parliament of Canada.

123. Where Customs duties are, at the Union, leviable on any goods, wares or merchandises in any two Provinces, those goods, wares and merchandises may, from and after the Union, be imported from one of those Provinces into the other of them on proof of payment of the Customs duty leviable thereon in the Province of exportation, and on payment of such further amount (if any) of Customs duty as is leviable thereon in the Province of importation.

124. Nothing in this Act shall affect the right of New Brunswick to levy the lumber dues provided in chapter fifteen, of title three, of the Revised Statutes of New Brunswick, or in any Act amending that act before or after the Union, and not increasing the amount of such dues; but the lumber of any of the Provinces other than New Brunswick shall not be subjected to such dues.

125. No lands or property belonging to Canada or any Province shall be liable to taxation.

126. Such portions of the duties and revenues over which the respective Legislatures of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick had before the Union power of appropriation as are by this Act reserved to the respective Governments or Legislatures of the Provinces, and all duties and revenues raised by them in accordance with the special powers conferred upon them by this act, shall in each Province form one Consolidated Revenue Fund to be appropriated for the public service of the Province.

127. If any person being at the passing of this Act a member of the Legislature Council of Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick, to whom a place in the Senate is offered, does not within thirty days thereafter, by writing under his hand, addressed to the Governor General of the Province of Canada, or to the Lieutenant Governor of Nova Scotia or New Brunswick (as the case may be), accept the same, he shall be deemed to have declined the same; and any person who, being at the

passing of this Act a member of the Legislative Council of Nova Scotia or New Brunswick, accepts a place in the Senate, shall thereby vacate his seat in such Legislative Council.

128. Every member of the Senate or House of Commons of Canada shall before taking his seat therein, take and subscribe before the Governor General or some person authorized by him, and every member of a Legislative Council or Legislative Assembly of any Province shall before taking his seat therein, take and subscribe before the Lieutenant Governor of the Province, or some person authorized by him, the oath of allegiance contained in the fifth Schedule to this Act; and every member of the Senate of Canada and every member of the Legislative Council of Quebec shall also, before taking his seat therein, take and subscribe before the Governor General, or some person authorized by him, the declaration of qualification contained in the same Schedule.

129. Except as otherwise provided by this Act, all laws in force in Canada, Nova Scotia, or New Brunswick at the Union, and all courts of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and all legal commissions, powers and authorities, and all officers, judicial, administrative, and ministerial, existing therein at the Union, shall continue in Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick respectively, as if the Union had not been made, subject nevertheless (except with respect to such as are enacted by or exist under Acts of the Parliament of Great Britain or of the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland), to be repealed, abolished or altered by the Parliament of Canada, or by the Legislature of the respective Province, according to the authority of the Parliament or of that Legislature under this Act.

130. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, all officers of the several Provinces having duties to discharge in relation to matters other than those coming within the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the Provinces shall be officers of Canada, and shall continue to discharge the duties of their respective offices under the same liabilities, responsibilities and penalties as if the Union had not been made.

131. Until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, the Governor General in Council may from time to time appoint such officers as the Governor General in Council deems necessary or proper for the effectual execution of this Act.

132. The Parliament and Government of Canada shall have all powers necessary or proper for performing the obligations of Canada or of any Province thereof, as part of the British Empire towards foreign countries, arising under treaties between the Empire and such foreign countries.

133. Either the English or the French language may be used by any person in the debates of the Houses of Parliament of Canada and of the Houses of the Legislature of Quebec; and both those languages shall be used in the respective records and journals of those Houses; and either of those languages may be used by any person or in any pleading or process in or issuing from any Court of Canada established under this Act, and in or from all or any of the Courts of Quebec. The Acts of the Parliament of Canada and of the Legislature of Quebec shall be printed and published in both those languages.

134. Until the Legislature of Ontario or of Quebec otherwise provides, the Lieutenant Governors of Ontario and Quebec may each appoint under the Great Seal of the Province the following officers, to hold office during pleasure, that is to

say,—the Attorney General, the Secretary and Registrar of the Province, the Treasurer of the Province, the Commissioner of Crown Lands and the Commissioner of Agriculture and Public Works, and, in the case of Quebec, the Solicitor General; and may, by order of the Lieutenant Governor in Council from time to time prescribe the duties of those officers and of the several departments over which they shall preside or to which they shall belong, and of the officers and clerks thereof; and may also appoint other and additional officers to hold office during pleasure, and may from time to time prescribe the duties of those officers, and of the several departments over which they shall preside or to which they shall belong, and of the officers and clerks thereof.

135. Until the Legislature of Ontario or Quebec otherwise provides, all rights, powers, duties, functions, responsibilities or authorities at the passing of this Act vested in or imposed on the Attorney General, Solicitor General, Secretary and Registrar of the Province of Canada, Minister of Finance, Commissioner of Crown Lands, Commissioner of Public Works, and Minister of Agriculture and Receiver General, by any law, statute or ordinance of Upper Canada, Lower Canada, or Canada, and not repugnant to this Act, shall be vested in or imposed on any officer to be appointed by the Lieutenant Governor for the discharge of the same or any of them; and the Commissioner of Agriculture and Public Works shall perform the duties and functions of the office of Minister of Agriculture at the passing of this Act imposed by the law of the Province of Canada as well as those of the Commissioner of Public Works.

136. Until altered by the Lieutenant Governor in Council, the Great Seals of Ontario and Quebec respectively, shall be the same or of the same design, as those used in the Provinces of Upper Canada and Lower Canada respectively before their Union as the Province of Canada.

137. The words "and from thence to the end of the then next ensuing Session of the Legislature," or words to the same effect, used in any temporary Act of the Province of Canada not expired before the Union shall be construed to extend and apply to the next Session of Parliament of Canada, if the subject matter of the Act is within the powers of the same as defined by this Act, or to the next Sessions of the Legislatures of Ontario and Quebec respectively, if the subject matter of the Act is within the powers of the same as defined by this Act.

138. From and after the Union, the use of the words "Upper Canada," instead of "Ontario," or "Lower Canada" instead of "Quebec," in any deed, writ, process, pleading, document, matter or thing, shall not invalidate the same.

139. Any Proclamation under the Great Seal of the Province of Canada, issued before the Union to take effect at a time which is subsequent to the Union, whether relating to that Province or to Upper Canada, or to Lower Canada, and the several matters and things therein proclaimed shall be and continue of like force and effect as if the Union had not been made.

140. Any proclamation which is authorized by any Act of the Legislature of the Province of Canada to be issued under the Great Seal of the Province of Canada, whether relating to that Province or to Upper Canada, or to Lower Canada, and which is not issued before the Union, may be issued by the Lieutenant Governor of Ontario or of Quebec, as its subject matter requires, under the Great Seal thereof; and from and after the issue of such Proclamation the same and the sev-

eral matters and things therein proclaimed shall be and continue of the like force and effect in Ontario or Quebec as if the Union had not been made.

141. The Penitentiary of the Province of Canada shall, until the Parliament of Canada otherwise provides, be and continue the Penitentiary of Ontario and of Quebec.

142. The division and adjustment of the debts, credits, liabilities, properties and assets of Upper Canada and Lower Canada shall be referred to the arbitrament of three arbitrators, one chosen by the Government of Ontario, one by the Government of Quebec, and one by the Government of Canada; and the selection of the Arbitrators shall not be made until the Parliament of Canada and the Legislatures of Ontario and Quebec have met; and the arbitrator chosen by the Government of Canada shall not be a resident either in Ontario or in Quebec.

143. The Governor General in Council may from time to time order that such and so many of the records, books, and documents of the Province of Canada as he thinks fit shall be appropriated and delivered either to Ontario or to Quebec, and the same shall henceforth be the property of that Province; and any copy thereof or extract therefrom, duly certified by the officer having charge of the original thereof shall be admitted as evidence.

144. The Lieutenant Governor of Quebec may from time to time, by Proclamation under the Great Seal of the Province, to take effect from a day to be appointed therein, constitute townships in those parts of the Province of Quebec in which townships are not then already constituted, and fix the metes and bounds thereof.

145. Inasmuch as the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick have joined in a declaration that the construction of the Intercolonial Railway is essential to the consolidation of the Union of British North America, and to the assent thereto of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, and have consequently agreed that provision should be made for its immediate construction by the Government of Canada: Therefore, in order to give effect to that agreement, it shall be the duty of the Government and Parliament of Canada to provide for the commencement, within six months after the Union, of a railway connecting the River St. Lawrence with the City of Halifax in Nova Scotia, and for the construction thereof without intermission, and the completion thereof with all practicable speed.

146. It shall be lawful for the Queen, by and with the advice of Her Majesty's Most Honourable Privy Council, on Addresses from the Houses of the Parliament of Canada, and from the Houses of the respective Legislatures of the Colonies or Provinces of Newfoundland, Prince Edward Island, and British Columbia, to admit those Colonies or Provinces, or any of them, into the Union, and on Address from the Houses of the Parliament of Canada to admit Rupert's Land and the North-western Territory, or either of them, into the Union, on such terms and conditions in each case as are in the Addresses expressed and as the Queen thinks fit to approve, subject to the provisions of this Act, and the provisions of any Order in Council in that behalf shall have effect as if they had been enacted by the Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

147. In case of the admission of Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island, or either of them, each shall be entitled to a representation in the Senate of Canada of four members, and (notwithstanding anything in this Act) in case of the admission of

Newfoundland the normal number of Senators shall be seventy-six and their maximum number shall be eighty-two; but Prince Edward Island when admitted shall be deemed to be comprised in the third of the three divisions into which Canada is, in relation to the constitution of the Senate, divided by this Act, and accordingly, after the admission of Prince Edward Island, whether Newfoundland is admitted or not, the representation of Nova Scotia and New Brunswick in the Senate shall, as vacancies occur, be reduced from twelve to ten members respectively, and the representation of each of those Provinces shall not be increased at any time beyond ten, except under the provisions of this Act for the appointment of three or six additional Senators under the direction of the Queen.

1871.—British North America Act, 1871.—An Act respecting the Establishment of Provinces in the Dominion of Canada. [20TH JUNE, 1871.]

WHEREAS doubts have been entertained respecting the powers of the Parliament of Canada to establish Provinces in territories admitted, or which may hereafter be admitted, into the Dominion of Canada, and to provide for the representation of such Provinces in the said Parliament, and it is expedient to remove such doubts, and to vest such powers in the said Parliament: Be it enacted by the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords, Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. This Act may be cited for all purposes as The British North America Act, 1871.

2. The Parliament of Canada may from time to time establish new Provinces in any territories forming for the time being part of the Dominion of Canada, but not included in any Province thereof, and may, at the time of such establishment, make provision for the constitution and administration of any such Province, and for the passing of laws for the peace, order and good government of such Province, and for its representation in the said Parliament.

3. The Parliament of Canada may from time to time, with the consent of the Legislature of any Province of the said Dominion, increase, diminish, or otherwise alter the limits of such Province, upon such terms and conditions as may be agreed to by the said Legislature, and may, with the like consent, make provision respecting the effect and operation of any such increase or diminution or alteration of territory in relation to any Province affected thereby.

4. The Parliament of Canada may from time to time make provision for the administration, peace, order, and good government of any territory not for the time being included in any Province.

5. The following Acts passed by the said Parliament of Canada, and intitled respectively: "An Act for the temporary government of Rupert's Land and the North-Western Territory when united with Canada;" and "An Act to amend and continue the Act thirty-two and thirty-three Victoria, chapter three, and to establish and provide for the government of the Province of Manitoba," shall be and be deemed to have been valid and effectual for all purposes whatsoever from the date at which they respectively received the assent, in the Queen's name, of the Governor General of the said Dominion of Canada.

6. Except as provided by the third section of this Act, it shall not be competent for the Parliament of Canada to alter the provisions of the last

mentioned Act of the said Parliament in so far as it relates to the Province of Manitoba, or of any other Act hereafter establishing new Provinces in the said Dominion, subject always to the right of the Legislature of the Province of Manitoba to alter from time to time the provisions of any law respecting the qualification of electors and members of the Legislative Assembly, and to make laws respecting elections in the said Province.

1875.—Parliament of Canada Act, 1875.—An Act to remove certain doubts with respect to the powers of the Parliament of Canada, under Section 18 of the British North America Act, 1867. [19TH JULY, 1875.]

WHEREAS by section 18 of The British North America Act, 1867, it is provided as follows:—"The privileges, immunities, and powers to be held, enjoyed, and exercised by the Senate and by the House of Commons, and by the members thereof respectively, shall be such as are from time to time defined by Act of the Parliament of Canada, but so that the same shall never exceed those at the passing of this Act held, enjoyed, and exercised by the Commons House of Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and by the members thereof." And whereas doubts have arisen with regard to the power of defining by an Act of the Parliament of Canada, in pursuance of the said section, the said privileges, powers or immunities; and it is expedient to remove such doubts: Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's Most Excellent Majesty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in this present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. Section 18 of The British North America Act, 1867, is hereby repealed, without prejudice to anything done under that section, and the following section shall be substituted for the section so repealed:—The privileges, immunities, and powers to be held, enjoyed and exercised by the Senate and by the House of Commons, and by the members thereof respectively, shall be such as are from time to time defined by Act of the Parliament of Canada, but so that any Act of the Parliament of Canada defining such privileges, immunities and powers shall not confer any privileges, immunities, or powers exceeding those at the passing of such Act held, enjoyed, and exercised by the Commons House of Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and by the members thereof.

2. The Act of the Parliament of Canada passed in the thirty-first year of the reign of her present Majesty, chapter twenty-four, intitled An Act to provide for oaths to witnesses being administered in certain cases for the purposes of either House of Parliament, shall be deemed to be valid, and to have been valid as from the date at which the royal assent was given thereto by the Governor General of the Dominion of Canada.

3. This Act may be cited as The Parliament of Canada Act, 1875.

1886.—British North America Act, 1886.—An Act respecting the Representation in the Parliament of Canada of Territories which for the time being form part of the Dominion of Canada, but are not included in any Province. [25TH JUNE, 1886.]

WHEREAS it is expedient to empower the Parliament of Canada to provide for the representation in the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, or either of them, of any territory which for the time being forms part of the Dominion of Canada, but is not included in any Province: Be it therefore enacted by the Queen's Most Excellent Maj-

esty, by and with the advice and consent of the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, and Commons, in the present Parliament assembled, and by the authority of the same, as follows:—

1. The Parliament of Canada may from time to time make provision for the representation in the Senate and House of Commons of Canada, or in either of them, of any territories which for the time being form part of the Dominion of Canada, but are not included in any Province thereof.

2. Any Act passed by the Parliament of Canada before the passing of this Act for the purpose mentioned in this Act shall, if not disallowed by the Queen, be, and shall be deemed to have been, valid and effectual from the date at which it received the assent, in Her Majesty's name, of the Governor-General of Canada. It is hereby declared that any Act passed by the Parliament of Canada, whether before or after the passing of this Act, for the purpose mentioned in this Act, or in The British North America Act, 1871, has effect, notwithstanding anything in The British North America Act, 1867, and the number of Senators or the number of Members of the House of Commons specified in the last-mentioned Act is increased by the number of Senators or of Members, as the case may be, provided by any such Act of the Parliament of Canada for the representation of any provinces or territories of Canada.

3. This Act may be cited as The British North America Act, 1886. This Act and The British North America Act, 1867, and The British North America Act, 1871, shall be construed together, and may be cited together as The British North America Acts, 1867 to 1886.

Comparison with constitution of the United States.—“The British North America Act differed from the United States Constitution . . . in that the governments whose powers were enumerated were the state or provincial governments, while the government whose powers were presumed was the central or Dominion government. It is, of course, true that the British North America Act, in addition to enumerating the subjects as to which a provincial legislature ‘may exclusively make laws,’ also enumerates a series of subjects with regard to which the Dominion Parliament may legislate. The act specifically says, however, that this enumerating is made ‘for greater certainty, but not so as to restrict the generality’ of the legislative power granted to that body ‘to make laws for the peace, order and good government of Canada with regard to all matters not coming within the classes of subjects by this Act assigned exclusively to the Legislatures of the Provinces.’ The main difference between the American Constitution and the British North America Act, so far as concerns the position of the two governments for which provision is made and their reciprocal relations, is then that the presumption in Canada is in favor of the central government, and that the provinces have only those powers expressly granted; while in the United States Constitution it is the powers of the national government which are enumerated, and the powers of the states which are reserved and therefore presumed. A glance at the enumerated powers of the provincial governments will show that the intention of the framers of the British North America Act was to confine the provinces to the exercise of powers, for the most part of a local administrative character. It is to be noticed that among these powers was not included the regulation of the private law governing the relations of individuals, one with another, except with regard to the ‘solemnization of marriage within the province,’ and with regard to ‘property and civil rights in

the province.’ The legislative power of the province with regard to the private law and the relations of individuals is not, however, so great as it would at first appear to be, since the British North America Act specifically mentions, as included within the legislative power of the Dominion Parliament, the subjects of banking, interest, bills of exchange, promissory notes, trade and commerce, and the entire field of the criminal law.—A comparison of the American Constitution and of the British North America Act, as they have been interpreted by the courts, would seem to produce the impression that: The American Constitution attempted to give to the central government only those powers which experience was believed to have shown must be given to that government in order to permit the efficient management of what at the time were considered to be interests common to all the states; but that the British North America Act intended to confer all powers of government on the Dominion government which did not have reference to: *first*—matters of purely local administration, such as provincial taxes, provincial debts, provincial charities, provincial works; and, *second*—the peculiar provincial laws and customs with regard to such matters as the solemnization of marriage and property and civil rights, which found their origin in provincial history and traditions. The Roman Catholic religion and the French race and law, which are such important characteristics of Canadian life, as we have seen, would seem to have made necessary this concession to local feeling. The attempts made both in the United States Constitution and the British North America Act to determine the position of the two governments, established by the process of enumerating the powers which one or the other of the governments was to exercise, has had the same result in both countries. . . . This method of enumerating has made it necessary to grant to some judicial tribunal the power to determine whether an act of either the central or the state legislatures is in accordance with the constitution, whenever it is alleged in an action arising in the courts that a legislative act which it is attempted to apply, has been passed in excess of the powers of the legislative authority passing it. In the United States, as has already been said, this tribunal is the Supreme Court, which itself was established by the Constitution. In the case of Canada the British North America Act makes no provision for such a tribunal, but an act of the Dominion Parliament, as interpreted by the courts, provides that the judgments of the Dominion Supreme Court established by it shall be appealable to the Judicial Committee of the British Privy Council, if permitted by that body. In the United States the final authority for constitutional interpretation is thus an authority of the central government, one of the governments established by the Constitution. In the case of the Dominion of Canada that authority is an outside authority. The British North America Act provides also that the Governor-General may disallow the acts of the provincial parliaments. This power is frequently used in the case of legislation, which is regarded as illegal, or as not in harmony with the legislation of the Dominion Parliament, where there is concurrent power, or as affecting unfavorably the interests of the Dominion. Both in the United States and in Canada, in the latter country notwithstanding the power of the Governor-General to disallow provincial acts, this method of enumeration has seemed to necessitate the grant to a judicial authority, the power to interpret the fundamental constitution act, and has led to an enormous amount of litigation and

to the continual raising of extremely perplexing questions. It is a matter of great difficulty for any one who is not technically qualified, and who has not made an exhaustive examination of the decisions of the courts, to say whether either the central government or the local government may constitutionally exercise specific powers of government.

"In the United States the difficulties which have arisen have been perhaps greater than those which have presented themselves in Canada. This is probably due to the facts that the line of decisions is longer there than in Canada, and that greater changes in economic and social conditions have taken place in the United States than in Canada since the adoption of the constitution. The Canadian constitution is, partly at any rate, because it was adopted only fifty years ago, more closely in accord with existing conditions than the Constitution of the United States, as it was originally interpreted, may be said to be. The changes in conditions in the United States have been so great that the American Supreme Court has been obliged on several occasions to reverse or refuse to follow decisions which it once made, and which when made were in all probability suited to existing conditions. Although such action may have been, and probably was, necessary, it was nevertheless unfortunate. For it is difficult for the ordinary man in the street to understand how the same words meant one thing before 1860 and mean another thing now. Many of the questions which under the method of enumerating powers combined with judicial interpretation must be settled by the courts are, further, really more political than legal in character. In so far as this is the case their decision by a body which is primarily a court is unfortunate, since it gives a political complexion to a body which is and should be primarily judicial in character. Canada has been saved much embarrassment in this respect, since the grant of the power of the final determination of these questions to a body like the Judicial Committee of the British Privy Council, which is in no way connected with either of the governments concerned, prevents decisions with regard to constitutional questions from becoming questions of practical partisan politics as has sometimes happened in the United States. It is hardly the case, however, that a thoroughly independent and sovereign country will be so situated that it will be either able or willing to refer its constitutional questions to an authority which is not a part of its own governmental system. If it adopts the American principle of the constitutional enumeration of governmental powers and their interpretation by the courts, it will be obliged in the nature of things to vest in some national domestic court the power to determine in specific

cases whether the action of the different legislative bodies provided by the constitution is in accord with the provisions of that instrument. The exercise of such a power subjects the courts which have it to the strongest sort of political influences."—F. J. Goodnow, *Principles of constitutional government*, pp. 54-58.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Character: Characteristics of self governing colonies.

Amending the constitution. See CANADA: 1916.

ALSO IN: W. P. M. Kennedy, *Documents of the Canadian constitution, 1750-1915*.—W. R. Riddell, *Constitution of Canada in its history and practical working*.—H. E. Egerton and W. L. Grant, *Canadian constitutional development*.—W. H. P. Clement, *Law of the Canadian constitution*.

CANADIAN NORTHERN RAILWAY. See CANADA: 1920: Canadian national railroad; RAILROADS: 1899-1919.

CANADIAN PACIFIC RAILWAY. See CANADA: 1920: Canadian national railroad; RAILROADS: 1860-1910.

CANADIAN RECIPROCITY TREATY (1854), a treaty between the United States and Great Britain defining the fishing rights and boundaries for American and British fisherman along the two shores of the St. Lawrence River, and into the Atlantic Ocean. See FISHERIES: 1854-1866.

CANAI INDIANS. See ALGONQUIAN (Algonkin) FAMILY.

CANAL RAYS, in physical and chemical experiments, produced when a discharge is passed through a vacuum tube, having a perforated cathode. They were discovered in 1866. See CHEMISTRY: Radioactivity: Positive or canal rays.

CANAL ZONE. See PANAMA CANAL.

CANALE S. BOVO, town in Austria northwest of Feltre, Italy, which was occupied by the Italians in 1918 during the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV, Austro-Italian theater: c, 12.

CANALEJAS Y MENDES, José (1854-1912), Spanish statesman. 1881, represented Soria in the Cortes; 1887, represented Algeciras in the Cortes, chairman of military reform commission; 1873-1874, sub-secretary to the president of the council of ministers during the republic; 1888, minister of agriculture; 1889-1890, minister of justice; 1894-1895, minister of finance; 1902, minister of agriculture; 1906, president of the Cortes; 1910-1912, premier; 1912, assassinated. See SPAIN: 1910-1914.

CANALIZO, Valentin (1767-c. 1847), Mexican soldier. Acting president during absence of Santa Anna, 1843-June, 1844, and again in September, 1844; impeached and banished, 1845; returned and served in war with United States.

CANALS

Origin.—With the advance of the industrial world came a simultaneous demand for better, quicker, and less costly systems of transportation. The first improvement was brought about by utilizing rivers, which were later supplemented by canals, as thoroughfares for boats and barges. Until the advent of the locomotive engines these canals determined all commercial routes; then the railways replaced them, canals falling into disrepute generally, but at the present time, they are coming into their own again. (See COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1770-1921.) Canals were utilized very early in the history of mankind. Egyptologists as-

sert that the predecessors of the Pharaohs created a canal system as far back as 7000 B. C. While it is probably true that these were at first merely for irrigation purposes, it is practically certain that they were soon utilized in the transportation of products from one place to another. About 600 B. C. according to Herodotus, we learn of the restoration of the great canal at Babylon, making it available for the merchant vessels of his day. (See BABYLONIA: Hammurabi: Character and achievements.) At about the same time the predecessor of the present Suez Canal was begun, but it was destroyed by the Mohammedans in A. D.

767 after they gained ascendancy in Egypt. The Romans were noted for their aqueducts but built few real canals. Charlemagne conceived the plan of connecting the Danube and the Main, but it was not carried out until the reign of Louis I of Bavaria in the 19th century. However, the origin of Europe's system of canals is generally placed in the twelfth century, the Dutch being generally considered as the inaugurators. The Low Countries were naturally adapted to a system of canals. The aggregate mileage of canals in the areas included in Holland and Belgium is estimated at 3,400 within an area of 24,000 square miles.

The greatest boom which canal construction received came at about 1481 with the construction of locks, which enabled engineers to overcome the obstacles made by elevations. Both the Dutch and the Italians claim credit for this innovation, the Dutch claiming to have used it nearly one hundred years earlier than the Italians. The lock is a device by means of which a vessel is raised directly from a lower to a higher level, or vice versa. It consists of a prism protected by walls on either side and water-tight gates at the ends. When a boat ascends, the upper gates and sluices commanding the flow of water from the upper level are closed. The sluices at the lower end of the lock are then opened and the boat enters the prism when the level of water in the lock has reached that of the lower surface. The lower sluices and gates are now closed and the upper sluices opened. The incoming water floats the boat up to the higher level, the upper gates are opened and the vessel passes out. For a descending boat, the process is reversed.

Where differences in level occur in a short length of canal, vertical lifts can be used to advantage. Double lifts are ordinarily used, the change in level being effected while the vessel is floating in water contained in a wrought iron caisson. A hydraulic ram supports each caisson. The descending caisson falls since it contains a greater depth of water than the ascending one, the weight on the rams being constant. To overcome the loss of weight in the descending caisson when it becomes immersed in the lower level of the stream, a hydraulic accumulator is used. Before the introduction of locks, inclines were used in the attempt to overcome the problem of different levels. The vessels were hauled up by means of capstans in some cases, or as in others, the cargoes removed and the boats run up on trucks which were then propelled up or down the incline by means of a windlass. Until a few years ago traffic on the smaller canals was conducted by the horse or mule walking along a tow-path and drawing a boat or barge by means of a towing rope. This method is of necessity extremely slow, so that efforts were made not only to quicken transit but to accommodate heavier loads. Little was accomplished until 1802 when steam towage was first employed on the Forth and Clyde canal, a tug boat fitted with steam engines drawing two barges 19½ miles in 6 hours. Various devices have been originated in the application of steam power to canals, but they are now rapidly being replaced in the newer canals by electricity. Thus, the Panama canal is operated entirely by means of electricity. The early canals were mostly of the class known as barge or boat canals and, due to their limited depths, were available only for vessels of small size. With the rapid advance of commerce, however, it was found both necessary and advantageous to cut canals of such depth and breadth as to accommodate sea-going vessels. The difference between the two types of canals is merely one in magnitude of work involved.

In the construction of a canal, the engineer must of necessity take several factors into consideration, the two most important of which are the topography of the country and the continuity of a water supply.

Canal construction.—Two factors usually decide the cross section of a canal—its dimensions and its form. The former would be determined by the size of vessel with which the canal is to be navigated, while the width must be sufficient to permit two vessels to pass simultaneously without fouling. In general a width of bottom is constructed equal to twice the beam of the largest vessel which will navigate the canal, and the depth of water should be at least two feet greater than the draft of these vessels. In the more recently constructed canals, the depths are made much greater. The bottom of the canal is always a flat surface, but the construction of the sides is dependent upon the hardness of material through which the channel is to be cut. Where the material is rock, the sides are invariably made vertical, in soft ground the sides are made sloping, the angle of slope being dependent upon the stability of the material. In general, the cross section is made to approach the rectangle as a limit as nearly as is possible to expedite the construction and reduce the cost.

AMERICAN CANALS

Santee canal (1802): first important American canal.—American canals were constructed before the nineteenth century, but the first work of any importance was the Santee canal, in South Carolina, which was opened in 1802. The one outstanding feature in all American canal construction during the entire century was the great length of many of the canals, in which respect they easily surpassed the European canals of this period. In cross section, however, they were much smaller than those of the continent, a circumstance which is explained by the fact that at the time of the introduction of canals, the trade of the country was small, and did not warrant the expenditure of great sums of money in construction, the main purpose being to complete the communication as quickly and with as little an expenditure of capital as was possible. With an increase in traffic, came the discovery that many of the canals were too small to meet the required demands. While the Americans used the same general designs in construction as were used by English engineers, the materials employed were different. Instead of the well-finished stone structures that one found in Europe, the American canals were undressed slopes of cuttings and embankments, roughly built rubble arches, stone parapet-walls coped with timber, and canal locks entirely constructed by wood. This liberal use of wood in construction was decried by many foreign engineers, but the curse later proved to be a blessing, for when the wooden locks on any of the canals showed symptoms of decay, stone structure could easily be substituted, the materials for the improved construction being conveyed inexpensively by the canal itself. Thus the less substantial work ultimately became the means of facilitating its own improvement.

Erie canal (1825).—"When a man living in New York State, about a hundred years ago, wished to travel in any direction, he went by some river and lake route as much as he could, riding in a canoe or boat. Naturally the first forts were built on waterways so that they would be protected from the enemy.

"There were few roads, and these were had, and in early spring and rainy weather could not be used. Logs, placed across the road in low and marshy places, formed a rough and bumpy highway called a corduroy road. Plank roads were the best that existed. It was much pleasanter to travel by water and to carry goods that way. Few people lived west of the Genesee Valley, not because there was any lack of people anxious to live there, but because there was no way to bring their products to a market without heavy expense and great risk. In order to open the western country to settlers, and to offer a cheap and safe way to carry their produce to a market, improvements in the natural waterways were made. The first canal locks were constructed in 1796 at Little Falls by a private

Waters' between the Great Lakes and the Atlantic Ocean. The Erie proved to be the world's greatest canal. Its effect was soon felt, not only through the State but throughout the east and the Great Lakes region. Settlers flocked westward, forests gave way to sawmills and villages replaced these. Prosperous towns were established on the Great Lakes and the splendid chain of cities, which has won for New York the title of Empire State, sprang up along the line of the Erie canal.

"The shipping which once went to Philadelphia, the nation's biggest seaport before the Erie canal, came to New York; the city grew by leaps and bounds and became the commercial center of the American Union. Sixteen years after the opening of the canal, the exports of New York were



OLD ERIE CANAL IN 1826

(From an old print)

company acting under a charter from the State. These made people eager for Governor De Witt Clinton's plan for the state-owned Erie canal. This canal, begun in 1817, was laughed at by many who called it 'Clinton's Big Ditch.' Governor Clinton, however, foreseeing its great use to the State, called it 'The Grand Canal.' The route of this waterway had been gone over and approved by President Washington, himself an engineer and surveyor. The Erie canal was opened October 25, 1825. It was 4 feet deep and about 42 feet wide and could float a boat carrying 30 tons of freight. The first boat to travel its full length was the Seneca Chief; its start from Buffalo was announced by the firing of a cannon, and this was echoed by the booming of a line of cannon all the way across the State to Albany and down the Hudson to New York city. The Seneca Chief carried two barrels of water from Lake Erie, which Governor Clinton emptied into the ocean at New York, the first 'Marriage of

valued at three times those of Massachusetts, the value of real estate had increased more rapidly than the population, while personal property was nearly four times its former value, and manufacturing three times as great. There were five times as many people following commercial pursuits in New York as there were before the completion of the Erie canal. Many other canals were built after people saw the success of the Erie, and for many years canals formed the principal trade routes in the State. However, the invention of the steam engine and the building of railroads struck them a severe blow. Some of them failed and were closed; the Chenango canal, connecting Utica and Binghamton, is an example of an abandoned canal. The Erie and main branches of the canal system were enlarged from time to time but still failed to hold their old popularity; and yet in 1882 it was found that the Erie had earned forty-two million dollars, over and above its origi-

nal cost, expense of enlargement, maintenance and operation."—F. M. Williams, *Story of the New York State canals*, pp. 3-5.—In 1903 the state made plans for increasing the capacity of the Erie, Champlain and Oswego canals to accommodate barges of 1000 tons. This system became known as the Barge canal. See BARGE CANAL, New York State.

Great Lakes and St. Lawrence system (1825-1899).—"The Canadian canal around the rapids of St. Mary's river, between Lakes Huron and Superior, is usually called the Sault Ste. Marie, and the American canal, the St. Mary's, so as to distinguish them. The first canal on the Canadian side was built in 1796-8 by the Hudson's Bay Company in about the same location as occupied by the present canal. There was but one lock, 38 feet long, 8 feet 9 inches wide and with a 9-foot lift. There was a tow-path at the side and oxen were used to tow bateaux through the lock. This lock was destroyed in 1814 by United States troops."—*Canals of Canada (Suppl. Annual report of state engineer and surveyor, v. 2, p. 1446)*.—On the American side, the construction was undertaken at a much later period. The canal built during the years 1853 to 1855 was 1 1/12 miles long, 64 feet wide at the bottom, and 100 feet wide at the surface. The two locks were each 350 feet long and 70 feet wide, having a lift of 9 feet. On Sept. 18, 1919, the fourth lock of the American canal was opened to traffic.

In 1870 the Weitzel lock, 515 feet long, 80 feet wide in the chamber, and 17 feet of water on the sills, was constructed by the United States government. This was the first of the series of modern locks to be constructed on the canal. During the years 1877 to 1896 a second lock, known as the Poe lock, was constructed. It is 800 feet long, 100 feet wide, with 22 feet of water on the sills. During this time the Canadians had built their second canal, a canal 1 1/8 miles long, 150 feet wide, and 23 feet deep, with a lock 900 feet long, 60 feet wide and 22 feet of water on the sills. This lock was, at the time of its construction, the largest in the world. Due to the tremendous traffic, the United States built (1908-1914) a third lock, known as the Davis lock, 1350 feet long, 80 feet wide, having 24.6 feet of water on its sills. In 1914 the channel leading to old locks was deepened to 24.6 feet in the upper level or reach, while a new canal was constructed to the third and fourth locks, the latter put under construction by authorization of Congress, July 25, 1912, and opened to traffic on Sept. 18, 1919. This fourth lock is known as the Sabin lock and is operated by electricity. These canals are especially noted for carrying the largest amount of water-borne traffic of all the artificial waterways of the world.

"The first Welland [Canada] canal was started Nov. 30, 1824, and was completed 5 years later, being constructed with 40 wooden locks, 110 ft. long, 22 ft. wide and 8 ft. depth of water. This was owned by the Welland Canal Co. In 1831 the Government loaned the company money to complete the canal to Port Colborne [Ontario], and in 1834 it purchased the canal. In 1841 the 40 wooden locks were replaced with 27 masonry locks, 150 ft. long, 26 1/2 ft. wide and 9 ft. depth of water, which work was completed in 1850, 2 years after the completion of the first St. Lawrence canal system. The second enlargement called for 25 locks 270 ft. long, 45 ft. wide with a depth of 12 ft. of water, but Parliament ordered the depth increased to 14 ft. The canal was opened to 12 ft. navigation in 1882 and to 14 ft. in 1887. That is

the canal as it now stands. It is 26 3/4 miles long and vessels can pass through in from 15 to 18 hours. . . . Alex. J. Grant, M. E. I. C., engineer in charge of the Welland Ship Canal, in a paper published in the Journal of the Engineering Institute of Canada, has this to say of the general features of the canal. The ship canal, as finally located, follows the valley of the Ten Mile creek between its mouth, about 3 miles east of Port Dalhousie and Thorold, crossing the present canal below Lock No. 11. Between Thorold and Allenburg [Ontario] a new cut will be made for the purpose of straightening the alignment of the canal between these points. The ship canal will again cross the present one below Lock No. 25, where the water levels of both are at elevation 568, the extreme low water level of Lake Erie above sea level. From Allenburg to Port Colborne, on Lake Erie, it will follow closely the course of the present canal. The total length of the canal will be 25 miles, and for all practicable purposes of navigation, it is a straight line throughout. The canal is 2 1/2 miles shorter than the present canal. The fall of 325 1/2 ft. between the lakes is to be overcome by seven locks of 46 1/2 ft. lift each. The direct line of the canal down the face of the escarpment and the topography of the lower plateau permitted the adoption of these high lifts which constitute a peculiar feature in the design of the canal and has no precedent in actual construction for locks of their size. The few locks required permit a rapid descent into Lake Ontario and diminish the time required for vessels to pass through the canal. The usable dimensions of the locks are 800 ft. long, 80 ft. wide with 30 ft. depth on the sills. The canal will be 200 ft. wide on the bottom, with 1 to 2 slopes, and for the present will be excavated to a depth of 25 ft. only. All structures, however, will be built for 30 ft. depth, so that the canal at some future date can be enlarged by simply dredging out the canal prism and harbor entrances. . . . At the Ontario end of the canal Port Weller harbor is being formed by two earth embankments extending 1 1/2 miles out into the lake, where the depth is 30 ft. at extreme low water. The banks are being formed from materials excavated from the canal prism and will be protected on their inner and outer slopes with rock. The banks are parallel with one another and provide a channel 800 ft. wide and 5000 ft. long which, at the entrance, is narrowed to 400 ft. wide by two converging lines of reinforced concrete crib work. From the shore the harbor extends inland about one-half mile, gradually narrowing from 800 to 200 ft. in width to Lock No. 1, 9500 ft. from the harbor entrance. . . . As lockage requires about 70 acre-feet, it is essential that there be a large pondage area above each lock. For this purpose the configuration of the valley east of the canal was fully made use of in creating regulating ponds above the locks. That above Lock No. 1 has an area of 107 acres; No. 2, 200 acres; No. 3, 150 acres. The service flow through the canal will be regulated by weirs at the side of the locks. Locks Nos. 4, 5 and 6 are twin locks in flight. One will be used for up-bound vessels and the other for down-bound, a double flight being necessary in order to save long delays to vessels passing through these locks. They are situated on the face of the escarpment and in order to create a regulating basin of 84 acres above Lock No. 6, an earthen dam with a maximum height of 75 ft. and about 3300 ft. long, extending from the head of Lock No. 6 across the present canal above Lock No. 19 to the high ground east of it, will be built with a concrete core wall of selected materials

from the canal excavation. The head of Lock No. 7 is opposite Peter Street, Thorold, or opposite Lock No. 24 of the present canal, the distance from the foot of the lock and the head of Lock No. 6 being only about 2000 ft. It is fed from a small pond of 27 acres formed by flooding the upper end of the Ten Mile creek valley lying east of the canal. This pond, however, will have direct communication through the channel of the present canal with the summit level of the Ship Canal above the twin Guard Gates, which are located about a quarter of a mile above Lock No. 7, where the main line of the Niagara, St. Catharines & Toronto railway crosses the canal. . . . The ship channel has cost to date a little over \$20,000,000 and is estimated to be, roughly, about 30% complete. . . . This enterprise has not attracted the attention in this country its importance warrants. When completed, . . . it will afford a straight way for lake vessels between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie."—*Largest undertaking in North America—Welland Ship Canal (Engineering World, Oct., 1920, pp. 257-260).*

"The Lachine canal was built for the purpose of enabling vessels to pass the rapids of St. Louis, better known as the Lachine rapids, situated just above Montreal, the head of ocean navigation on the Saint Lawrence River. . . . A bill was passed in 1821 which repealed the act of incorporation and authorized the construction of the canal by the Government, which at once commenced construction. The British Government contributed £10,000 toward the accomplishment of this work. The canal was opened for navigation in 1825 and completed in 1826. . . . [It] was built with a depth of four and one-half feet. The width at the water-surface was forty-eight feet and at the bottom twenty-eight. The locks were one hundred feet long and twenty feet wide. These dimensions were found inadequate and enlargement of the canal was begun in 1840 [and completed in 1862]. . . . The dimensions of the canal were then one hundred and twenty feet at water-surface and eighty feet at the bottom, with a navigable depth of nine feet. . . . In the year 1871 it was decided to further enlarge this canal. . . . The prism was enlarged, first to a depth of twelve feet throughout, and then to fourteen feet. Two of the locks have a depth of eighteen feet on the miter-sills, and three, a depth of fourteen feet. The canal prism was not available for boats drawing fourteen feet of water until 1890. The old locks with nine feet of water on the sills are still available at the side of the new locks. . . . The Beauharnois canal, built to overcome the 'Cascades,' 'Cedar' and 'Coteau' rapids, is, in its entirety, 12 miles long and affords safe navigation between Lakes St. Francis and St. Louis. . . . The largest canal of the St. Lawrence system, and the most modern in its design and execution, is the Soulanges canal. This canal is on the north side of the river and serves the same purpose as the Beauharnois canal, which to a large extent it replaces. The canal is 14 miles long and the five locks in that distance have a total lift of 82 feet. The locks are of concrete, faced with cut stone, and are filled and emptied through culverts communicating with the lock-chamber through twenty cast iron pipes arranged ten on each side of the chamber. These pipes are each 2½ feet in diameter. The gates and the sluices are operated by electricity and a lockage can be accomplished in fifteen minutes or less. The canal opened to traffic in 1899. . . . The Cornwall canal, located west of the Beauharnois, was built with a depth of nine feet and was the first canal constructed of this depth, which afterwards was

adopted as the standard. It is designed to furnish a passage around the Long Sault rapids, being on the north shore of the river. It is about 11 miles long and has a lockage of 48 feet. In order to make this canal navigable for vessels of the same class as those passing through the Welland canal, its enlargement was begun in 1876. This improvement was a part of a general plan to extend 14-foot navigation from the Great Lakes to the sea. The new locks, begun at this time, are 270 feet long, 45 feet wide and have a depth of 14 feet on the miter-sills at low water. The work of improving the channel between the locks has been continuous since 1876. . . . The Farrans Point, the Rapide Plat and the Galops canals are all on the north side of the river and complete the list of canals leading to Lake Ontario. These canals were built between the years 1843 and 1856. The object of these, as of the other St. Lawrence canals, was to provide a route around rapids in the river. The Farrans Point canal is situated about five miles west of the town of Dickinson's Landing—the head of the Cornwall canal. . . . The enlargement of the canal, to accommodate vessels drawing 14 feet of water, was contracted for in 1897 and was wholly completed in 1901. By this enlargement the length of the canal was increased to 1 mile and the lockage to four feet. A 'flotilla lock,' 800 feet long and 45 feet wide, with 14 feet of water on the miter-sill, was built at the side of the old nine-foot lock, which was retained and repaired. The Rapide Plat or Morrisburg canal, situated about 9½ miles west of Farrans Point canal, is designed to overcome the rapids of Rapide Plat by a lock of 11½ feet lift. It extends from the village of Morrisburg to Flags Bay, a distance of 3 2/3 miles. The work of enlarging this canal from the original nine-foot depth to the present depth of 14 feet was begun in 1884. The work on all portions was completed in 1905. The new lock is 270 feet long, 45 feet wide, with 14 feet of water on miter-sills. . . . Between the head of the Rapide Plat canal and the foot of the Galops canal there are 4½ miles of river navigation. What is now known as the Galops canal was originally built in two sections. . . . About ten years after these canals were built they were connected by an embankment in the river called the 'Junction canal.' All of these are now included under the one name of Galops canal, having a total length of 7 1/3 miles and a lockage of 15½ feet. In 1888 the upper entrance was improved and in 1897 the enlargement of the remainder of the canal was commenced. This enlargement furnishes 14-foot navigation and [has] only one lift-lock at Iroquois."—*Canals of Canada (Supplement to Annual Report of State Engineer and Surveyor, v. 2, pp. 1441-1444).*

ALSO IN: R. C. McElwell and A. H. Ritter, *Economic aspects of the Great Lakes: St. Lawrence ship canal.*

Morris canal (1836).—The only American canal which moved boats from different levels of water by other means than locks was the old Morris canal (opened in 1836). Here inclined planes were used instead of locks. The canal extended from Jersey City on the Hudson to Easton on the Delaware, connecting these two rivers. It was 101 miles long. The total rise and fall was 1557 feet of which 223 were overcome by locks, and 1334 feet by means of twenty-three inclined planes, each having an approximate lift of fifty-eight feet. Boat-cars were used to transfer the vessels to the various elevations. They were constructed by a strong wooden crib or cradle on which the boat rested, supported on two iron wagons running on

four wheels. When supported on the inclined plane, the four axles of the wagons are in the same plane. To guard against the tendency to rock the cradle which occurred in other types of boat cars when the axles were not on the same level, the American engineers introduced two axles which supported the entire weight of crib and boat, and on which the wagons turned as a centre. The cars were run on rails laid on the inclined planes, and were raised and lowered, by means of various devices driven by water wheels. The railway extended along the bottom of the canal. In raising a boat, the car was first lowered into the water, and the boat floated over it. It was fastened to part of the framework projecting above the gunwale. The machinery was then started and the boat drawn to the top of the plane by a chain. Here gates at both extremities of the incline were built, the gates next to the top of the inclined plane being closed after the car entered it. The other gate was then opened, the intruding water floated the boat off the car, and it continued on its journey.

Delaware and Raritan canal (1838).—As early as 1804 a company was chartered to build a canal connecting the Raritan and Delaware rivers, and by 1816 a route had been surveyed. The main channel was opened to traffic in 1838. It is forty-four miles long, extending from Bordentown on the Delaware to New Brunswick on the Raritan. The canal is now controlled by the Pennsylvania railroad and is used to transport coal to New York.

Illinois and Michigan canal (1848).—"The Illinois and Michigan canal connects lake Michigan with the waters of the Illinois river, permitting the passage of medium-sized vessels from the gulf of Mexico to the gulf of St. Lawrence by means of the Welland canal which extends from lake Erie to lake Ontario. The construction of the canal was begun in June, 1836, but was discontinued after March, 1841, due to lack of funds. In 1845 construction was resumed, the canal opening in April, 1848. The modern canal traverses the valley of the Illinois river to its terminus, La Salle, the whole length being 96 miles. From this point traffic can proceed to Grafton on the Mississippi from the Illinois river, the state government of Illinois and the national government having improved the passage with the construction of locks and dams. At La Salle the water is 145 feet lower than at lake Michigan, the descent being accomplished by 17 locks, each 110 feet long and 18 feet wide. During the World War, President Wilson allotted \$150,000 of the War Emergency Fund under his personal control with which to restore to its original depth of six feet the Illinois and Michigan canal, which constitutes the only water connection between the Chicago Drainage Canal and the navigable channel of the Illinois River."—*Review of Reviews*, Sept., 1918.

Mexico City canal (1898). See MEXICO: 1898.

Chicago drainage canal (1900). See CHICAGO: 1900.

Barge canal of New York (1903-1922). See BARGE CANAL, New York State; NEW YORK: 1898-1909.

Cape Cod canal (1914).—"A source of strength to the United States . . . [in war and in peace] is that great intracoastal system of canals and rivers just back of the Atlantic, and extending to an almost unbroken line from Boston, Mass., to Beaufort, S. C. It also connects with other channels as far south as the Everglades. . . . The engineers of the War Department have recommended the spending of \$115,000,000 for the deepening of such canals

as the Raritan and the dredging of bays and rivers. . . . The Government has taken over the Cape Cod canal, a protected channel dredged by private enterprise, which affords a calm and safe passage for many vessels which hitherto were in peril of leaving their bones in that marine graveyard off the treacherous promontory. Great ditches of this type would afford shelter for large war craft, just as the Kaiser Wilhelm canal at Kiel served to shield the German battleships from attack. In the shallower canals could be assembled destroyers, swift submarine chasers, and patrol boats. These auxiliaries could operate effectively against a superior high-seas fleet, especially if working under the protection of coast artillery and mobile ordnance mounted on railroad platform cars. The project for the Cape Cod canal was proposed as early as 1697 but nothing came of it until 1780 when General Knox made estimates for the construction of the canal. In 1781, surveys were made of the land by Winthrop and Hill. The project was dropped until 1890 when a company was formed and actual work on it begun. In 1909, the construction of the breakwater at Barnstable bay was undertaken and the rest of the work began to be prosecuted in earnest. The canal, excavated across Cape Cod, connects Buzzards' bay with Barnstable bay at Sandwich, Mass., and was opened to traffic July 29, 1914. It is 13 miles long, 8 miles being cut through the land and 5 miles constituting the channels cut in the waters of the bays. This route cuts by 70 miles the old passage around Cape Cod. The canal is practically straight."—*Review of Reviews*, Sept., 1918.

Panama canal (1915). See PANAMA CANAL; COMMERCE: Commercial age: 1770-1921.

Lake Washington canal (1917).—The recommendation for the construction of this canal was first made in 1856 by General George B. McClellan who suggested the connection of Lake Washington with Puget sound. A survey was made and presented to the government in 1890, but work was not actually started until 1911. The official opening of the canal to traffic took place on July 4, 1917. The total cost is estimated at \$5,000,000. The canal extends from Puget sound, runs through Shilshole and Salmon bays, and Lake Union to Union bay, a distance of about eight miles. The most noteworthy feature of the canal is the construction of the Fremont avenue bridge which is 242 feet long, between trunnions, and is operated by four hundred horse-power motors.

Rehabilitated canals (1918).—During the World War, there occurred a great shortage in transportation facilities. To meet the increased transportation demands and relieve the already overtaxed railroads, plans were considered for the rehabilitation of some of the old abandoned canals. "One of the first of the old sluices to be rehabilitated was the Chesapeake and Ohio, the building of which was pushed by General George Washington, who was the first president of the construction company which called it into being. The Father of His Country was so convinced that the future prosperity of the nation had much to do with water transportation by canal, that he obtained a leave of absence while he was still commander of the Revolutionary Army, that he might start the survey for the waterway with which he hoped to connect the waters of the Chesapeake Bay with the unsalted Ohio. The project was never realized, even in part, until long after his death, but today the canal is a carrier of trade between Cumber-

land, Maryland, and Georgetown, in the District of Columbia. It derives its water partly from the Potomac, and if deepened would be of much importance to the national capital. It has for years been under railroad control. The Government has now placed additional boats upon it and the lock crews are working night and day. The channel is becoming as busy as it was in Civil War days, when eight hundred boats, ten times the number which it had when the Federal authorities took charge, were in constant operation. Another of the old-time ditches, the Albemarle and Chesapeake, has been bought by the Government and is being enlarged. . . . All through the Middle West there is a demand for the giving back of the canals. Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, and in fact all those States created from the old Northwest Territory which General Washington hoped to benefit by the system he had conceived, are bitterly regretting the arrested development of their artificial waterways. Although the canals in these regions had been much neglected, and some of them damaged by floods, there is no reason why they should not be dredged and extended. The impounding of waters in the Buckeye State, for instance, has made it necessary to build large reservoirs which could be made to serve the purpose of a revived canal system. All those channels could be used in the transportation of food, coal, and bulky merchandise. Originally conceived by the Father of His Country and often called 'The Washington Highway,' the proposed Lake Erie and Ohio River Canal would be an important line of communication should the Federal authorities decide to construct it, as provided by a bill introduced in the United States House of Representatives. The channel would extend from the Ohio River, at the mouth of the Beaver, about twenty-eight miles from Pittsburgh, thence by way of the Beaver and Mahoning Rivers, the valley of the Mosquito Creek and the Valley of the Grand River to the mouth of Indian Creek, which discharges into Lake Erie six miles from Ashtabula. Its length would be 101 miles. This canal, on account of the important territory which it would tap, would be of great value to the State of Ohio, which formerly had a canal system that was an asset to the commonwealth. It would open the way for the rehabilitation of the important sluice which once ran down the middle of the land of Buckeyes. It would give a new lease of life to even the slumbering Hocking and make Logan and Athens again ports of the inland straits. The people of Pennsylvania would also welcome such a plan, for they well know the worth of canals in days like these. The canalized Monongahela River alone transported millions of tons of coal which kept the great munition plants of Pittsburgh, as well as the industries of peace, on full time and more, when the glut of traffic by rail would have stopped the supply of fuel. The commerce of the Mississippi and Ohio Valleys has long been in need of better inland waterways to supplement the wonderful facilities afforded by the Father of Waters and the Great Lakes. James J. Hill, astute railroad man and master builder of the Empire of the Northwest, years before his death favored the canals and the rivers as aids—not foes—of the railroad."—*Review of Reviews, Sept., 1918, pp. 298-302.*—In 1919 the old Chesapeake and Delaware canal was taken over by the United States government. It is fifteen miles long and connects Delaware City on the Delaware with Chesapeake City, Maryland. When enlarged it will form a link in the great inland waterway extending from Philadelphia to Norfolk, Virginia.

New Orleans' canal (1918-1922).—"New Or-

leans has for more than a century been planning to build a ship canal to connect the Mississippi River with the Gulf. It would cut the distance to the Gulf in half, would enable cheaper wharf construction, and furnish a fixed-level waterway for the development of industries. New Orleans finally began the work on May, 1918. The immediate cause was the Government's call for ships, more ships, yet more ships. Two (ship) yards were begun alone; the right of way of the canal before actual work on the latter had itself got started. Both have launched ships—the largest built in the South. . . . The Board of Port Commissioners of New Orleans, a state body, is building the Industrial Canal or Inner Harbor as it is called. The bonds are guaranteed by the state of Louisiana; the interest by the Levee Board and the Public Belt Railway of New Orleans. The George W. Goethals organization of New York, consulting engineers, have charge of the work. . . . Twelve million dollars have been spent on the work to date (March, 1920). The job is about 85 per cent complete, though the character of what remains to be done is such that the Canal cannot be finished before the middle of 1921. . . . The Industrial Canal when completed will be 300 feet wide, 30 feet deep and six miles long. Twenty-six feet deep now and reaching from the lake to the lock-site, just half a mile from the river, the canal itself is nearly finished. The building of the lock is the big work ahead. This is an engineering problem relatively more hazardous than the Panama Canal locks, according to engineers on both big jobs. Soil conditions thought unconquerable had to be met. This region of Louisiana is underlaid by quicksands and natural gas. The threefold pressure of the earth, the river and gas forces the sands into the cut wherever a deep excavation is made. The deeper the excavation, the greater the flow of sand. To accommodate modern tonnage, a lock had to be designed 1020 feet long, 150 feet wide, and 68 feet deep. The floor of the lock had to be laid 45 feet below the surface of the ground. Such an excavation had never been made in this region. Many engineers said it was impossible—or could only be done at a cost that would frighten the Government. Goethals began an excavation 1500 feet long by 750 feet wide. He sloped the cut towards the center gradually, to prevent slides. At the beginning of the cut, he drove a ring of sheet piling, to stop the flow of the first stratum of quicksands. A hundred and fifty feet farther in, he drove another ring of sheet piling, to stop the flow of the second stratum of quicksands. Then he addressed himself to the serious task of sinking the excavation for the lock itself. Ground conditions proved more difficult than had been anticipated. The sides of the excavation began to cave in, the quickstands ran through the cracks in the sheet piling as fast as the dredge could pump them out, and the gas pressure threatened to blow in the bottom. Thirty feet of water was pumped into the excavation. Its weight balanced the pressures. This was in May, 1919. Then a number of 10-inch artesian wells with gravel filters to hold back quickstands, were driven to relieve the gas pressure; a ring of steel sheet piling was put down, and a remarkable series of braces, composed of 10-inch timbers running in both directions, was constructed to hold the steel piling in place. On top of these braces the pile drivers were erected, and they proceeded to drive the 14,000 60-foot foundation piles into the water, as deep as they could. In January, 1920, the lock site was unwatered very gradually, A corps of engineers and experts watched every

timber. Everything held; the gas pressure was relieved, the flow of quicksands stopped; the problem was solved. Piledrivers are now following down the foundation piles, and the work of pouring the 100,000 yards of concrete that will be needed to build the lock begun. Three railroad trestles have been thrown over the lock site, and over them the concrete trains pass, dropping their four cubic yards each. It is estimated that the concrete will be put in at the average rate of 400 cubic yards a day. The floor of the lock will be 10-12 feet thick, and laid in 15-foot sections, because only a few of the braces can be removed at a time. The walls will be 13 feet thick at the bottom sloping to a thickness of two feet at the top. Six thousand tons of reinforcing steel will be needed and 125,000 barrels of cement. Two and a half million feet of lumber will be used in building the forms. The total cost of the concrete will be about \$2,225,000."—T. E. Dabney, *New Orleans industrial canal* (*Scientific American*, March 20, 1920, pp. 304, 314). —At the close of 1921 it was estimated that the canal would be opened for traffic in July, 1922.

PRINCIPAL EUROPEAN CANALS

Belgium.—"Among the countries of Europe in which inland navigation plays an active part in the commercial and industrial enterprise of the nation Belgium occupies a foremost place, the total length of its navigable waterways amounting to 1,360 miles. As the total area of the country is only 11,373 square miles, there is the high proportion of 1 mile of waterway to every 8 1/3 square miles of territory. . . . The great port and distributing centre, Antwerp, may well be considered as the heart of this system, since it is on this point that all the main arteries and their subsidiary channels converge. It is from Antwerp that the elements of industrial life, namely, raw materials, received from all parts of the world, are sent forth by canal to be distributed throughout the country, and the same canal system serves in due course for the redistribution of the materials as manufactured articles of commerce. . . . Not content with the great advantages provided by Nature for internal communication by water, the people of Belgium saw in their rivers a basis whereon to found a far-reaching network of canals. . . . About 85 per cent. of the navigable waterways are under the direct control of the State, and it is in addition a large shareholder in the canals conceded to private companies. The remainder of the canals are locally administered. . . . Taking the system as a whole, it can be divided into two parts. First, the eastern division, the west boundary of which is formed by the Brussels-Rupel and Brussels-Charleroi Canals. These canals, together with the Rupel and Lower Scheldt, the Canal de Jonction de la Meuse à l'Escaut, the Maastricht - Bois - le - Duc and Maastricht - Liège Canals, the Meuse and the Sambre, form a complete circle, and bind together the important centres of Brussels, Charleroi, Namur, Liège, Maastricht (Holland) and Antwerp. They also place in communication by water the central coal fields of Charleroi, the lead and zinc mines in the neighbourhood of Liège and Namur, the stone quarries in the province of Liège and in the district between the Sambre and Meuse. This circle has two offshoots, the Louvain-Rupel and Hasselt branch canals, which run in towards the centre and traverse industrial and agricultural districts."—C. Hertset, *Report on the canals and other navigable waterways of Belgium* (*Diplomatic and consular re-*

ports, Belgium, Misc. Series No. 604, Apr., 1904, pp. 3, 4, 17). The Louvain Canal is a ship canal, navigable by vessels of 500 tons. It connects the busy manufacturing towns of Louvain and Malines on the Dyle, and serves as an exit for agricultural produce.

British Isles.—There are indications of a great revival of canal usage in Great Britain. Since 1905, there has been practically no change in the traffic, but the World War has again pointed out the advantages of canals, a royal commission on canals and waterways having reported favorably on the modernizing and nationalizing of the British canal systems. In England the principal canals are:

Manchester ship canal	mileage	37½
Birmingham canal	"	159
Grand Junction canal	"	189
Leeds and Liverpool canal	"	145
Thames River (London bridge to Inglesham)	"	144
Trent and Mersey canal	"	119
Aire and Calder navigation	"	85

The Trent and Mersey canal was built in the middle of the eighteenth century through the efforts of James Brindley, an engineer, whose lack of education was more than compensated by his intuitive genius. He first came into prominence by overcoming almost unsurmountable difficulties in the construction of the Worsley Manchester canal, carrying the canal at an elevation of thirty-nine feet over the river Irwell at Barton by means of an aqueduct. In Scotland, interest in improved waterways is reviving, especially in the long debated project of a canal connecting the firth of Forth and the firth of Clyde, thus eliminating practically a 400-mile route around the rough north coast of Scotland. The largest canal in Scotland is the Caledonian, extending from Inverness to Fort William. In Ireland there is the Grand canal connecting Dublin with the river Shannon. It is 165 miles long. The most important of the British canals, however, is the Manchester ship canal promoted in 1757 by the duke of Bridgewater and then from time to time enlarged and improved.

The Manchester canal running from the Mersey at Eastham, to Manchester, is thirty-five and a half miles long, twenty-eight feet deep (old depth twenty-six feet), and has a bottom width of 120 feet. It was begun in 1887 and opened for traffic in 1894. It is built in four reaches and connected by three sets of locks at Latchford, Islam, and Barton. The canal is one of the most remarkable of artificial waterway achievements in existence. Its most notable structure is the swing aqueduct by which the Bridgewater canal is carried over the Manchester canal. The aqueduct opens like a swing-span drawbridge, permitting vessels with masts to pass through.

Finland. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Finland.

France.—France early began to add to her natural waterways. The greatest of her earlier canals was the Languedoc, connecting the bay of Biscay with the Mediterranean sea. It was 148 miles long and first opened in 1668. In later centuries it was extended and improved, until the present canal du Midi is 255 miles long. Of the 3,030 miles of canals in France, the state owns and operates 2,860 miles, no tolls having been charged since 1888. "Although engaged in a gigantic conflict which has called forth every military and practically every industrial resource at her command, [France] found time to bring to a successful con-

summation a great engineering undertaking, namely, the Rhone-Marseilles Canal. . . . Marseilles is France's great port of entry for the Mediterranean Sea, although Nature caused it to be walled off from Central France by a mountainous range that sweeps around the northern side of the city. Before the advent of railroads the question of providing a waterway between the port of Marseilles and the important industrial cities in the interior was a much mooted one. As early as 1820 a canal was officially proposed by Becquey, the then director of bridges and roads. With the appearance of railroads the project was momentarily forgotten, although in the intervening years it was constantly before the French Government. But it was not until 1904 that the proposals gave way to actual work on the canal. On May 7th, 1916, in the presence of a distinguished gathering of members of the Cabinet and other officials, the Rhone-Marseilles Canal was officially opened. The total length of the canal is 60 miles, and it has for its main feature a five-mile tunnel through a mountain. Leaving the port of Marseilles, the canal follows the coast line up to the point where the tunnel is entered. Emerging at the other end of the tunnel, the canal utilizes two salt-water lakes, the larger being the Etang de Berre, finally debouching into the Rhone at Arles. The canal in the sections on a straight line is 82 feet in width, with a depth of water of 6 feet 6 inches; the normal depth, however, is 8 feet 2 inches. Between Marseilles and the Etang de Berre it is 9 feet 10 inches, the reason for the greater depth in this section being that larger craft, such as sea-going barges, will pass through it because of the prospective development of a number of industrial establishments on the salt-water lake. From this fact it may be assumed that goods in many instances will be transhipped from the larger barges to smaller craft that ply the Rhone River. The locks of the canal are 52 feet 6 inches in width at the entrance and 525 feet in useful length. Throughout, the canal has been constructed to accommodate barges up to 600 tons capacity, and it is believed that these craft will be able to travel up the Rhone, Saône and Doubs rivers, or a total distance of 335 miles, without breaking bulk. That portion of the canal which pierces the mountain range and is known as the tunnel of the Rove was first designed for a width of 50 feet at the springing of the arch, and was to have a towing path 4 feet 11 inches in width, forming a bracket, over the whole length. Fearing that difficulty might arise when two barges passed each other, the Marseilles Chamber of Commerce requested that the tunnel should be wider, with the result that it has been given a span of 72 feet 2 inches, with two side paths, 6 feet 6 inches in width each, leaving 50 feet for the canal width."

—*Scientific American*, May 20, 1916, p. 524.

Germany.—Kiel Canal.—Waterway across Europe.—Link between North and Black Seas.—Connections between Rhine and Danube.—“In 1805, after eight years of hard work, the great canal running from the mouth of the Elbe, in the North Sea, to the Fjord of Kiel, in the Baltic, a distance of about sixty miles, was thrown open to commerce. [See GERMANY: 1805 (June).] It had a normal width of 72 feet at the bottom and 220 at the water level, with a depth of 29½ feet. Although a sea-level canal, twin locks were built at each end, those at the western entrance to take care of the large tide variations, and those at the eastern end to take care of variations of water level, in the practically tideless Baltic, due to gales. The locks were 492 feet long, 82 feet wide, and 32 feet deep. The locks at Kiel re-

mained open most of the time, while those at the mouth of the Elbe did not need to be used at certain tides. The canal proved wonderfully valuable to commerce, because it saved the long, hazardous trip around the stormy coasts of Denmark. But its strategic value to the German navy was of even greater importance. Although the locks, when built, were large enough to take almost all vessels, they were outgrown in time, even by warships, and finally it was decided [1907] to reconstruct the canal, making it broader and providing locks that could take the largest vessel afloat, with plenty of room to spare. This work was completed [1914] in time to be of incalculable value to Germany in the . . . [World War]. The normal width of the canal is now 335 feet at the surface and 144 at the bottom, with a depth of 36 feet. New twin locks have been built alongside the old ones at each end. They have an available length of 1,082.6 feet and width of 147.6 feet. Intermediate gates may be used to cut off a chamber 328 feet long. The locks at Panama, it will be recalled, are only 1,000 feet long by 110 feet wide.”—*Reconstruction of the Kiel Canal (Scientific American, v. 117, Sept. 19, 1914, p. 232)*.—In 1900 another route connecting the Baltic and North seas was completed, this time joining the Elbe and Trave rivers. This route, however, is suited for smaller craft only. The Main canal, begun in 1883 was completed in 1886, while the Spree-Oder canal was opened in 1891. See GERMANY: 1900 (June).

“Instinctively one links the Mississippi and the Missouri rivers; years to come may find us regarding the Danube and the Rhine in the same way,” is the comment of a National Geographic Society bulletin upon a plan to cut a steamship waterway from the North Sea to the Black Sea. A ‘waterway across Europe’ . . . already exists, though travelers through a small section of it might have to resort to very small craft. . . . [This route] lies along the Rhine to Mainz, up the . . . Main, to Bamberg, thence through the Regnitz, into the Ludwig Canal to the Altmühl, which empties into the Danube at Kelheim. Vessels of more than 1,000 tons can go up the Rhine and Main to Frankfort; and vessels between 400 and 1,000 tons can go up the Danube as far as Ratisbon. Kelheim, the Danube end of the small river-canal link with the Rhine, is only twelve miles southwest of Ratisbon. Above Frankfort, to Würzburg, vessels between 400 and 1,000 tons can traverse the Main. The trouble with this route . . . is the extremely circuitous course between the Rhine and the Danube. A projected shortening . . . contemplates passing the confluence of the Rhine and the Main, continuing up the Rhine to Mannheim, thence into the Neckar and into the proposed canal from that point to connect with the Danube near Offingen.

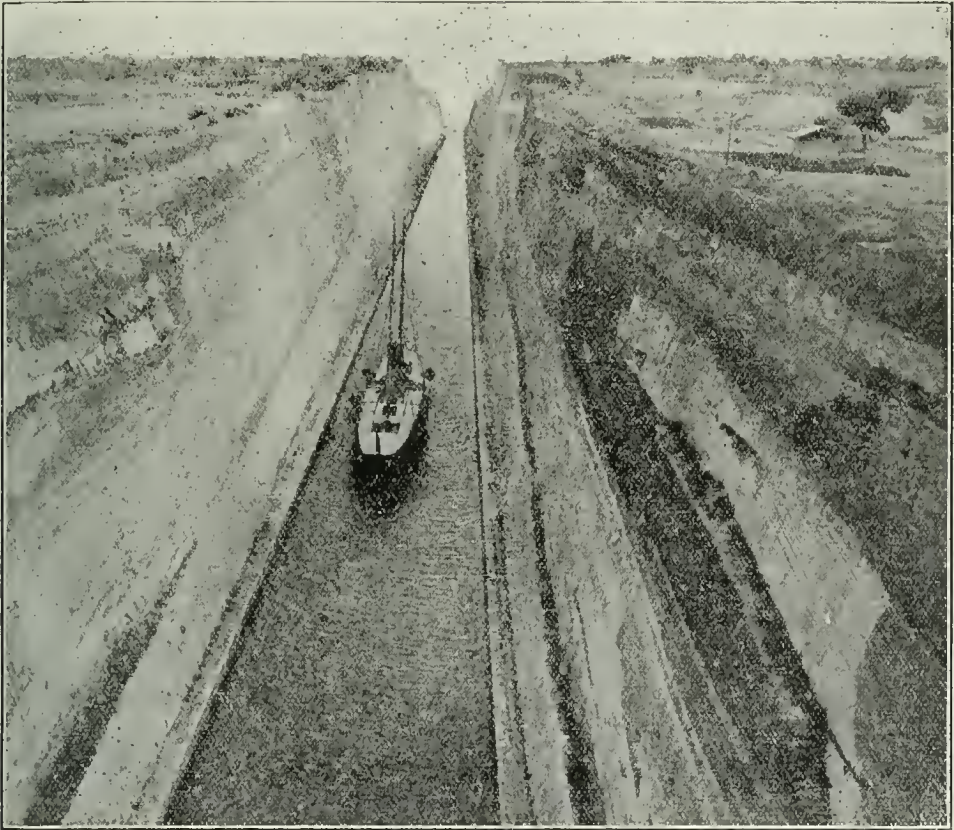
“Completion of the project for this deep waterway across Europe would make the Rhine-Danube route one of the most important commercial highways of the world—ranking in economic importance with the Panama and Suez canals, and in extent with the Mississippi-Missouri channel and the tremendous navigable length of the Amazon.”—*New York Globe, Mar., 1922*.

Greece.—The Corinth ship canal was first undertaken by Nero in 67 A. D. In 1881 a French company undertook work on the same canal. Subsequently the Greeks managed to obtain control of it and it was completed under the Hungarian engineer Gerster and opened to traffic in 1893. The canal cuts the isthmus of Corinth, connecting the gulf of Corinth with the Saronic gulf. It is

four miles long; 70 feet wide and 26 feet deep.

Holland.—In Holland one finds the greatest system of canals in existence. Canalization was begun at a very early date and been carried on, down through the centuries. The great sea canals, however, date from the nineteenth century. "When it was discovered after the great Peace . . . [of 1815] that commerce would be carried in ships too large for navigating the Zuyder Zee, the merchants of Amsterdam were confronted with the prospect of finding themselves cut off from the outer world. To obviate this calamity, King William I sanctioned and encouraged the construction of the North Canal, which commences at Tolhuis (the

canal of larger dimensions through the narrow isthmus west of Amsterdam. . . . The new [Amsterdam canal] is called the North Sea Canal, and has a length of 25 kilometres (or 15½ miles) from Amsterdam to the sea at Ymuiden. The breadth of the canal ranges from 65 to 110 yards, and its depth from 23 to 26 feet. . . . The entrance to the canal from the sea is protected by three powerful locks, and two piers projecting over 1,500 yards out to sea guard the approach and afford a further barrier against silting and corrosion. Powerful dredges are also more or less continuously at work to keep the navigable channel clear. Two lighthouses stand at the extremities



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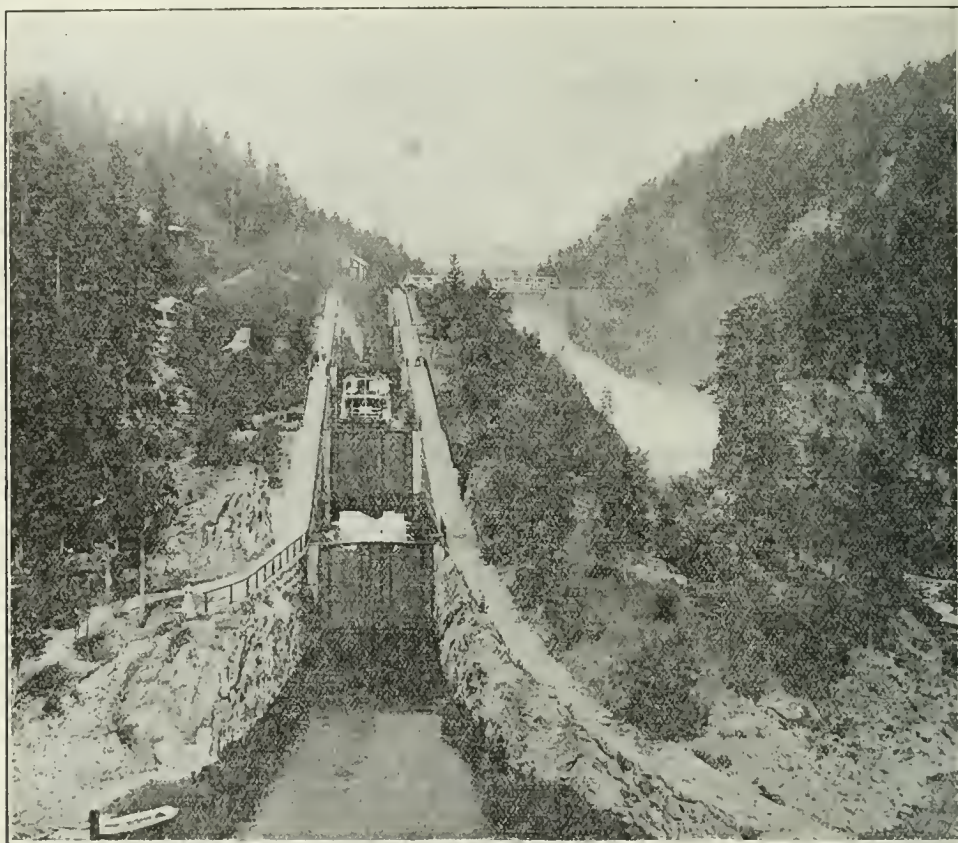
SHIP GOING THROUGH CORINTH CANAL

Toll House), opposite Amsterdam, and traverses North Holland from south to north. At Tolhuis is the great lock called Willemsslus, and at Wormerveer the canal takes a western bend to utilise the old lake of Alkmaar, whence the canal may be traced due northwards to the Helder. Alkmaar is also connected by water with Zaandam through the Marker Vaart canal and the Zaan stream. The construction of this canal was commenced in 1819, and completed in 1825. . . . Its breadth varies from 40 to 45 yards, and it has a uniform depth of 20 feet. Its surface is throughout below the level of the sea, at some places as much as 10 feet. The total length of the canal is 75 kilometers, or nearly 47 miles. But after thirty years had passed it was found that the North Canal did not suffice for the requirements of one of the greatest ports in the world. It was decided to pierce a new

of the piers. The cost of the undertaking was borne by the city of Amsterdam and the State, but the sale of the reclaimed land reduced the burden by about ten million florins. Remarkable as the North Sea Canal was at the time of its construction, and confident as people were in 1876 that a depth of 26 feet would suffice for the requirements of the largest ships indefinitely, the development of large steamers has falsified these anticipations, and the North Sea Canal requires deepening and widening. A scheme was accordingly drawn up and approved [in 1908], and work was commenced."—D. C. Boulger, *Holland of the Dutch*, pp. 53, 54, 55.—"A new lock is being built, and this will be: long 400 meters, wide 45 meters, deep 11.5 meters."—J. J. Feith, *Modern Holland*, p. 162.—In other words, the lock will be even larger than those at Panama, while its depth is

even greater than the average depth of the North Sea. "These are the two principal sea-canals in Holland. There is a third of minor importance in the Reitdiep, which gives access to Groningen from the Lauwer Zee. The canalisation of the different waterways between the islands forming the Zeeland archipelago comes under the same head. Among the more important may be named the South Beveland Canal, which connects as it were the western and eastern arms of the Scheldt; the Keete Canal separating the islands of Tholen and Duiveland; the Dordsche Kil and the Noord channels of the Meuse forming the approaches to Dordrecht and Rotterdam from the south. These

with the dredging of the river a start was made with the construction of the foundation of the guiding dam along the whole projected length of 700 metres. It consists of fascines which as far as possible [were] covered with sand during the course of construction. The dam was at first built up to a height of $3\frac{1}{2}$ metres. . . . Altogether 180,000 square metres of mattress of brushwood and 00,000 tons of stone were employed in constructing the foundation. The expenditure incurred was about fl. 640,000.—In the spring of 1911 the building of the superstructure was commenced. When a length of 120 metres had been completed a great storm destroyed it on September 30th, 1911. In



BANDACK-NORDSJO CANAL, NORWAY

Showing steamer ascending through series of locks

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canals are flanked by very high embankments which completely cut off all view of the surrounding country."—D. C. Boulger, *Holland of the Dutch*, p. 55.—"By the Act of May 25th, 1908, the required funds were voted by which Rotterdam was ensured of a waterway with a continuous fairway at least 100 metres wide and with a depth of 8 metres at low water, or $9\frac{1}{2}$ at high water. . . . Immediately the bill was passed, large masses of earth were removed so that already in 1900 a fairway 8 metres in depth at low water and 10 at high water had been secured from end to end of the Waterway. Submerged dams and longitudinal dams with a total length of $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilometres were also constructed. . . . From 1909 to 1913 7,500,000 cubic metres of earth were dredged in the river between Krimpen and the extremity of the cutting at the Hook of Holland. . . . Simultaneously

the following spring the completion of the guiding dam was once more taken in hand, but with some alteration in the profile. . . . The superstructure of the dam for a length of 370 metres was completed in the autumn of 1914. . . . Dredging of the 'Zuidwal' was carried out on a large scale simultaneously with the execution of the works just mentioned."—A. T. De Groot, *Waterway from Rotterdam to the Sea*, 1914, pp. 47, 48, 49, 50.—"The larger number of Dutch canals, however, are not sea or salt-water canals. . . . They were made first of all to control and turn into distinct channels the great volume of water coming from the overflow of the rivers Rhine and Meuse. The accumulation of canals at Amsterdam where there are six lines of water circumvallation, one ring within the other, is a striking instance of the way in which the flood waters have been regulated and

made amenable to human direction. But the bulk of them were constructed from the motive of providing the country with the cheapest form of transport. In much of Holland roads could only have been laid down with great difficulty and at much cost, and they would have left the great problem of dealing with an excess of water untouched and unsolved. The Dutch realised that canals accomplished the double purpose of providing routes and diminishing the volume of water that had to be dealt with. . . . The most important of these canals—the arteries of Dutch activity—are those called the South William, the Orange, the Dieren, the Drenthe, and the Terneuzen. The first of these . . . connects with the Noorden Canal near Weert, and through it effects a junction with the canal de la Campine, in Belgium. The last-named canal is more correctly designated that of the Scheldt-Meuse, and reaches the Meuse at Maastricht. The eastern branch of the William Canal reaches the Meuse at Roermond. The Orange and the Drenthe Canals connect with the Reiddiep and the Yssel, thus giving Groningen direct communication by water with the Rhine. The Dieren Canal connects that place with Apeldoorn and Zwolle. The Terneuzen Canal flows between the Scheldt and Ghent, half of it being in Belgian and the other in Dutch territory. The canal is less than 30 miles in length. . . . Terneuzen is in Dutch Flanders, rather nearer Flushing than Antwerp.”—D. C. Boulger, *Holland of the Dutch*, pp. 55, 57.—“The principal communication between Amsterdam, the south of the country and Germany is formed by the Meriwede Canal, which is navigable by the largest Rhine vessels.” [This canal unites with both the Rhine river and the North Sea canal.]—J. J. Feith, *Modern Holland*, p. 164.—The total mileage of Holland’s canal system is 2,408, the whole country being described as a network of waterways, natural and artificial.

Italy. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: Italy: B. C. 800-A. D. 1915.

Norway.—“On account of her numerous rivers and lakes, Norway affords considerable opportunity for boat communication. Owing to the large waterfalls and numerous rapids, however, . . . not only are continuous navigable lengths seldom found, but the difficulties in making improvements are very great. . . . Of the canals that have been built the more important are the Frederikshald, the Nordsjo-Skein, and the Bandak-Nordsjo. Of these, the Frederikshald (opened in 1877), provides a waterway of 47 miles long, [from Frederikshald on Lake Femsjoen to the most northerly part of Skulerend Lake in Holland. This canal, which has twelve locks, admits boats of 5.6 ft. draught]. The Nordsjo-Skien canal connects the Lake Nordsjo and the Hiterdal Lake, which is connected with it by means of a navigable river—with the head of the Skien Fjord. A fall of 50 feet is overcome by means of two locks in Skien and four at Loveids. The canal was opened for traffic in 1861. . . . The Bandak-Nordsjo canal [opened in 1802] connects Nordsjo with the Bandak Lakes, and thereby opens up an inland waterway 65 miles in length, from the sea at Skien into the very heart of the mountains at Dalen at the end of Lake Bandak . . . [187 feet] above the level of Lake Nordsjo. . . . Five of the locks built to overcome this height are at Vrangfos.”—S. Konow and K. Fischer, *Norway*, pp. 458, 459.

Russia.—Peter the Great was the builder of the first important Russian canals. He connected his capital on the Neva with the Caspian sea by way of the Volga in order to effect an easier and quicker passage to the caravan trade of Asia. In later years

connection was made with ports situated on the Arctic ocean, between the Black and Caspian seas, and the Dniester was connected with the Vistula river, the latter project involving 461 miles of waterway. In 1884 there was constructed the Cronstadt-St. Petersburg (now Petrograd) canal 18¾ miles long and 22 feet deep. It was later dredged to a depth of 28 feet. In 1912 the reconstruction of the Moriinsky canal was decided upon, it being planned to construct five new locks on the Sheksna river.

Sweden.—West Göta Canal.—The West Göta canal unites the Cattegat with the Baltic through lakes Venner and Vetter. Between Lake Venner and the Cattegat the river Göta is navigable, except for the falls of Trolhätten which are passed by a series of locks. For the passage between Lakes Venner and Vetter, twenty locks are necessary to raise the canal 300 feet over the height of land, and lower it 289 feet to the level of lake Vetter.

ASIATIC CANALS

Suez canal.—“The construction of the famous ‘ditch in sand’ known as the Suez Canal marked a triumph of diplomacy rather than of engineering skill. Before its promoter, Ferdinand de Lesseps, could have the work of excavation started he had to secure the consent of the Viceroy of Egypt, and this had to be given against the wishes of the Egyptian people. In addition he had to overcome the obstacles placed in his way by the British and had to persuade prospective stockholders that the accounts of difficulties existing in the canal zone were unfounded. The work of digging the Suez Canal [about 100 miles in length, crossing the Isthmus of Suez from Port Said on the Mediterranean to Port Thewick on the Red Sea] began in 1859 and was completed in 1869. Nearly all of the material to be removed was soft, and the line of the canal extended through an extremely flat region; excavation was, therefore, not a difficult matter. Under the original agreement the Egyptian government was to supply 80% of the labor. This led to a system of forced employment, and when about one third of the work was completed the Viceroy interfered, and the use of forced labor was abolished. This was a very fortunate occurrence for the canal company since it led to the introduction of power dredges and other machinery, and hastened the work greatly. Previous to this the material had been scooped by hand into the baskets in which it was carried away. The total cost of construction was about \$100,000,000, or \$1,000,000 per mile. The canal has a width of 328 feet at the water line and 100 feet at the base and has an average depth of 26 feet. Since there is no appreciable difference between the levels of the two bodies of water which it connects, there are no locks. It has been widened and deepened since it was first constructed so that now ships may pass at any point. In 1887 electric lights were installed so that ships might use the canal at night. Retaining walls have been built in some places and it is planned to have them along the entire length of the canal. So unstable are the sandy banks that vessels have to reduce their speed greatly in order to prevent the sides from being washed away. There are no slides to interfere with the passage of vessels but the wind carries so much sand into the channel that dredges are at work constantly to prevent its being filled. From 14 to 18 hours are required for the passage through the 100 miles of the canal. . . . The canal was opened at about the time that sailing vessels were being generally re-

placed by steam ships. The great saving in distance which it effected caused it to be used by the large vessels and resulted in a decline in the use of sailing ships. It reduces the distance from England to Bombay over 6,000 miles, and the distance from New York to Bombay 2,500 miles. During the first years in which the canal was used it did not pay expenses but by 1876 it was being used by over 1,400 vessels. At the present time [1916], under normal conditions, about 10 vessels per day pass through it, and two-thirds of them are British owned. Of the separate lines the Peninsular and Oriental is the largest user."—G. Loft, *Suez canal* (*Journal of Geography*, October, 1916, pp. 64-65).—“In November, 1869, [the canal] was opened in the presence of the Emperor and Empress of the French and representatives from every power in the commercial world, and England's old rival in India, flushed with a just pride in the courage and skill of De Lesseps, seemed installed as the patron and guardian of this gateway to the East. It was a gateway infinitely more valuable to England than to France, but its possession was none the less welcome to the proud nation whose triumphs over its island neighbor had been so few since the days of Montcalm or even since Louis XIV. England had had her opportunity, but the caution which so often has been her safety had this time betrayed her, and she apparently had to accept the consequences. Yet it is never safe in politics to accept a foregone conclusion. The emperor who so proudly presided over the ceremonies at Suez was twelve months later a broken and powerless exile. France, smitten and humiliated by the German invasion, by the Commune of '71, by the years of doubt that saw the launching of the Third Republic, was little able to watch over her interests in the East. At Cairo the spendthrift, irresponsible and picturesque Ismail, aided and encouraged by a joyous crew of officials who plundered and reveled at will in a carnival of prodigality, dazzled the astonished world by his splendor, his enterprise, his modern spirit, while he drove his helpless country full tilt toward an abyss of bankruptcy. All went cheerily until ready money began to fail. It became difficult to find capitalists who had a proper spirit of confidence in the Khedive's ability to pay his debts. And so it came about that the embarrassed prince bethought him of the market value of his shares in the Suez Canal, nearly half of which he had secured when the company was first organized. They were offered for sale. . . . Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield, was Prime Minister of Great Britain, and before France had begun to realize what was going on England had remedied her mistake of a few years before and had become the controlling shareholder in the Suez Canal.”—C. F. Lavell and C. E. Payne, *Imperial England*, pp. 276-277.—“In 1875, through the strategy of Disraeli, the majority of the shares of the canal company passed from the hands of the Viceroy [khedive] of Egypt into the control of . . . [the British government]. This has led to the extension of British authority in Egypt so that it is now virtually a part of the British Empire. In 1888 an international convention stipulated that it should be always open, in time of war as well as in time of peace, to all ships of all nations. Great Britain at first concurred with reservations, but in 1904 agreed to accept the stipulations of the convention. England does not police the zone nor does she possess any privileges not enjoyed by other countries, and there are no preferential tolls for British ships. The greatest benefit which the canal has given Great Britain is the connection which it affords with India. Together with Gibraltar, Malta and

Aden, it enables Britain to dominate the Suez-Mediterranean route. This route offers an outlet for the products of India and allows her to enjoy the benefits of the railroads and other improvements which have resulted, from the British regime. As a result of the improvement in communication between England and India the influence of England is more effective and the bond between the two has been greatly strengthened. The importance of the canal to Indian commerce is shown by the fact that about 50% of the traffic is accounted for by that country. . . . By strengthening the commercial ties between the Occident and the Orient the Suez Canal has benefited practically all nations. It has been to the advantage of all interested in the canal that it has been, since 1875, under the control of a nation whose power is so respected that no disturbance or interference with shipping have been possible.”—G. Loft, *Suez canal* (*Journal of Geography*, October, 1916, p. 65).—See also EGYPT: 1808-1001.—During the World War Great Britain violated the stipulations of the convention of Constantinople signed October 28, 1888. In the winter of 1914 the canal was fortified on both sides and 12,000 men brought from Australia, New Zealand, and India to defend it. In February and March, 1915, it was attacked by Turkish forces, but the onslaughts were repulsed.

China.—Grand canal.—The Grand Canal of China, 1,000 miles long, extending from Hang-chow to Peking and including hundreds of miles of subsidiary canals, is not only the largest canal in the world, but the oldest as well. It is estimated that most of the canal was constructed about 2,500 years ago, extensions having been made in the fifth, and again in the seventh centuries. The canal was completed towards the close of the thirteenth century, after being 600 years in construction. The locks are mechanically extremely crude in construction, the design antedating the doubt-gate lock chamber of Leonardo da Vinci. They consist of a set of single stop logs extending across the lock chamber from wall to wall, their ends being embedded in the granite masonry at either side. In 1918 American engineers undertook the project of modernizing the canal with the construction of modern locks for the crude old ones, at the same time effecting a consolidation of several old lifts into one, where topographical conditions permit.—See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: China: B. C. 2207-A. D. 1915.

India. See CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: India: 1350-1639; 1876-1913.

CANARIAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area.

CANARY ISLANDS, a group of islands off the northwest coast of Africa, and constituting a province of Spain. Supposed by some to be the Elysian fields of the Greeks, a supposition which is strongly disputed by many authorities. (See ELYSIAN FIELDS.) The first step in African exploration “was the discovery of the Canary Islands. These were the ‘Elysian fields’ and ‘Fortunate islands’ of antiquity. Perhaps there is no country in the world that has been so many times discovered, conquered, and invaded, or so much fabled about, as these islands. There is scarcely a nation upon earth of any maritime repute that has not had to do with them. Phœnicians, Carthaginians, Romans, Moors, Genoese, Normans, Portuguese, and Spaniards of every province (Aragonese, Castilians, Gallicians, Biscayans, Andalucians) have all made their appearance in these islands. The Carthaginians are said to have discovered them, and to have reserved them

as an asylum in case of extreme danger to the state. Sertorius, the Roman general who partook the fallen fortunes of Marius is said to have meditated retreat to these 'islands of the blessed,' and by some writers is supposed to have gone there. Juba, the Mauritanian prince, son of the Juba celebrated by Sallust, sent ships to examine them, and has left a description of them. Then came the death of empires, and darkness fell upon the human race, at least upon the records of their history. When the world revived, and especially when the use of the loadstone began to be known among mariners, the Canary Islands were again discovered. Petrarch is referred to by Viera to prove that the Genoese sent out an expedition to these islands. Las Casas mentions that an English or French vessel bound from France or England to Spain was driven by contrary winds to the Canary Islands, and on its return spread abroad in France an account of the voyage.—A. Helps, *Spanish conquest in America*, bk. 1, ch. 1.—The Canaries have an area of 3,342 square miles, and a population of about 506,000. The capital is Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, but the court of appeal is in Las Palmas.

ALSO IN: E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, ch. 20, note E.

CANAS, primitive tribe. See PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas.

CANBERRA, or Yass-Canberra, federal capital of Australia, situated in New South Wales. See AUSTRALIA: Map; AUSTRALIA: 1905-1906.

CANBY, Edward Richard Sprigg (1819-1873), American soldier. 1839-1842, second lieutenant in Seminole war; 1846-1847, captain in Mexican war, made major and lieutenant colonel; 1849-1851, assistant adjutant general of Pacific Division; 1851-1855, adjutant general; 1857-1860, in Utah expedition; 1849-1861, commander of Navajo expedition; 1861-1865, held important commands in Civil War, and was made major general; 1868, military governor of South Carolina; 1873, commander of Division of the Pacific. See U. S. A.: 1865 (April-May).

CANCELLI, screen behind which secretarial work of the royal household was done in ancient times. It is commonly thought to be the origin of the word chancellor.

CANCELLIERI FAMILY, influential in the history of medieval Florence. See FLORENCE: 1295-1300.

CANCER (Cancello), Luis (d. 1549), Spanish missionary. See FLORIDA: 1528-1542.

CANCER, name of a class of malignant growths which occur in man and animals. Many researches for its treatment and cure have been made during the past century. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern; 20th century: Study and modern treatment of cancer.

CANCIONEROS, Spanish court poetry. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1200-1500.

CANDAMO, Carlos G., Peruvian statesman, representative at peace conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

CANDAMO, Manuel (d. 1904), Peruvian statesman, president in 1903. See PERU: 1884-1908.

CANDIA, the largest city and former capital of Crete. The name has also been applied to Crete itself.—See also CRETE: 823; TURKEY: 1645-1669.

CANDLE: Development from torch. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Artificial light.

CANDLEMAS, name for an ancient church festival of February 2nd, which is for the purification of the Virgin Mary. In Scotland, this is one of the quarter-days for rent paying. See QUARTER DAYS.

CANEA, the principal seaport and the capital of Crete. It is of Venetian origin. In 1897 it was the scene of severe conflicts between the Greeks and Turks, and a massacre of the Christians by the Moslems resulted. See TURKEY: 1897.

CANGLI, a tribe in early Britain which occupied the westerly part of modern Carnarvonshire. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CANICHANAN INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Inca area; BOLIVIA: Aboriginal inhabitants.

CANIDOLE, small island in the Adriatic sea, which was promised to Italy by the secret treaty of London in 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

CANIENGAS, or Mohawk Indians. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Iroquoian family.

CANNÆ, Battle of (216 B. C.). See PUNIC WARS: Second; ROME: Republic: B. C. 218-202.

Battle of (88 B. C.). See ROME: Republic: B. C. 90-88.

CANNES CONFERENCE (1919). See RED CROSS: 1919-1920: International activities.

CANNES CONFERENCE (1922).—At a meeting between the British and French premiers, Lloyd George and Aristide Briand, the questions of German reparations, European economic rehabilitation and disarmament were discussed, and a decision arrived at to convene a session of the Supreme Council, which subsequently met at Cannes, France, on January 6, 1922. Present were the premiers of Great Britain, France, Italy, Belgium, the Japanese ambassador to France, and Colonel Harvey, United States ambassador to Great Britain. The last-named attended as an official observer on behalf of his government and took no part in the proceedings. The Allied Reparations Committee and large official delegations from the Allied countries were also present. On the first day of the session it was resolved to call the Genoa Conference. (See GENOA CONFERENCE.) Lloyd George reviewed the European situation; a treaty of alliance between France and Great Britain was agreed upon, and plans laid for the formation of an international finance corporation, to be styled the Central International Corporation, and to consist of representatives of France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Belgium and, if willing, the United States. In negotiating the treaty with Great Britain guaranteeing France against German aggression, Premier Briand found it necessary to make some concessions on German reparations. This yielding attitude raised considerable protest in France and stern warnings reached Briand from Paris, with the result that he broke off the conference and returned to Paris for the purpose of consulting with his government. On January 12, after a stormy meeting with his cabinet, Briand resigned and was succeeded by Raymond Poincaré, former President of France. "At the final session of the council formal invitations were issued summoning the nations to the Genoa Conference, regardless of what happened at Paris. . . . The Reparations Commission at this same meeting made its final report of an adjustment of the German payments. The decision stated that the Reparations Commission had decided to grant the German Government a provisional delay for payment of the sums due Jan. 15 and Feb. 15, so far as these payments were not covered by payments in cash or in kind, on certain conditions."—*New York Times Current History*, Feb., 1922, p. 879.

CANNING, George (1770-1827), British statesman. Entered Parliament in 1793. Under-secretary for the foreign office, 1796; left the foreign office and was named one of twelve commissioners

to India, 1799; treasurer of the navy in Pitt's second cabinet, 1804; secretary of state for foreign affairs in the administration of the duke of Portland, 1807-1809; member of bullion committee, 1810; president of the board of control in Lord Liverpool's cabinet, 1816; after death of Castlereagh, foreign secretary and leader of the House of Commons, 1822-1827; 1827, became prime minister. His foreign policy which proved so successful was non-intervention and at least moral support of national and liberal movements in Europe.—See also ENGLAND: 1820-1827; 1830: Reform movement: Rise of popular opinion; INDIA: 1858-1863; U. S. A.: 1823; VERONA, CONGRESS OF.

CANNON, Joseph Gurney (1836-), American legislator. Member House of Representatives 1873-1891, 1893-1913, 1915-1922; speaker 1903-11. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: House: Speaker and the committee system; U. S. A.: 1910 (March-June).

CANNON, a heavy artillery weapon which is fired from a fixed mounting. It was developed through succeeding centuries, and during the World War further perfected, one of the German long range guns bombarding Paris from a distance of seventy-five miles.—See also BIG BERTHA; ORD-NANCE: 14th-18th centuries; RIFLES AND REVOLV-ERS: Origin of small arms.

CANO, Juan Sebastian del (c. 1460-1526), Spanish navigator. He was captain of a vessel trading with Africa and the Levant, and was commander of one of the five vessels in Magellan's expedition. After Magellan's death in 1521 he became chief of the expedition, and, reaching Spain in 1522 with one vessel, was thus the first to circumnavigate the globe. See AMERICA: 1510-1524.

CANON LAW.—"The Canon Law in its widest sense consists of Holy Scripture, the customary laws and usages of the Church, and of constitutions comprising the decrees and decretals of the Popes, the canons of councils, and, to a limited extent, the writings of the Fathers."—J. Dodd, *History of canon law*, p. 161.—In a more restricted sense it is described by Blackstone as being "a body of Roman ecclesiastical law, relative to such matters as that church either has, or pretends to have, the proper jurisdiction over. This is compiled from the opinions of the ancient Latin fathers, the decrees of general councils, and the decretal epistles and bulls of the Holy See."—See also ECCLESIASTICAL LAW: 400-1000; 1915; PAPACY: 1917 (May); VATICAN: Present-day papal administration.

Effect on woman's position. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 300-1400.

Economics in canon law. See ECONOMICS: Middle Ages.

CANONIC SYSTEM, the three tests of truth and reality of the Epicureans, in place of the logic of the Stoics. See EPICUREANISM.

CANONICUS (1565-1647). Indian chief. Sold lands to Roger Williams. See RHODE ISLAND: 1636-1661.

CANONS OF ST. AUGUSTINE. See AUSTIN CANONS.

CANONS OF PTOLEMY. See HISTORY: 14. **CANOODAGTOH**, Indian chief of Conestoga tribe, who in 1701 made a treaty with William Penn. See SUSQUEHANNA.

CANOPUS, British battleship which belonged to Admiral Cradock's squadron, but took no part in the sea fight off Coronel, on the Chilean coast, Nov. 1, 1914; later in the battle off the Falkland Islands, Dec. 7, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: e; f, 1.

CANOPUS, Decree of, an important inscribed stone found in 1865 at San, or Tanis, in Egypt,

which is a monument of the reign of Ptolemy Evergetes, who ascended the throne in 246 B. C. It gives "in hieroglyphics and Greek (the demotic version is on the edge) a decree of the priests assembled at Canopus for their yearly salutation of the king. When they were so assembled, in his ninth year. His infant daughter Berenice, fell sick and died, and there was great lamentation over her. The decree first recounts the generous conduct and prowess of the king, who had conquered all his enemies abroad, and had brought back from Persia all the statues of the gods carried off in old time from Egypt by foreign kings. He had also, in a great threatening of famine, when the Nile had failed to rise to its full amount, imported vast quantities of corn from Cyprus, Phœnicia, &c., and fed his people. Consequently divine honours are to be paid to him and his queen as 'Benefactor-Gods' in all the temples of Egypt, and feasts are to be held in their honour. . . . This great inscription, far more perfect and considerably older than the Rosetta Stone, can now be cited as the clearest proof of Champollion's reading of the hieroglyphics."—J. P. Mahaffy, *Story of Alexander's empire*, ch. 15, note.—See also HIEROGLYPHICS, Egyptian.

CANOSSA, Henry IV at.—In the conflict which arose between the German emperor, Henry IV (then crowned only as king of the Romans) and Pope Gregory VII (the inflexible Hildebrand), the former was placed at a great disadvantage by revolts and discontents in his own Germanic dominions. When, therefore, on February 22, 1076, the audacious pontiff pronounced against the king his tremendous sentence, not only of excommunication, but of deposition, releasing all Christians from allegiance to him, he addressed a large party, both in Germany and Italy, who were more than willing to accept an excuse for depriving Henry of his crown. This party controlled a diet held at Tribur, in October, which declared that his forfeiture of the throne would be made irrevocable if he did not procure from the pope a release from his excommunication before the coming anniversary of its pronouncement, in February. A diet to be held then at Augsburg, under the presidency of the pope, would determine the affairs of the empire. With characteristic energy, Henry resolved to make his way to the pope, in person, and to become reconciled with him, before the Augsburg meeting. Accompanied by the queen, her child, and a few attendants, he crossed the Alps, with great hardship and danger, in the midst of an uncommonly cold and snowy winter. Meantime, the pope had started upon his journey to Augsburg. Hearing on the way of Henry's movement to meet him, not desiring the encounter, and distrusting, moreover, the intentions of his enemy, he took refuge in the strong fortress of Canossa, high up in the rocky recesses of the Apennines. To that mountain retreat the desperate king pressed his way. "It was January 21, 1077, when Henry arrived at Canossa; the cold was severe and the snow lay deep. He was lodged at the foot of the castle-steep, and had an interview with the countess Matilda [mistress of the castle, and devoted friend of the pope], Hugh, abbot of Clugny, and others, in the Chapel of St. Nicolas, of which no traces now remain. Three days were spent in debating terms of reconciliation; Matilda and Hugh interceded with the pope on the king's behalf, but Gregory was inexorable; unless Henry surrendered the crown into the pope's hands the ban should not be taken off. Henry could not stoop so low as this, but he made up his mind to play the part of a penitent suppliant. Early on the morning of January 25 he mounted

the winding, rocky path, until he reached the uppermost of the three walls, the one which enclosed the castle yard. And here, before the gateway which still exists, and perpetuates in its name, 'Porta di penitenza,' the memory of this strange event, the king, barefoot, and clad in a coarse woolen shirt, stood knocking for admittance. But he knocked in vain: from morning till evening the heir of the Roman Empire stood shivering outside the fast-closed door. Two more days he climbed the rugged path and stood weeping and imploring to be admitted." At last, the iron-willed pontiff consented to a parley, and an agreement was brought about by which Henry was released from excommunication, but the question of his crown was left for future settlement. In the end he gained nothing by his extraordinary abasement of himself. Many of his supporters were alienated by it; a rival king was elected. Gathering all his energies, Henry then stood his ground and made a fight in which even Gregory fled before him; but it was all to no avail. The triumph remained with the priests.—W. R. W. Stephens, *Hildebrand and his times*, ch. 11-15.—See also GERMANY: 1056-1122; PAPACY: 1056-1122; ROME: Medieval city: 1081-1084.

ALSO IN: A. F. Villedain, *Life of Gregory VII*, bk. 5.

CANOVAS DEL CASTILLO, Antonio (1828-1897), Spanish statesman, 1858-1861, director general of the administration; 1861, under-secretary of state; 1864, minister of the interior; 1865, minister of finance and the colonies; 1868, banished because of his liberal principles; 1869, returned to active life as leader of the moderate Conservatives, opposed in the Cortes the proposed democratic constitution, and was a leader of the movement which placed Alfonso XII on the throne; 1874, president of the council and chief of provisional cabinet; 1875, at the head of the Liberal-Conservative ministry, the 'Cabinet of Conciliation'; September of the same year, withdrew, but was recalled in December; remained premier until 1879; 1880-1881, 1884-1885, 1890-1892, 1895-1897, again premier. Cánovas changed, in the course of his career, from radical to conservative. August 8, 1897, he was assassinated by an anarchist. See SPAIN: 1874-1875; 1885-1896; 1897 (August-October).

CANSO, Battle at (1744). See NEW ENGLAND: 1744.

CANTABRIANS AND ASTURIANS.—The Cantabrians were an ancient people in the north of Spain, inhabiting a region to the west of the Asturias. They were not conquered by the Romans until the reign of Augustus, who led an expedition against them in person, 27 B. C., but was forced by illness to commit the campaign to his lieutenants. The Cantabrians submitted soon after being defeated in a great battle at Vellica, near the sources of the Ebro; but in 22 B. C. they joined the Asturias in a desperate revolt, which was not subdued until three years later.—C. Merivale, *History of the Romans*, ch. 34.

ALSO IN: T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 8, ch. 2.

CANTEBRIDGE, ancient name for Cambridge. See CAMBRIDGE: Name.

CANTEEN, a place in an army post or encampment for the use of enlisted men, supplying food and refreshments, and serving as reading room and place of recreation. In the United States army, the official name is "post exchange." During the World War the several organizations for relief and welfare established canteens in all parts of France, wherever troops were encamped.—See also WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services:

IX, War relief: g, 8; Y. M. C. A.: World War activities: 1917-1919.

CANTERAC, José (c. 1775-1835), Spanish viceroy of Peru. 1818, went to Peru to quell revolt; 1821-1824, lieutenant general and commander-in-chief of Royalist forces which maintained Spanish authority; 1824, defeated by Bolívar; 1835, after return to Spain, captain general of Castille. See PERU: 1820-1826.

CANTERBURY, a city and county in the borough of Kent, England, on the river Stour. It is the seat of an archdiocese of the church of England, and the city is built about the famous Canterbury cathedral, which existed as a Roman basilica before the coming of St. Augustine. After that time the cathedral was built in part and destroyed by fire, but was really completed about 1495. The Saxon name of the city was Cantwara-byrig, and in the Roman period it was called Durovernum. See CHURCH OF ENGLAND: 19th century; and DUROVERNUM.

597.—St. Augustine's work.—Origin of the primacy. See ENGLAND: 597-685.

1170.—Murder of Thomas à Becket. See ENGLAND: 1162-1170.

1205.—Disputed archiepiscopal election.—Choice of Stephen Langton. See ENGLAND: 1205-1213.

1558.—End of the Catholic archbishopric.—Upon the death of Cardinal Pole, who held office from 1556 to 1558, the Catholic archbishopric closed.

CANTERBURY, Convocation of, assembly of the clergy. See CONVOCATION.

CANTERBURY TALES (1385-1389).—A series of narrative poems, written by Geoffrey Chaucer, in the form of tales related by a company of pilgrims on the road from Southwark to the Shrine of Thomas à Beckett at Canterbury. The pilgrims are introduced in the prologue, and tales and prologue give a valuable description of life in England at the close of the Plantagenet period. The tales established the supremacy of the English tongue over Norman-French, which had been growing for some time, and aided in emancipating the lower classes from monasterial domination. See ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.

CANTIGNY, a village near Montdidier, about 55 miles north of Paris; captured during World War from the Germans by the Americans, May 28, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II: Western front: a, 3; f.

CANTII, a tribe of ancient Britons which occupied the region of Kent. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CANTON, capital of the province of Kwangtung in China, one of the leading cities of that country. (See CHINA: Map.) Its estimated population in 1918 was 900,000. It is one of the chief centers of foreign trade in China.

7th-9th centuries.—Early commercial importance. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 7th-9th centuries.

10th century.—Arab navigators traded with city.

1662-1838.—Commerce with European nations. See CHINA: 1662-1838.

1839-1842.—Opium war.—City captured by the British.—Its port opened to British trade. See CHINA: 1839-1842; OPIUM PROBLEM: 1840.

1856-1857.—Bombardment by the English.—Capture by the English and French. See CHINA: 1856-1860.

1894.—Bubonic plague. See PLAGUE: Bubonic.

1899.—Increasing piracy in the river. See CHINA: 1899.

1911-1921.—Tatar general Fu Ch'i assassinated.—Beginning of Chinese Revolution. See CHINA: 1911 (April-December).

1911-1922.—City the center of the southern movement.

CANTON, a word used by several European countries to designate political subdivisions. In France it is a subdivision of the arrondissement, and a territorial, not an administrative unit. In Switzerland the name is applied to each of the states in the Swiss confederation.—See also ARRONDISSEMENT; SWITZERLAND: Three forest cantons; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Switzerland: 1830-1848.

CANTON-HANKOW RAILWAY: China. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921.

CANTONMENTS, large camps for soldiers, usually provided with substantial wooden barracks, water and sewerage systems, electric lights and many other conveniences of a city. In the World War, America trained her armies in about forty such cantonments, each accommodating from 25,000 to 40,000 men.—See also WORLD WAR: 1917: VIII. United States and the war: i, 5, 6, 7.

The cantonments were located at:

Place	Name
Alexandria, La.	Camp Beauregard
American Lake, Wash.	Camp Lewis
Annapolis Junction, Md.	Camp Meade
Anniston, Ala.	Camp McClellan
Atlanta, Ga.	Camp Gordon
Augusta, Ga.	Camp Hancock
Ayer, Mass.	Camp Devens
Battle Creek, Mich.	Camp Custer
Charlotte, N. C.	Camp Greene
Chillicothe, Ohio	Camp Sherman
Columbia, S. C.	Camp Jackson
Deming, N. Mex.	Camp Cody
Des Moines, Iowa	Camp Dodge
Fort Riley, Kans.	Camp Funston
Fort Sill, Okla.	Camp Doniphan
Fort Worth, Tex.	Camp Bowie
Greenville, S. C.	Camp Sevier
Hattiesburg, Miss.	Camp Shelby
Houston, Tex.	Camp Logan
Linda Vista, Cal.	Camp Kearny
Little Rock, Ark.	Camp Pike
Louisville, Ky.	Camp Zachary Taylor
Macon, Ga.	Camp Wheeler
Mineola, Long Island, N. Y.	Camp Mills
Montgomery, Ala.	Camp Sheridan
Palo Alto, Cal.	Camp Fremont
Petersburg, Va.	Camp Lee
Rockford, Ill.	Camp Grant
San Antonio, Tex.	Camp Travis
Spartanburg, S. C.	Camp Wadsworth
Waco, Tex.	Camp MacArthur
Wrightstown, N. J.	Camp Dix
Yaphank, Long Island, N. Y.	Camp Upton

CANTWARABYRIG, ancient name for Canterbury. See CANTERBURY.

CANULEIAN LAW. See ROME: Republic: 445-400.

CANUTE (c. 905-1035), king of Denmark and England. See ENGLAND: 979-1016; 1016-1042; SCANDINAVIAN STATES: 1018-1397.

Canute II, king of Denmark, 1080-1086.

Canute III, king of Denmark, 1147-1156.

Canute IV, king of Denmark, 1182-1202.

CANZACA, or Shiz, Battle of.—A battle fought 591, by the Romans, under Narses, supporting the cause of Chosroës II, king of Persia, against a usurper Bahram, who had driven him from his

throne. Bahram was defeated and Chosroës restored.—G. Rawlinson, *Seventh great oriental monarchy*, ch. 23.

CAOUTCHOUC, name for india rubber. For its discovery and first manufacture, see INVENTIONS: 10th century; Industry.

CAP OF LIBERTY. See LIBERTY CAP.

CAP TRAFALGAR, German sea-raider. September 14, 1914, in a brisk action off the coast of Brazil, she was defeated and sunk by the converted Cunarder, *Carmania*.

CAPE BRETON ISLAND, a rocky island in British North America, off Newfoundland. See CANADA: Map.

1497.—Discovery by John Cabot. See AMERICA: 1497.

1504.—Named by fishermen from Brittany. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1501-1578.

1713.—Possession confirmed to France. See NEWFOUNDLAND: 1713.

1720.—Hostilities with English in Nova Scotia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1713-1730.

1720-1745.—Fortification of Louisbourg.—After the surrender of Placentia or Plaisance, in Newfoundland, to England, under the treaty of Utrecht (see NEWFOUNDLAND: 1713), the French government determined to fortify strongly some suitable harbor on the island of Cape Breton for a naval station, and especially for the protection of the fisheries of France on the neighboring coasts. The harbor known previously as Havre à l'Anglois was chosen for the purpose. "When the French government decided in favour of Havre à l'Anglois its name was changed to Louisbourg, in honour of the king; and, to mark the value set upon Cape Breton it was called Isle Royale, which it retained until its final conquest in 1758, when its ancient name was resumed." In 1720 the fortifications were commenced, and the work of their construction was prosecuted with energy and with unstinted liberality for more than twenty years. "Even the English colonies contributed a great proportion of the materials used in their construction. When Messrs. Newton and Bradstreet, who were sent to confer with M. de St. Ovide [to remonstrate against the supplying of arms to the Indians in Nova Scotia] . . . returned to Annapolis, they reported that during their short stay at Louisbourg, in 1725, fourteen colonial vessels, belonging chiefly to New England, arrived there with cargoes of boards, timber and bricks. . . . Louisbourg [described, with a plan, in the work here quoted] . . . had, between the years 1720 and 1745, cost the French nation the enormous sum of 30,000,000 livres, or £1,200,000 sterling; nevertheless, as Dussieux informs us, the fortifications were still unfinished, and likely to remain so, because the cost had far exceeded the estimates; and it was found such a large garrison would be required for their defence that the government had abandoned the idea of completing them according to the original design."

—R. Brown, *History of the Island of Cape Breton, letters 9-11.*—"The fort was built of stone, with walls more than 30 feet high, and a ditch 80 feet wide, over which was a communication with the town by a drawbridge. It had six bastions and three batteries, with platforms for 148 cannon and six mortars. On an islet, which was flanked on one side by a shoal, a battery of 30 guns, 28 pounders, defended the entrance of the harbor, which was about 400 yards wide, and was also commanded from within by the Grand or Royal Battery, mounting as many guns, of the calibre of 42 pounds. The fort . . . was a safe rendezvous and refuge for French fleets and privateers, sailing in the Western Hemisphere. It commanded

the maritime way into Canada, and it watched the English settlements all along the coast. It was a standing threat to the great business of New England seamen, which was the fishery on the banks."—J. G. Palfrey, *History of New England*, v. 5, bk. 5, ch. 9.—"So great was its strength that it was called the Dunkirk of America. It had nunneries and palaces, terraces and gardens. That such a city rose upon a low and desolate island in the infancy of American colonization appears incredible; explanation is alone found in the fishing enthusiasm of the period."—C. B. Elliott, *United States and the Northeast fisheries*, p. 18.

1744.—Outbreak of the Third Inter-Colonial war. See NEW ENGLAND: 1744.

1745.—Conquest by New Englanders.—Fall of Louisburg. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745; ENGLAND: 1745-1747.

1748.—Restored to France. See NEW ENGLAND: 1745-1748.

1758-1760.—Final capture and destruction of Louisburg, by the English.—"In May, 1758 [during the Seven Years' War], a powerful fleet, under command of Admiral Boscawen, arrived at Halifax for the purpose of recapturing a place [Louisbourg] which ought never to have been given up. The fleet consisted of 23 ships of the line and 18 frigates, besides transports, and when it left Halifax it numbered 157 vessels. With it was a land force, under Jeffery Amherst, of upward of 12,000 men. The French forces at Louisbourg were much inferior, and consisted of only 8 ships of the line and 3 frigates, and of about 4,000 soldiers. The English fleet set sail from Halifax on the 28th of May, and on the 8th of June a landing was effected in Gabarus Bay. The next day the attack began, and after a sharp conflict the French abandoned and destroyed two important batteries. The siege was then pushed by regular approaches; but it was not until the 26th of July that the garrison capitulated. By the terms of surrender the whole garrison were to become prisoners of war and to be sent to England, and the English acquired 218 cannon and 18 mortars, beside great quantities of ammunition and military stores. All the vessels of war had been captured or destroyed; but their crews, to the number of upwards of 2,600 men, were included in the capitulation. Two years later, at the beginning of 1760, orders were sent from England to demolish the fortress, render the harbor impracticable, and transport the garrison and stores to Halifax. These orders were carried out so effectually that few traces of its fortifications remain, and the place is inhabited only by fishermen."—C. C. Smith, *Wars on the seaboard (Narrative and Critical History of America)*, v. 5, ch. 7).

ALSO IN: F. Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*, v. 2, ch. 19.

1763.—Ceded to England by the treaty of Paris. See SEVEN YEARS' WAR: Treaties which ended the war.

1763.—Added to government of Nova Scotia. See CANADA: 1763-1774.

CAPE COD CANAL. See CANALS: American canals: Cape Cod Canal; MASSACHUSETTS: 1914.

CAPE COLONY. See CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

CAPE COLONY AND NATAL RAILWAYS. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 1914: Summary of European occupation: Modern railway and industrial development.

CAPE FEAR RIVER: North Carolina.—Virginia pioneer settlement. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1630-1663.

CAPE NOME. See NOME.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, a promontory of South Africa, the southern extremity of Table

Mountain. It was discovered about 1488 by Bartholomeu Diaz, the Portuguese navigator.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, formerly Cape Colony. It is the southernmost province of the Union of South Africa with which it was merged on May 31, 1910. The province embraces East Griqualand, Tembuland, Transkei, Wallfish Bay, Pondoland and Buchanaland, in all covering an area of 276,966 square miles. Its estimated population in 1911 was 1,982,588. The region was colonized by the Dutch in 1651 and formally proclaimed British territory in 1814. It suffered severely from the Kafir wars, the war with the Zulus in 1879, and with the Boers in 1880-1881.

Detailed history of the colony. See SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF.

Represented at colonial and imperial conferences. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1894, 1897, 1902, 1907; WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: British imperial defence conference.

Language. See PHILOLOGY: 24.

CAPE ST. VINCENT, Naval battle of. See ENGLAND: 1797.

CAPE SAN JUAN, Engagement at. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-August; Porto Rico).

CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY.—During the years 1897-1900, a young Englishman, a Cambridge student, named Ewart Scott Grogan journeyed on foot from Cape Town to the Mediterranean by way of the Zambezi. This was the first time the Black Continent had been traversed in its entire length; all other "crossings" had been from east to west or *vice versa*. Grogan wrote the story of his remarkable tramp and invited Cecil Rhodes to honor him with a preface for his book. The great South African statesman and financier heartily agreed, and wrote under date of Sept. 7, 1900: "It [Grogan's feat] makes me the more certain that we shall complete the telegraph and railway, for surely I am not going to be beaten by the legs of a Cambridge undergraduate. . . . As to the commercial aspect, every one supposes that the railway is being built with the only object that a human being may be able to get in at Cairo, and get out at Cape Town. This is, of course, ridiculous. The object is to cut Africa through the centre, and the railway will pick up trade all along the route. The junctions to the East and West coasts, which will occur in the future, will be outlets for the traffic obtained along the route of the line as it passes through the centre of Africa. . . . We propose now to go on and cross the Zambezi just below the Victoria Falls. I should like to have the spray of the water over the carriages."—L. Mitchell, *Life of Cecil John Rhodes*, v. II, pp. 287-288.—Rhodes did not live to see the completion of this important link in the pet scheme of his life. He died, March 26, 1902, and in April, 1905, the two spans of the gigantic bridge, begun from opposite shores across the gorge of the Victoria Falls, met in mid-air 420 feet above low-water level and were riveted together. In March, 1899, Rhodes was received by the German Emperor in Berlin, when the latter "was in favour of according Rhodes hearty support in his scheme for carrying his Cape to Cairo line across German territory, but his Ministers could not rely on the Reichstag, 'which was not yet permeated by an imperial spirit.' . . . Finally, however, later in the year, an agreement was arrived at between Germany and the British South Africa Company, dated Berlin, 28th October, 1899, and signed by von Bülow," which stipulated that "(1) In the event of the Company constructing a line across its western boundary or through Bechuanaland at any

point south of 14th degree S. Latitude, such crossing of the boundary shall only take place at a point of the British-German boundary S. of the degree of latitude agreed upon: so that the continuation of the Company's railway system to the West African coast, S. of the 14th degree, shall always pass through German territory. (2) Germany to be bound to link up the rails, in default of which the Company to have the right to build on German territory to the coast. (3) The B. S. A. Company not to connect with the coast north of the 14th degree S. latitude before the other connection is carried out."—*Ibid.*, p. 251.—"The weak point of the proposal to build the Cape to Cairo Railway is that so few people want to go from the Cape to Cairo, and in any case the difficulties of constructing a railway through the swamps of the southern Sudan would be extreme. But the prospects of building the southern portion of the line will be greatly increased if the European colony in East Africa have commercial and other connections with the British possessions in the south. British territory touches the southern end of Lake Tanganyika, and the distance from its northern end to Uganda is not long, though the territory through which the future road or railway would pass is not British."—C. Eliot, *East Africa Protectorate*, pp. 314-315.—See also BELGIAN CONGO: 1914-1916.—As a result of the World War the whole of the route, by land and inland waterways, now lies in British territory. "We have heard much of the 'Cape to Cairo Railway,' a phrase which, after all, when the question is carefully studied, does not mean much. There is little doubt that some day in the future it will be possible to travel by rail from the Cape to Cairo, but for some years to come the needs of Africa in the matter of railways are not so much a north and south through line, as railways going from the interior to the east and west coasts. The present so-called 'Cape to Cairo' railway, starting from Cape Town, has reached Bukama on the navigable upper waters of the River Lualaba, whence there is water communication for some distance towards the north. This railway has tapped the rich copper districts of Katanga, and all traffic to and from that country at present goes as far as Bulawayo, thence to the Portuguese port of Beira on the East Coast. It is evident that the southern stretch of the Cape to Cairo railway has reached its present useful limit; not only does Katanga produce find its way out to the nearest point on the East Coast, Beira, but when the Benguela railway is finished a much quicker and cheaper route will be available for Katanga direct to Lobito Bay on the Atlantic Ocean, and the Cape to Cairo line will probably then be little used by this district. The same may be said for the countries surrounding Tanganyika, which are now tapped by the railway to Dar-es-Salaam and by the Belgian railway from Kabalo to Albertville. The regions north of Nyasa will be tapped by the line I have already spoken of from Kilossa. Lake Mweru trade will probably find its way by the Lobito Bay line. Traffic to and from Uganda and the regions surrounding Lake Victoria already goes to the east coast, to Mombasa. It is only when Lake Albert is passed and the Upper Nile reached that a railway running north will be the best line of communication, and even in this case most goods for the Upper Nile will not go *via* Alexandria, Cairo, or Port Said, but by the existing railway from Port Sudan on the western shores of the Red Sea. Sir Henry Birchenough, in the discussion which followed a paper read before this Society last year, said very truly, 'A railway has to live,

and must go in search of traffic.' There you have the whole matter in a few words. The line from Port Sudan (and Egypt) running to Khartoum and beyond has already reached its limit of usefulness as a north and south railway at Kosti, whence it turns to the west to El Obeid. As I have already mentioned, this line will probably soon be carried on to El Fasher in Darfur; and here we have the possibility of a transcontinental railway east and west. It may possibly be found a reasonable commercial proposition some day to carry on this line from El Fasher through Wadai to Lake Chad, thence to join on to one of the Nigerian railways reaching the Atlantic at Lagos."—A. Sharpe, *Backbone of Africa* (*Royal Geographical Journal*, Sept., 1918).—"Now that the Great War is over and the control of the territory which is still known as German East Africa has passed out of German hands . . . renewed interest will certainly be taken in the realization of Cecil Rhodes' dream—the Cape-to-Cairo Railway. No definite route for it has hitherto been laid out, and, broadly speaking, there is considerable choice of alternatives over the greater part of the distance which still separates the railways of South Africa from those of the Egyptian and Sudan systems. . . . The distance from Capetown to Cairo, as the crow flies, is about 4200 miles. In the popular imagination the Cape-to-Cairo railway of the future no doubt presents itself as a continuous line of railway running more or less straight between these points, with branches connecting the central trunk line with the various ports upon the east and west coasts of the continent. In days to come, I think it far more probable that over the greater portion of this distance it will be more correct to speak of the Cape-to-Cairo system, than of the Cape-to-Cairo line, because there will certainly be a large number of alternative routes over which passengers proceeding between the two terminals will be able to travel. The railway map of South and Central Africa illustrates this point very clearly. As far north as Bulawayo, to which in no very distant future there will certainly be two alternative routes from the south, there is a regular network of railways connecting the chief centres of South Africa, and although the western line to the Cape, running *via* Mafeking and Kimberley, will probably always be somewhat shorter in time from Bulawayo, there can be no doubt that large numbers of passengers coming from the north will proceed south *via* Pietersburg, Pretoria, and Johannesburg, from which in turn they will have a choice of routes to the Cape. There will, moreover, probably be nodal points on the Cape-to-Cairo system through which every traveller will pass, of which one will probably be Bulawayo, and another Khartoum. If the whole route be regarded for convenience as divided into three zones, Bulawayo may be taken as the northern limit of the southern zone, and the north end of Victoria Nyanza as the northern limit of the central zone. In the northern zone, which comprises the country lying to the north of Lake Albert, and so includes Egypt and the Sudan, the geographical conditions are such that there are unlikely to be any large number of alternative routes, such as already exist in the southern zone, and, as I shall show, will probably be established in the central zone. . . . Looking into the future, I am ready to admit that the Cape-to-Cairo system, when constructed, will never be a through route for goods on any considerable scale. It is obvious that sea freight must always be cheaper than railway freight over such a long distance as 4000 miles, and also over much shorter distances. This fact, however, does not

necessarily mean that the commercial usefulness of the various sections of the central system may not be very considerable, nor does it furnish any conclusive reason why the system as a whole should not pay. On the other hand, I question very much whether, in what I have called the central zone, there would be any distinct commercial advantage in providing additional means of communication with the east coast. In this region, all the ports are disadvantageously situated for trade with Europe, because the traffic has to pass *viâ* either the Suez Canal or the Cape of Good Hope. In its southern half a longer haul by land and lake to Beira may quite conceivably be more economical than a shorter journey by land to say Dar-es-Salaam or Kilindini. Similarly in the northern section it is quite possible that, notwithstanding the longer haul, a considerable portion of the Uganda traffic will be able to be dealt with more economically *viâ* Port Sudan than by Kilindini. Again, on the west coast, I doubt whether any considerable traffic from the regions which I have been discussing will ever flow to any west-coast ports to the north of Boma and Lobito Bay, because the geographical position of any port situated further to the north will always handicap it very heavily in comparison with the nearer eastern ports. It may be laid down as an invariable general rule in these matters, that, while passenger traffic will, other things being equal, tend to follow the quickest route, goods traffic will flow by the cheapest."—H. W. Fox, *Cape-to-Cairo Railway* (*Royal Geographical Journal*, Feb., 1920, pp. 73, 76-77, 95).

"Since the word 'Cape' is given precedence in the title bestowed on this proposed railway, which is rapidly progressing towards the point of accomplishment, it seems quite proper to begin at Cape Town in hastily considering the line and its probable bearing upon the permanent development of the whole continent. This last expression is chosen deliberately because it is believed that when the direct connections with other railways that shall act as feeders and the transverse lines with which it will exchange business are considered later, it must be made manifest that the Cape to Cairo Railway is to exert a tremendous influence for good on the whole of Africa. Already the line has been extended so far beyond Bulawayo, in Matabeleland of British South Africa, that passengers can readily go to any part of Rhodesia, and the construction reaches so near the southern end of Lake Tanganyika that already one-third of the lower part is now operated. With the Nile Valley Railway included, fully two-thirds of the Cape to Cairo is completed. While the construction work on this completed southern one-third has not been an easy matter at all, the difficulties are not to be compared with those which face the constructors through the central one-third. Some idea of what must be undertaken by the engineers who are to build a railway along the eastern shore of Lake Tanganyika, and—better yet for the general reader—some hint as to the scenery which is to greet the traveller, may be had from a brief description of this lake. It is the longest known body of fresh water in the world, being four hundred and twenty miles long, or one hundred miles longer than our Lake Michigan (three hundred and twenty miles), and seventy miles longer than Lake Superior; but inasmuch as its breadth ranges only from ten to fifty miles, its area, twelve thousand six hundred and fifty square miles, is much less than those American lakes. . . . From Ujiji, on Tanganyika, where the proposed railway is to leave that lake, to the approximate point

where it is to strike Lake Victoria Nyanza is a distance, as the crow flies, of about four hundred miles. Yet when we remember that the former is twenty-seven hundred feet above sea-level, while the latter is somewhere about four thousand feet, and that the intervening distance forms the watershed between the Nile and the Kongo basins, it need not be said that those four hundred miles present some very pretty problems for engineers in surveying the line and for contractors in building it. It is probable that the traveller by train on the Cape to Cairo Railway will mark a distinct difference in the scenery along the shores of these two great bodies of water, Tanganyika and Victoria Nyanza. Both will be declared rugged and grand, but the latter will be remarked for the richest examples of tropical vegetation to be seen anywhere. The many islands along the coast are said to be clothed with forests and fringed along the shore with papyrus or low jungle. Its surface is quite twice that of Tanganyika, although it is some two hundred miles less in length; its average breadth is two hundred and twenty miles."—J. K. Goodrich, *Africa of to-day*, pp. 292-293.—See also AFRICA: Modern European occupation; 1914: Summary of European occupation; Modern railway and industrial development.

Air route established.—"With the dawn of the year 1920 the British government, through its Air Ministry, stood ready to begin a regular aviation service from Cairo to Cape Town. The total flying distance is about 5,200 miles, most of it over the trackless jungle of equatorial Africa, yet the official announcement of the enterprise places the actual flying time at fifty-two hours, or, say, a week flying eight hours a day. Throughout the year 1919 three British exploring parties were at work surveying and preparing the route, building aerodromes, acquiring landing fields from local chiefs—a year of hard and dangerous work of which the world knew little or nothing. . . . As a result of a year's hard work by these pioneers in the African wilderness, the most uninviting region for airmen in the whole world is now traversed by a fully equipped route, with aerodromes or landing grounds at intervals of 200 miles or less from the mouth of the Nile to the Cape of Good Hope."—*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1920, p. 487.—See also AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service; 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

CAPE TOWN, capital of Cape Colony and seat of the legislature of the union of South Africa. It was founded by the Dutch under Jan van Riebeck in 1652, and was the base from which the colonists spread to other lands of South Africa. See CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILWAY.

CAPE VERDE, or Verde Islands, a group of islands, lying in the Atlantic off the coast of West Africa, west of Cape Verde (see AFRICA: Map). The islands, fourteen in number, belong to Portugal and are under the command of a governor-in-chief. The islands were discovered by Alvise Cadamosto in 1456. In the sixteenth century the islands increased in importance; the first bishop was appointed in 1532, and the first governor-general was appointed at the end of that century. In more recent times the islands' progress has been retarded by famine and disease, particularly the famines of 1730-1733 and 1831-1833. Praia is the capital.

CAPELLE, Eduard K. von (1855-), German vice-admiral. In 1916 he succeeded Tirpitz as secretary of state for the navy; tried to soften submarine policy to meet American views.

CAPELLO, General, in command of the second Italian army in the Isonzo-Caporetto campaign of

1917. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, 1.

CAPERTON, William Banks (1855-), American admiral who became head of the Pacific Fleet in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: c.

CAPET, Hugh (c. 930-996), king of France 987-996. He was a son of Hugh the Great and Hedwig, sister of Otho the Great of Germany; 956, he succeeded his father as Count of Paris; 987, chosen king by nobles and prelates of the realm. See FRANCE: 987.

CAPETIANS, the third dynasty of the French kings, deriving its name from Hugh Capet, crowned 987, the first of the line. Fourteen kings of direct line reigned successively until 1328 and were followed by the collateral branches of Valois, in 1338, Valois-Orleans, in 1408, Valois-Angoulême, in 1515, and Bourbon, 1580-1848, when the second republic was established.—See also BURGUNDY: 888-1032; FRANCE: 861, 987.

Genealogical table. See FRANCE: 1593-1598.

CAPHARSALAMA, Battle of.—One of the victories of the Jewish patriot, Judas Maccabæus

over the Syrian general Nicanor, 162 B. C.—Josephus, *Antiquity of the Jews*, bk. 12, ch. 10.

CAPHTOR, an ancient Phœnician settlement on the coast of the Nile delta. "From an early period the whole of this district had been colonised by the Phœnicians, and as Phœnicia itself was called Keft by the Egyptians, the part of Egypt in which they had settled went by the name of Keft-ur, or 'Greater Phœnicia.'"—A. H. Sayce, *Fresh light from the ancient monuments*, ch. 2.—On the other hand, Ewald and other writers say that "the Philistines came from Caphtor," and that "this now obsolete name probably designated either the whole or a part of Crete."

CAPHYÆ, Battle of.—Fought 220 B. C. between the Achæan and Ætolian leagues.

CAPITAL, defined. See CAPITALISM.

CAPITAL AND LABOR. See SOCIALISM.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT, the extreme penalty of death for offences against the law. It has been practised in almost every country from the earliest times down to the present, in spite of a strong movement for its abolition. See CRIMINAL LAW: c. 1600; 1660-1820; PRISON REFORM: United States.

CAPITALISM

Definition of the term.—Forms of capital.—"Capitalism may provisionally be defined as the organisation of business upon a large scale by an employer or company of employers possessing an accumulated stock of wealth wherewith to acquire raw materials and tools, and hire labour, so as to produce an increased quantity of wealth which shall constitute profit. Wherever in the course of history a conjunction of certain essential economic and moral forces has appeared, capitalist industry in some form and size has existed. These essential conditions may be thus enumerated:—First, a production of wealth not required to satisfy the current wants of its owners, and therefore saved. Second, the existence of a proletariat or labouring class deprived of the means of earning an independent livelihood by putting their productive labour-power into materials which they can freely appropriate, purchase, or hire, consuming or selling the product for their own advantage. Third, such a development of the industrial arts as enables indirect methods of production to afford profitable employment to organised group-labour using tools or machinery. Fourth, the existence of large, accessible markets with populations willing and economically able to consume the products of capitalist industry. Fifth, the capitalist spirit, or the desire and the capacity to apply accumulated wealth to profit-making by the organisation of industrial enterprise. There are, of course, no series of wholly independent conditions. On the contrary, they are closely inter-related. The causes which favour an accumulation of wealth in one class of a nation, or other social aggregate, will commonly assist the formation of a proletariat labour class. The existence of a population capable of generating new wants will help not only to stimulate accumulation, by offering the possibility of large profitable sales, but will also arouse the development of industrial arts, which in their turn will re-act upon the consuming public by provoking new wants. Such an atmosphere of technical progress, alike in the arts of production and consumption, will educate the desire and the capacity of capitalist organisation."—J. A. Hobson, *Evolution of modern capitalism*, pp. 1-2.

"The word capital is commonly current in a restricted sense when the questions of labour and capital are under discussion; but it is important to notice that . . . we must use the word in a wider sense as including commercial capital, and as meaning the fund of wealth which is employed with a view to obtaining an income. Capital may be sunk in land, as it was by men who acquired a hoard in the Middle Ages and used it to buy a rent charge, or in more modern times since the knowledge of agriculture has increased, in sinking money in permanent improvements by which the land may be rendered more productive. It is of course convenient for many purposes to treat the land, and questions connected with the land, apart from capital, but it is important that we should remember that cultivated land is what it is because capital has been sunk in it. There is also commercial capital, from which an income is derived by what were known in the Middle Ages as successful 'ventures'; and the aim of the merchant is to turn over his capital as rapidly as possible. Industrial capital, and all the developments of machinery and organisation which it has rendered possible, may for convenience be classed as a department of commercial capital and as belonging to monied men. There is also the capital of those who do not use their wealth themselves, but lend it to other people in return for the promise to pay a regular income. All these forms of capital, and different social groupings have arisen which would not have been possible unless capital had come into play in these various ways. There are of course forms of social organisation which are appropriate to conditions in which capital does not exist at all; the formation of capital implies the existence of money economy. In countries and in circumstances where natural economy prevails, capital is unknown; but this helps us to notice what is on the whole the characteristic feature of capital; it is the factor which makes for progress. It is of supreme importance in all progressive societies; by the gradual introduction of capital in one or other department of economic life communities have, for good or for evil, been drawn out of contentment with a stationary state and led to enter on a path

of material progress. In the study of early institutions it is of great interest to notice the precise points at which capital effected an entrance and undermined the social arrangements which were based on natural economy. In more advanced communities the amount of capital available and the methods in which it is used, are limiting conditions which control the development of social institutions. The fact that capital has been the main instrument in material progress, enables us to distinguish its beneficial side clearly, from the incidental evils which have arisen in connection with its growth. Capital has enormously increased the power of man over nature; it has enabled him to wring far more from the soil, to introduce extraordinary aids in the manufacture of natural products for human use, and to provide the most wonderful facilities for intercommunication. By doing so it has greatly developed the wealth of communities and their opportunities of using that wealth for encouraging cultured human life; but at every stage of material progress there has been social hardship. The introduction of motors has been prejudicial to grooms and coachmen; and numberless illustrations could be given to show that in the march of progress individuals and classes have been sacrificed. This does not prove that progress is necessarily a bad thing, or that it should have been held back; but it does give us cause to consider, the cost and sacrifice, through which every stage in progress has been attained. It is thus that every age has had its own social problem, in the effort to reconcile the progress of the community with the fair treatment of individuals."—W. Cunningham, *Progress of capitalism in England*, pp. 19-22.—See also SOCIALISM.

In antiquity.—Greece.—Rome.—St. Thomas Aquinas on usury.—Greece is generally mentioned as the classic example of a civilisation based on slavery, chiefly on the strength of Aristotle's argument that some are born to rule and others to be ruled. But he qualifies the theory, admits that there is a contrary one, to which he allows some weight. The Greeks therefore contemplated the possibility of a society without slavery, and as a matter of fact there were in Greece other classes of workers employed in money-making concerns. The father of Isocrates, the famous Athenian orator, moralist, and teacher, was a citizen of moderate standing, but he acquired sufficient wealth to give his sons the most expensive education . . . by the business of making musical instruments in which he employed a number of workmen. The word used both by Dionysius Halicarnassus, and in the biography attributed to Plutarch . . . signified persons serving in a free and honourable capacity as contrasted with . . . either slaves or serfs. . . . The father of Isocrates was in fact a rich manufacturer. . . . Aristotle's own analysis of economic principles and practice recognises hired labour . . . as one of the means of acquiring wealth, co-ordinate with commerce; and shows that capitalist finance, trade, and production were all highly developed in Greece. The plays of Aristophanes contain much indirect evidence to the same effect. The regular rate of interest in money loans was 12 per cent., but on money put into commercial enterprises it was from 20 to 30 per cent., no doubt because of the greater risk. The attacks of philosophers and poets on money-making and business does not mean that they were not carried on, but just the contrary. In the Roman republic capitalist enterprise became still more developed and on a far larger scale. The chief capitalists were the great landowners, who kept their own merchant fleets and exported their own produce. They were

'from ancient times simultaneously traders and capitalists, and combined in their hands lending on security, trafficking on a great scale, the undertaking of contracts, and the executing of works for the State' (Mommsen). The urban industries were carried on either by slaves for their owners or 'by freedmen, in whose case the master not only frequently furnished the capital, but also regularly stipulated for a share, often the half, of the profits' (Mommsen). This form of capitalist production was found more profitable than the employment of slaves, no doubt because the free men worked much harder; and it consequently developed so rapidly that manumission was taxed in 357 B. C. and the political rights of freedmen were curtailed in 304 B. C. The rate of interest on money lent was limited to 10 per cent. by the law of the Twelve Tables (450 B. C.), and later reduced to 5 per cent.; eventually (342 B. C.) interest was forbidden altogether, as in the Middle Ages, and with no more effect. Gradually Roman society became more and more immersed in the acquisition of wealth until it was fairly given up to money-making. 'The spirit of the capitalist,' writes Mommsen, 'now (about 200 B. C.) penetrated and pervaded all aspects and stations of life. The preservation and increase of wealth positively formed a part of public and private morality.' Cato, who had a reputation for austerity, laid it down in the instructions he composed for his son that 'a man must augment his substance, and he is deserving of praise and full of a divine spirit whose account books at his death show that he has gained more than he inherited.' The whole plutological apparatus was developed—banking, investment, partnership, joint stock companies, and even trusts. The chief sources of wealth were trading, sheep farming, stock raising, wine, oil, and corn growing, but the last mentioned decayed under the system of importing corn at very low prices, encouraged by the State to keep the populace in good humour. Manufactures were much less developed, but were still on a considerable scale and highly lucrative. The great aim was to become rich through the labour of others; work was thought discreditable. Surely this is the essence of Capitalism. It is not surprising that Marx says of Mommsen, who had dissected the economic life of Rome with equal learning and acumen, that he 'commits blunder after blunder.' Poor Mommsen! He actually had the audacity to say things which did not suit Marx's book, so he must be put in his place with a wave of the hand, for Marx discreetly refrains from specifying. But the spectacle of Marx correcting Mommsen in Roman history is delightful. [See MONEY AND BANKING: Rome.] . . . Let us pass on to the Middle Ages with which detailed comparisons are now frequently made to the great disadvantage of the present. We are constantly told that the origin of Capitalism dates from the sixteenth century. This date is given by Marx and repeated with that uncritical docility which is one of the most striking features of latter-day enlightenment. But what was new in the sixteenth century? It was not private ownership, or money-making without work, or the investment of capital in commerce and industry, or production for profit, or the employment of hired labour, for all these existed centuries before. On a comparatively small scale, it is true; but population and all activities were on a comparatively small scale then, and we are speaking of origins. Scale does not affect the essential character of processes; it only conditions their effects. A guildsman none the less employed hired workmen for wages and got the 'surplus value' or their work out of them because they

were few. Goods were none the less produced for sale and profit because the market was limited. What else were the people doing, who attended the fairs and markets that played such an important part in medieval economic life, but seeking to sell at the highest and buy at the lowest price? What else were the merchants and traders doing, who bought to sell again, but carrying out the Marxian formula M—C—M and making a profit thereby? What else was the pure capitalist doing, who invested in commercial and industrial enterprise as a sleeping partner, but seeking to gain an income without work? It will perhaps be objected that there were no such capitalists before the sixteenth or at least the fifteenth century. But that belief rests on inadequate research. If there were no other evidence economic discussion in the thirteenth century is alone quite sufficient. Like all other abstract studies, economic theory was at that time a branch of theology, but it was handled none the less—perhaps all the more—with extreme ability. The schoolmen discussed private property, communism, usury, investment, interest, and prices with an acumen which has never been surpassed. The master mind was St. Thomas Aquinas, who for comprehensive range of thought, logical power, and balanced judgment can be matched only by Aristotle. In addition to the *Summa Theologica* he wrote a special treatise on 'Usury' in which he discusses the investment of capital in the clearest manner. He distinguishes it from mere money lending, which he condemns, and justifies the expectation of profit from capital invested in commercial or industrial enterprise on the ground that he is risking his own property in the venture. . . . The case of the money capitalist has never been more clearly stated, and Aquinas died in 1274. But he went much further. He recognised other kinds of capital besides money, and argued that profit derived from gainful investment was not *numisma ex numismate* . . . but the product of the investor's own property lawfully acquired. After this it is perhaps unnecessary to prove the existence of the other attributes of Capitalism in the same period, but something must be said about the hired workman and production for use, not profit, under the guilds; for the facts are constantly misrepresented by one-sided statements. No doubt the original organisation of the guilds contemplated the step from journeyman to master as a regular thing, but the masters soon began to depart from it. Even in the twelfth century the journeymen already appeared as a class; they began to form their own associations in opposition to the masters and to go on strike for better conditions. These, and not the guilds, were the precursors of trade unions, and the survival of the word 'chapel' proves the connexion. The guilds became steadily more and more exclusive; entrance was made easy for relatives, but difficult for ordinary workmen. The 'masterpiece' was invented for that purpose. At the same time the practice arose and grew of the masters retiring from the work-shop and contenting themselves with supervision. In the small handicrafts the necessary outfit represented little capital, but other industries required a considerable outlay on plant and were always capitalistic. The theory that use, not profit, was the motive of production means presumably that things were made to order, not for the open market. So they are now, and we have recently had a striking example in the orders for motor cars for future delivery. Many industries are indeed choked with orders long in advance of production. Making to customers' orders may have been more prevalent than speculative production in the Middle Ages, but it is

evident from the practice of hawking goods, such as boots, in the streets, and from markets and fairs that the latter was carried on extensively also; and the supposed absence of profit-seeking is quite incompatible with the innumerable regulations, usually abortive, against fraudulent dealing and the attempts to suppress competition."—A. Shadwell, *Capitalism* (*Edinburgh Review*, July, 1920, pp. 79-83).

12th and 13th centuries.—Early beginnings of capitalism in France.—"As early as the twelfth century, perhaps before, merchants in France traded beyond their own boundaries, sought protection, united in corporations. Thus we read that Philippe II (Augustus) gave large privileges to the principal merchants (*commerçants*) united in corporations or *hanse*. In 1192 he regulated the commerce in wine and conferred on the merchants of Paris the sole right to sell the wines brought by water. In 1200, Pierre de Courtenai, comte d'Auxerre, contested with the bourgeois of Paris the right to go to Auxerre to discharge their cargoes of salt. Philippe compelled him to recognize by solemn charter that he had committed an abuse of power. In 1204, the king renewed the monopoly of the *hanse*, already conceded by Louis VII. In 1214, he gave it a new port on the Seine (at the *quai d'École*). Finally in 1220 he ceded to them the right of public crying in Paris, until then leased for the profit of royalty. The *hanse* had the privilege of naming and dismissing their criers, of fixing tariffs, and verifying weights and measures. It obtained even the 'low justice,' that is to say the right to pass judgment on infractions of its privileges, and offences committed by its members, short of theft, personal injury, or murder. The difficulty for the king was to conciliate the monopoly of the merchants with the interests of other ship owners (*marchands d'eau*) on the Seine. Thus to the merchants of the Yonne he gave the right of trading above Paris, as far as Villeneuve-St. Georges, and below it as far as Argenteuil, beyond these points they had to associate themselves with a merchant of Paris. The Norman merchants made formal agreements with the Parisians. The merchants of Rouen could sell their salt in the port of Paris, on condition of using one of the measures patented by the *hanse*."—E. Lavisse, *Histoire de France*, v. 3, pp. 223-224.

12th to 16th centuries.—Capitalism in Italian cities.—Nobles in commerce.—Prosperity of German towns.—Official speculation.—Medieval "banking houses."—Influence of Crusaders.—Money lending in England and on continent.—Influence of slave trade.—"The rise of the great mercantile power of the Italian cities clearly indicates one origin—the entrance of members of the landed aristocracy into city life and burgher occupations. With the growth of more settled order in the country, and of a softer, more luxurious habit of life, some of the landed nobility came to settle in the cities, bringing with them their rents and buying more city lands. Especially the younger branches of the nobility, no longer wholly occupied with war, came into town life. This merging of the landed nobility with city life was earlier and freer in the Italian and Flemish states than in France or Germany, and the larger quantity of money thus brought into the cities by the 'monetisation' of the rents of their estates contributed not a little to the earlier development of large commercial undertakings by Italian and Flemish merchant-houses. In England also from the thirteenth century the lower nobles began to mix more easily with burgher life, and 'the younger sons of the country knight sought wife, occupation, and estate

in the towns.' 'A large proportion of the London apprentices were drawn from the houses of rural gentry' in the time of Elizabeth, the cleavage between the landed and the moneyed interests not having yet begun to display itself. So, too, in Germany the early commercial prosperity of such towns as Augsburg, Nürnberg, Basel, and Köln was fed from a similar source. Unfortunately, the history of Germany in the later Middle Ages tended more and more to estrange the landed nobility from the peaceful life and pursuits of towns, a fact which greatly contributed to retard the commercial and industrial development of that country. While many of the great business men of the Middle Ages in Italy, Flanders, Germany thus sprang from the landed aristocracy, possessing agricultural rents, tolls, and fines as their commercial nest-egg, the smaller owners of city-grounds, the original burgher-families, played an equally important part in cases where the town-lands were not closely held by noble or by church. These original settlers, small farmers at the start, extending their holdings, often encroaching on or dividing by agreement common lands, formed strong local oligarchies, sucking the rising land values to form the capital which they afterwards employed in commerce. To these nobles or small land-holders who passed into commerce with accumulations directly derived from ground-rents, must be added the officials who, under the feudal system, were quartered upon the public resources in lucrative offices of state, or were entrusted with the collection and farming of taxes and tolls. Not only were the salaries of chancellors, marshals, and other high officers extremely large, but all officials connected with the raising and expenditure of public moneys had opportunities for speculation which were freely exercised. The ruling families in the cities could thus add to their private ground-rents a share of the city funds. So large shares of the original accumulations of royal and papal treasuries, and of the rents and endowments of monasteries and cities passed into the hands of the business men, who were agents for these great public sources of income. The management of the estates and the finances of the private land-owners, lay and spiritual, was largely entrusted to a class of business officials, who, as rent collectors, stewards, bailiffs, reeves, intendants, came to share the riches of the landlords. But it must be remembered that in whatever form incomes came to these public or private officers and agents, as salaries, fees, profit, or speculation, land-rents were the almost exclusive origin. Given a class of business-men with such sources of accumulation in their hands, it is not difficult to perceive the chief profitable use to which they could put this 'capital.' The most important branch of primitive capitalism is 'usury' or 'money-lending,' and the part this played in converting feudal into burgher wealth was noteworthy. The great spiritual landlords were driven to borrowing money in order to forward to Rome the increasing monetary contributions which the 'age of faith' called forth; the temporal lords, embarrassed by the growing expenses of war and of building (the two chief uses of money), were drawn more and more into debt to the 'banking-houses' in Italy, Flanders, and Germany. The Crusades form a chief landmark in this growing power of the new business class, compelling the Crusaders to borrow for their expenses of equipment and travel, giving increased power to their stewards and agents, and bringing back a new influx of luxurious habits of life from the East which led them into further extravagances. In Italy and elsewhere increasing quantities of land

were thus alienated from their aristocratic owners, forfeited for debt. When the period of the Renaissance brought the fuller influence of the East to bear upon 'barbarous' Europe, and cities began to assume an air of luxury and to exercise influence as 'social centres,' the country nobility and gentry wishing to enter this new life, found themselves short of money and compelled to borrow from the rich burghers. Beginning in Italy as early as the thirteenth century, this movement reached Germany in the fifteenth, and England in Elizabeth's reign showed that the 'money-lending' business was so large and profitable as to tempt not only Continental capital but Dutch settlers from Amsterdam and elsewhere to compete with the Jewish and Lombard houses in London. . . . But all these modes by which capital has passed from the ownership of landlords into that of business men furnish an inadequate explanation of the rapid increase of wealth in Western Europe. Without far larger access to monetary treasures as instruments of concentrated accumulation, without larger opportunities of gathering the various material resources for the development of the industrial arts, modern capitalism would have been impossible in its existing dimensions. Western Europe supplied no adequate output of precious metals from the mines: her agricultural population afforded no increase of production in the form of rents large enough to furnish a great stream of accumulating wealth, nor could the productiveness of the industrial arts of the towns yield a rapid growth of profit. The economy of mediæval Europe did not expose a large landless proletarian population to the free exploitation of profit-seeking masters. The labour basis of modern capitalism was lacking. . . . The Italian republics were the first to take this work in hand. The close of the Crusades saw them in virtual control of numerous cities in Syria, Palestine, the Ægean, and the Black Sea. From the beginning of the twelfth century, Genoa, Pisa, and Venice fastened their economic fangs into the towns of Arsuf, Cæsarea, Acre, Sidon, Tyre, etc. The break up of the Eastern empire gave Venice a vast colonial power, not less than three-eighths of that empire falling under her single sway; while her rival, Genoa, also acquired large possessions among the Ionian islands and on the mainland. Asia Minor and the Ægean islands were full of rich natural resources, with large civilised populations inheriting arts of skilled industry as yet unknown to the Western world. The Italian cities did not pretend to colonise in any modern sense this vast empire, but established trading centres in the chief towns and took rich toll of the manufactures. They found in Antioch, Tripolis, Tyre, a flourishing silk industry; cotton in Armenia; glass and pottery in Syria; and considerable mining operations in Phocis and elsewhere. Their mode of exploitation seems to have been an adaptation of the feudal system, by which as overlords they exacted a large portion, usually one-third, of the total produce of the soil, mines, and industry. This form of infeudation, which later on the Spaniards introduced into America under the title of *Encomiendas*, existed long before in these Italian colonies of the Levant. Later on the feudal form dropped off, giving place to the sway of privileged companies wielding a royal or state monopoly. The real significance of this early 'colonisation' for the rise of modern capitalism was that it afforded the first opportunity of profit on a large scale, by placing at the disposal of the Italian masters a large supply of skilled serf labour. Not only was the property of whole provinces confiscated to the conquerors, but the condition of large masses of

the inhabitants was, from old usage, one of virtual slavery, 'all rights and possessions in men, women, and children' passing to the new feudal superiors. The Italian conquerors found also a most profitable inheritance in the slave-trade, which Byzantines and Arabs had carried on from ancient times. This slave-trade they greatly extended by means of a premium system, bringing in great numbers of captive Mussulmans, so that, for example, the increase of population in Crete alone under their rule was from 50,000 to 102,725. Thus early was laid the foundation of the profitable trade which furnished to Western Europe the accumulations of wealth required for the later development of capitalistic methods of production at home. . . . The profits of the European companies embarking in early colonial trade were very large, for slave economy is not in itself and under all circumstances bad. Merivale clearly points out the main condition of its profitable use. * 'When the pressure of population induces the freeman to offer his services, as he does in all old countries, for little more than the natural minimum of wages, those services are very certain to be more productive and less expensive than those of bondsmen. This being the case, it is obvious that the limit of the profitable duration of slavery is attained whenever the population has become so dense that it is cheaper to employ the free labour for hire.' In other words, Western Europe until the nineteenth century did not present the large supply of landless labourers required as one condition of great profitable capitalism. It is for this reason that colonial economy must be regarded as one of the necessary conditions of modern capitalism."—J. A. Hobson, *Evolution of modern capitalism*, pp. 7-13.

13th to 16th centuries.—Development of capitalism in England.—Foreign trade in thirteenth and fourteenth centuries.—English shipping.—Merchant-adventurers.—Growth of industry.—Cloth trade.—"The history of English towns in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries is to a large extent the story of a struggle against the encroachment of the alien capitalist in internal trade, and especially in trade within the towns themselves. Englishmen of the thirteenth century could not pretend to any considerable part, either in the export of native productions, or in the import of foreign wares. Foreign trade was entirely in the hands of aliens, especially in those of the great Italian houses; but the townsmen were anxious to keep the profits of retail trade entirely in their own hands. The importers from abroad were necessary as wholesale dealers, but there seemed to be no occasion for them to compete in retailing goods. . . . The end of the fourteenth, and the beginning of the fifteenth century marked a further step of progress, as Englishmen had become ambitious of competing with the alien in foreign trade. In the time of Edward III Parliament had been content that English wool should be shipped abroad in foreign bottoms, and that imports should be brought by foreign fleets; but in the subsequent reigns there was a change, and deliberate efforts were made to encourage English shipping at the expense of foreigners. The founding of the Merchant Adventurers marks one stage in the progress; and the rise of great ship-owners, like William Canynge, shows that there were English capitalists who were ready to take advantage of their opportunities. The Venetian galleys ceased to visit England in the early sixteenth century, and the trade was eventually taken up by the Turkey Company. The struggle with German rivals was long and embittered; the Hanseatic League ob-

tained a new status under Edward IV, and it was not till the reign of Elizabeth that they were really ousted from their importance in the carrying trade, and that the foreign trade of England came to be done in English ships. . . . The whole of [the guild] system served admirably for the regulation of industry under suitable conditions, but it made no allowance for growth; and in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries there appears to have been a rapid growth, especially in connection with the manufacture of cloth for distant markets. . . . The capitalist system in the cloth trade appears to be as old as the incursion or Flemish weavers under Edward III, and it certainly had reached a high stage of development in the sixteenth century, when men like Jack of Winchomb and Stump of Marlborough flourished. These men did not manufacture with reference to a market on the spot, but with reference to the requirements of a distant market, sometimes a market in foreign countries. They had an interest in manufacturing on as large a scale as possible, and turning over their capital rapidly so as to enable them to push their trade and get the command of a larger market. It is obvious that institutions which were built up by small craftsmen, each with his stock in trade, to meet a known market were unsuited to the industry as developed by large capitalists."—W. Cunningham, *Progress of capitalism in England*, pp. 70-71, 75-76, 79.

14th century.—Financiers in Paris.—Capitalism in the provinces.—Way-bills.—Great fairs.—Commercial jurisdiction.—"Under Philip VI, the financiers in Paris were numerous. The Jews, who had been expelled, returned in 1315, but the last persecutions and the coming of the Lombards had done them great injury. The Lombards—the name given to Italians who came from Milan, Genoa, Lucca, Pisa, Florence—people of affairs, great capitalists, shrewd and daring, formed a powerful little group. They contributed to the commercial prosperity of Paris, but their riches excited the covetousness of the kings, and the hatred of the people. Confiscation, banishment, or the gibbet menaced them."—E. Lavisse, *Histoire de France*, v. 4, pp. 23-24.—"Certain families had made large fortunes in industries of luxe, or in great commerce. The money-changers, jewelers, sword-makers, furriers, cloth-merchants, haberdashers were the corporations where most riches were found. The principal merchants formed the powerful society of the *Hanse* of the Water Merchants (*Marchands d'Eau*—spoken of as early as the XII century, when Philip II gave them important privileges). It was from among these great bourgeois merchants that the kings ordinarily chose their officers of finance. . . . A great number of rich Parisians were ennobled by the kings in the first half of the XIV century."—*Ibid.*, v. 4, pp. 24-25.—"Paris, however, was not the only centre of industry and commerce. . . . At Montauban the house of Frères Bonis gives a good idea of the great merchants in a town of France. The eldest brother, Bartholomew Bonis, was a great personage; he was consul at Montauban; he was often at Montpellier, at Avignon, and was seen even at Paris and at Rome; he had his chapel and his chaplain. The house possessed great store houses; a laboratory for pharmacy. The brothers were bankers; lenders of money on securities or on hypothecations; liquidators of successions; collectors of taxes; farmers of ecclesiastical revenues; cloth merchants; haberdashers; commissioners in cloth and shoes; apothecaries; wax candle makers; confectioners; sword makers; hatters; lenders on state funerals. They sold everything from jewels to hair. The sales

were made on account or on credit; accounting being of the most minute character. The greatest precautions were taken to evade depreciation of money. The Bonis possessed in the environs of the town lands, farms and cellars."—*Ibid.*, p. 26.—"It was in the XIV century that one can probably trace the institution of the great *merciers*, great merchants who went from fair to fair to sell all sorts of goods from spices of the Orient to silks of Lyons. At the same period we have examples of way-bills, indicating the conditions of transportation contracts. Towards 1330 terms sales were known. The institution of international fairs was a source of progress. At these fairs was seen the first commercial jurisdictions known in France. . . . At the fairs in Champagne, the merchants, not to lose time in payments, regulated their accounts on the last day, by writing."—*Ibid.*

15th-19th centuries.—Landlord capitalists.—Fifteenth century forge.—Mine owners.—Silesian mines.—Iron and brass works.—Silk and woolen textile manufacturers.—Colonial land capitalists.—"There is nothing in landlordism that is inherently capitalistic, any more than there is in warlike undertakings. The manorial system, as such, does not aim at gain; for a very long period it remained an economic organization for the satisfying of wants, no more and no less. But in the process of time a change set in. The domestic economy of the landlord was narrowed, and, side by side with it, there sprang up an economic order bent on profit, which slowly but surely became capitalistic in its nature. What happened was that the overlord organized the labour at his disposal for the purpose of getting gain. The land was his and he became a corn-grower; the treasures of the earth—its minerals and metals—were his also; he claimed the ownership of woodlands and meadows; and he disposed of the labour of the human beings on his estates. He combined all these factors in production, and the result was varying forms of capitalist undertakings, all of them filled with the spirit of their master-mind, and therefore all of them semi-feudal in their nature. Semi-feudal? I mean that all these undertakings had not yet thrown off the character of enterprises for the production of just so much wealth as would satisfy the wants of the community. One reason for this was their limited scope. They were bounded by the property of the landlord. This has been recognized as a check on the free expansion of capitalist undertakings. Thus, we are told of the Silesian mines at the beginning of the 10th century, 'The landlord owns the iron ore; he mines annually no more than will use up his surplus timber, which he cannot utilize in any other profitable way.' These undertakings were semi-feudal also in the means they chose for their end. The conception still prevailed in them that the power of the state was the almighty influence that was to be looked to for one's interests, whether for the disposal of men or commodities; or an indirect influence which aided in a sale or a bargain—say, the granting of a concession, privilege, or monopoly. This gave birth to an important sub-species of undertaking, partly capitalistic, partly feudal. Influential members of the nobility associated themselves with the moneyed sections of the middle classes, or with impoverished inventors, for the purpose of common gain. The lordship provided the necessary privileges or liberties, the other partner the money or the brains. Partnerships of this sort abounded in scores, both in France and England, throughout the 17th and 18th centuries. But the undertakings of the landlords, and of the nobility and gentry generally,

played a more important rôle in the early capitalist age than has been commonly assumed. Their influence in the development of capitalist undertaking cannot of course be exactly demonstrated, lacking as we do any statistical information on the point. But a general notion of their influence is undoubtedly possible, if we glance at some of the cases of capitalist enterprise in which the nobility took part. Let us begin with capitalist farming, which certainly in its earliest forms was carried on by the landed interests.

"From the 16th to the 18th centuries, England and Germany both have numerous instances. But industry was by no means neglected. Mining was a favourite undertaking in which the nobility engaged. They not merely received the royalties from others; they participated in the industries themselves. As royalty-receivers they do not interest us in this place; what we are concerned with is their activity as undertakers; and it is surprising to find how extended that was. A comprehensive consideration of this strongly marked aspect of capitalist enterprise is undoubtedly a desideratum. Here we can touch on but a few examples. In England, in the 15th century, we have information of the Bishop of Durham's forge at Bedburn, in Weardale. This appears to have been organized on a capitalist basis; certainly the number of employees seems great. In 1616, a courtier entered into an agreement with the pen-makers' company to supply them with wire, which, seemingly, he produced on his estates. Again, in 1627, Lord Dacre received a patent granting him the monopoly of steel production, according to new methods. Or, to take yet another instance. From the 16th century landlords set up tin-works on their estates, the so-called clash mills, for the preparation of the tin from their own mines. In 1690 a number of lords and gentlemen helped in the foundation of the Mine Adventurers' Company. It was the same with the earliest enterprises for coal-mining; many a nobleman was interested in this industry likewise, and the conditions of labour in English, and especially in Scottish, mines in the 18th century smacked of feudalism. If we turn from this country to France, the same phenomenon may be observed. The mines in the province of Nevers, one of the centres of the industry, were owned by the local landed gentry until well into the 18th century. Villemanant was in the hands of the Arnault de Langes; their neighbour, the Seigneur de Bizy, conducted on his estate not only mining operations, but smelting as well. All these establishments passed in the 18th century into the possession of the rich Paris banker Masson.

"In the Franche-Comté likewise there were numerous mines, all owned by the ancient nobility. Of the manufacture of iron the same story may be told. The landowners participated in iron-making. The cases were numerous, and we need only mention two. Seigneur F. E. de Blumenstein erected an ironworks near his castle, in 1715; and the Duc de Choiseul about the same time was manufacturing steel. But it was the coal industry that specially interested the French nobility. Henry II had granted the sole right to exploit coal-mines to François de la Rocque, Seigneur de Roberval; it passed from him to Claude Grizon de Guillien, Seigneur de St. Julien, and another nobleman. At a later date Louis XIV granted a monopoly of 40 years' duration to the Duke of Montauzier for the sole working of all coal-mines in France, excepting only those of Nevers. In the following reign, the Regent issued a similar privilege to a company which included, among others, the names of Jean Gobel and Sieur de Jonquier. But the

nobility possessed not only the right of working mines; the actual work was carried out under their direction. Thus, in Louis XIV's reign, the Duc de Noailles opened a mine in the Duchy of Bourbonville; the Duc d'Aumont another; the Count d'Uzès a third; and the Duc de la Meilleraye a fourth. Instances of this kind, where the nobility obtained monopolies to work coal, either on their own estates or elsewhere, became more and more abundant in the second half of the 18th century. The same tale comes from Germany and Austria. In both these countries the earliest mining undertakings were conducted by the nobility. In a document entitled 'Masters and Establishments on the Imperial Estate of St. Kathrein' (the mercury-mines of Idria) for the period 1520-26, we come across an exceptionally large number of names of noblemen, e. g. Gabriel Count Ortenburg, Bernard von Cles, the Lord Cardinal-Bishop of Trent, to name but three. The lists of the years 1536, 1557, 1550 and 1574 bear the same character. Gradually the names of traders crept in too. But it must be remembered that, often enough, even though no nobleman was mentioned in connection with the undertakings, these were still dominated by the feudal spirit, and the influence of the landlord made itself felt in a thousand ways.

The iron industry in Germany had likewise to thank the nobility for its capitalist spirit. Count Stolberg became famous in the 16th century for his interest in iron-works; Count Wolfgang established the foundry of Koenigshof, made Ilseburg a centre for iron-casting, and erected the first brass-works there. His neighbour, Count Julius von Braunschweig-Lüneburg, was a strong competitor. In the case of another iron-foundry, that of Gitteld, in the Harz Mountains, the income and expenditure accounts from 1573 to 1848 are extant, and from these it is evident how strongly marked was the influence of the nobility here also. The same was true of the iron industry in Styria; and as for the Silesian mines, have they not remained in the hands of the local landowners down to this very day? Finally, let me instance Sweden, where iron-mining was a subsidiary industry of agriculture. The lords of the land employed miners as well as their agricultural labourers on the work. And to-day, when mining and agriculture are independent industries, the old conditions still continue in Danmorra. So much for mining. In the textile trades the influence of the noble families was no less marked. The most competent historian of the woollen industry in England sums up the position there by saying that the great sheep farmers were very often cloth-weavers, using the wool they themselves grew. Silk-making likewise was in their hands. Thus, in 1680, we find 'a grant to Walter, Lord Ashton, of the keeping of the garden, mulberry-trees, and silkworms near St. James in the county of Middlesex.' Again it was the same in France. There also the landowners had spinning-wheels on their estates for wool or silk.

"In the 18th century the Marquis de Caulaincourt erected a factory for muslin and silk veilings; the Marquis de Louvencourt one for linen; the Duchesse de Choiseul-Gouffier a cotton-spinning establishment, and so forth. Indeed, the number of noblemen engaged in the textile industry in France in the 18th century was very large indeed. Bohemia serves as an excellent instance of the influence of the aristocracy on industrial development in the 18th century. Fired by the example of Duke Josef Kinsky, a number of them established factories on their estates. By 1762 Kinsky was able to report to the Empress the 'joyful news' that many a nobleman in Bohemia,

including among others Count Waldstein, Prince Lobkowitz and Earl Bolza, was inclined to aid the growth of manufactures on his lands. 'But the majority of these nobles' establishments,' such was the view of a man of the people, 'lacked the necessary energy and vitality. Things changed, however, with the appearance of John Josef Leit-emberger (1730-1802), the son of a small Bohemian master dyer.' Another industry much favoured by the nobility and gentry was glass-making, probably because it provided such excellent opportunities for the utilization of the abundant supplies of timber on the estates. In France the nobility practically held a monopoly of glass-blowing, hence the term *verriers gentilshommes*. Commoners might erect glass factories only by special permission, or they were allowed to participate in the existing establishments. What applied to France held good equally for other countries also. Finally, the manufacture of porcelain, eorn and paper mills, and such industries as gave opportunities for burning peat, must also be mentioned. In a word, there are many points in the economic history of Europe where the landed gentry may be seen contributing to the development of capitalism. We are justified in regarding the landlord, therefore, as a type of an early capitalist undertaker. And our conviction of this can only be strengthened as we remember that capitalism in colonial foundations was for the most part of a feudal nature.

"The Italians in their settlements in the Levant established an economic order modelled on the feudal system. In many cases the change was merely a change of masters; the Turkish landlord was replaced by a 'Frank.' As for the towns, they were expropriated just like the country districts; the Italian conquerors divided the craftsmen among themselves like so many serfs. The whole structure rested on enslaved labour. The Spaniards and Portuguese did exactly the same in their treatment of the American Indians. The newcomers regarded themselves as feudal landlords, with sway over the inhabitants. The Spaniard spoke of *encomiendas* and *repartimientos*; the Portuguese of *Kapitanien* and *Sesmarias*. Labour, at first on a feudal basis, later developed into slavery. The mine-owners and planters who worked their possessions in a capitalist spirit were feudal lords of the old type. The same may be asserted of the earliest undertakers in the Southern States of the American Union. We need only call to mind Lord Delaware, the principal participant in the Virginia Company of London, established in 1606; or Lord Baltimore, the 'founder' of Maryland, whose desire for profits is no longer doubted; or of the eight landowners, among whom we find the Duke of Albemarle, the Earl of Clarendon, Sir William Berkeley and Lord Shaftesbury, who in 1663 took possession of the land between Virginia and Florida—Carolina. All of these founded feudal undertakings based on slave labour, and the semi-feudal character of the capitalist plantations in the 'Negro' States right down to the Civil War bore testimony to the fact. Only after the war did the commercial spirit carry the day over 'the Southern gentlemen'; only then was ended the attempt to found, 'in an environment of farmers and traders, industrialists and free wage-earners, a plantation system of *grands seigneurs* and their petty imitators, based on force and customary dues.'"—W. Som-bart, *Quintessence of capitalism*, pp. 76-83.

16th century.—In England.—Elizabethan capitalism.—Turning-point in economic history.—"The beginning of the reign of Elizabeth, when Burghley came into power, marks a great turning point in the economic history of England; since

this was the beginning of an endeavour to treat the whole realm as a unit for economic purposes and to organise and stimulate the economic activities of the nation. . . . National organisation may be contrasted on the economic side with the institutions which preceded it. . . . Everywhere the main responsibility for the economic life of the country lay in the hands of private capitalists; and the problem of any government, which desire to devise a system for the whole realm, was that of controlling and directing private capitalists. It is on this account that we may feel in the Elizabethan era that we are at last in sight of modern habits of thought and modern problems; the age of invention gave us immensely increased power over the mechanical forces, but it did not introduce much that was wholly new in regard to personal relationships. The scale on which business was conducted in Elizabethan times was different from that with which we are familiar, it was mostly in the hands of quite small men. The wealthy capitalist was exceptional; the combination of many industrial capitalists into one great association with a joint stock was only beginning. But despite these differences the practical problems of extending the market, and the disputes between capital and labour, were similar to those which have recently taken such gigantic proportions."—W. Cunningham, *Progress of capitalism in England*, p. 82.

16th-18th centuries.—Agriculture in English capitalism.—"The Elizabethan period was a time of revival of trade and industry in many ways, and this . . . reacted on agriculture. There were facilities for export of which Burghley was anxious that the realm should take advantage; but even more striking is the increase of internal communication and the regulation of a corn trade within the realm. Towns in their earlier days had obtained their main supplies from their own fields, but this was no longer possible for London at any rate; and the demand of London ramified for a considerable distance. Farnham became a local centre where corn was sold, which ultimately found its way to the London market; and the building of corn exchanges and new market halls in such towns as Shrewsbury shows that the business was at least being conducted on a larger scale. The regulations, which were made by the Council for the clerks of the market for corn hodgers, and other persons engaged in the trade, show how widely it was diffused; and it is probably true to say that in England generally agriculture passed, in Elizabeth's time, from being an occupation which was mainly pursued for the sake of subsistence and became a trade which was carried on by capitalists who looked for their profit to prices in the market. Dymock, an agricultural expert of the seventeenth century, looked back to the time of Elizabeth as the beginning of improved husbandry; and the capitalists, who farmed land in severalty apart from the common custom, were not only able to do better than their neighbours with their corn growing and their stock, but they were also able to introduce any new crops that seemed likely to answer well. Intercourse with the Low Countries led to the adoption of many improvements from Flanders. Experiments were made in root crops; though clover and artificial grasses were strongly recommended, they did not come into general use till a much later period. The process of improvement which had been noticeable in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries was carried on with great enthusiasm in the eighteenth, by Townsend and Jethro Tull. Bakewell improved the breeds of cattle; and more attention was given to the rotation of crops and the cultivation of the special

varieties which were suitable to each soil. King George III, the Duke of Bedford, and Mr. Coke of Holkham, were all great enthusiasts in regard to practical farming and set an example which found many imitators among the members of the Royal Agricultural Society. All these steps were taken by men who had capital to invest, and none of them were possible so long as the customary tillage and customary neglect of the common waste were allowed to go on. Arthur Young and the agricultural writers of the times felt strongly that common fields and common custom were a bar to improvement of any kind, and that no real advance in agriculture could be expected until there was a general enclosure. There can be no doubt whatever that, through these successive changes, an extraordinary economic gain has come about, and that infinitely more is made of the landed resources of the country than was the case at the time of the Norman Conquest. This is true both as regards the production of corn and the feeding of sheep or of cattle; through the exertions of these generations of improvers there has been an enormous increase of national wealth. This plain fact is sometimes ignored or forgotten by those who look at the story from the other side, and lay stress on the incidental loss which has accompanied these changes. That incidental loss has been a real thing; it is well that we should face it and see clearly the price we have paid for these economic improvements; we shall then be in a position to estimate whether we have paid too dearly for them or not. . . . In many parts of the country in the eighteenth century, changes of occupation of a less striking character were very frequent. The progress of enclosure was forced on from a desire to increase the corn supply of the country and corn growing. The small farmers were for the most part occupied, so far as the markets were concerned, in dairy farming and stock raising, though they might do a little subsistence farming for themselves. The tendency was for corn growing to be developed, and those who had maintained themselves as small farmers in the old days had neither the capital nor the skill to adapt themselves to the new conditions except by being merged in the ranks of the labourers. This was the most serious of all the social changes; it seems to have taken place in connection with enclosing as the line between the capitalist farmer and the labourer who worked for wages was drawn more definitely than before, and the rural labourer was not only deprived of independence as his own master, but also of the opportunities which he had had for rising in the world. Just because the introduction of capitalism in land management was so gradual and so long continued, it is specially instructive. The introduction of new machinery and the organisation and the re-organisation of textile or other industries proceed very rapidly and almost by a series of crises. The gain to the nation and to the capitalist, by the introduction of machinery, is more obvious than it was in the case of enclosing, while the loss can be represented as merely transitory and something that is soon defrayed by the expansion of business. But the gain from the intervention of capital in the management of land was less obvious and the loss of status to certain classes of the community has been permanent. It is not wise to try to stop the march of progress, but it is important that we should see as clearly as possible what the march of progress costs."—*Ibid.*, pp. 48-51, 50-60.

16th-18th centuries.—State capitalism.—"It is possible to conceive the modern state as a huge capitalist undertaking, seeing that its aim is more

and more to get gold and money. Such indeed has been the case ever since the discoveries and conquests of the Spaniards cultivated in ruling princes the taste for a share of the booty, and when India also came within their horizon, that taste became even more marked. But even when conquering expeditions in the Dorado were not uppermost in their minds, statesmen were constantly occupied with the problem of amassing gold. How to get money?—that was the alpha and omega of their thoughts. Sometimes it was for the expenses of the state; sometimes for economic progress. But the problem was the same. Recall Colbert's reason for the policy of Mercantilism. 'I believe,' he said, 'that most people would be agreed that the quantity of gold in a state alone determines the degree of its greatness and power.' Put 'profits' instead of 'gold' in this dictum, and you have the first principle of every capitalist undertaking. But in calling the civil servant an early type of the capitalist undertaker, I am thinking neither of the goal which mercantilism set itself nor of the policy which modern states pursued to reach it. . . . My object here is to call attention to the fact that ruling princes and their servants, the state officials, were among those who kept alive the spirit of capitalist undertaking; and that both played a rôle of no small significance among the earliest representatives of the modern economic outlook. What a reliable authority says of Gustavus Vasa [sixteenth century] holds good for all the important princes of the *ancien régime*. 'He was the chief undertaker of his nation. Not only did he know how to discover and utilize for the crown the mineral wealth of Sweden, but by commercial treaties and protective duties, and last but not least, by engaging himself in foreign trade on a large scale, he acted as an example to his merchants. Everything was due to his initiative.' It would require a whole treatise were we to attempt to chronicle all those activities of monarchs in modern times that stamped them as founders of capitalist industries. There is the less need to do so, seeing that the facts are pretty generally known. The mere reference to them must therefore suffice. But what I will do is to consider the peculiar importance of these state enterprises, and demonstrate the special qualities of civil servants which mark them as capitalist undertakers. First and foremost, state enterprises appeared as activities on a large scale where before there had been no activities whatsoever. Often enough it was the initiative of the monarch himself that was responsible for the undertakings. Consequently, in many cases it may be said that the monarch was the fount wherein the first beginnings of the undertaking spirit lay hidden.

"A German mercantilist writer points out what is appropriate for private initiative and what for public; and the opinion may be regarded as classical. To improve manufactures, says this worthy, you need cleverness, thought, and money; and concludes, 'These things are for the state; the merchant continues in his work just as he learned it and is accustomed to it. The general advantage of his native land is no concern of his.' These simple words speak volumes. True, they were written down in a Germany which was as yet in a backward condition. They hold good nevertheless (possibly in a weaker form) for all cases of early capitalist economic activities. How, for instance, would mining have fared, in more places than one, if the ruling prince had not stepped in at the right moment and dragged the disused carts out of the mire? You need only refer to the history of the mining industry in what is to-day the Ruhr district. 'With a system of mining that was without

plan (and such it had been for centuries, until about the middle of the 18th), it was hardly possible to expect a far-sighted policy. In the mining regulations issued in the Mark of Cleves in 1766, the state took over the technical and commercial management of the concern. The guardians brought up the neglected child.' It was the same in a thousand other cases. Now while the undertakings of the state were of great importance for the development of capitalism, their quality was of no less significance. State enterprises were always on a large scale; there was something big about them. In an age when the accumulation of capital was not extensive, the state was able to devote considerable sums of money to its undertakings, and often enough the state was the only agency with sufficient means to commence an undertaking. As illustrations we need only recall the transport enterprises both by land and sea, which even into the 19th century were made possible because the state was behind them. Similarly, the state had at its disposal the necessary organization for these undertakings. To appreciate the full value of the civil service let us call to mind that earlier ages lacked trained intelligence for administrative work of all sorts. The advantage in this respect which the state possessed over the private undertaker goes without saying. The state had the administrative machine ready; the private undertaker had first to provide it. Nor is this all. State undertakings had a large prospectiveness about them. Who so well as a reigning monarch could make plans for the future? And so, the characteristic marks of all capitalist undertaking, that your schemes should be far-sighted and your energy continuously active, both sprang from the very nature of state enterprise. In the same way, for creative ideas, extensive knowledge, and scientific training, who so well situated as the ruler of the state? Where else could you find so much capacity as in the council chamber? In those days, gifted citizens placed their capabilities at the disposal of the state. Of course, a good many princes were nonentities. But I am thinking rather of the competent ones, and of them and of their equally competent ministers, history has a fairly long list. Was any one more capable as a capitalist undertaker, in the France of those days [of the eighteenth century], than Colbert? And in the Prussia of Frederick the Great, who was more distinguished in the same way than Freiherr von Heinitz, the founder of the state's mining works in Upper Silesia? In the process of time, state undertakings began to manifest certain weaknesses—slow and cautious movement, red-tape, and so on. But these things were not yet in the earliest stages of capitalist development. On the contrary, in those days the civil servant represented a most important type of subsidiary capitalist undertaker, who by his special gifts made a lasting impression on the history of capitalism."—W. Sombart, *Quintessence of capitalism*, pp. 83-87.

17th-18th centuries.—Evolutionary survey.—"The exuberance of capitalism which reached its height in the second half of the sixteenth century was not maintained. Even as the regulative spirit characteristic of the urban economy followed upon the freedom of the twelfth century, so mercantilism imposed itself upon commerce and industry in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. By protective duties and bounties on exportation, by subsidies of all sorts to manufactures and national navigation, by the acquiring of transmarine colonies, by the creation of privileged commercial companies, by the inspection of manufacturing processes, by the perfecting of means of transportation

and the suppression of interior custom-houses, every state strives to increase its means of production, to close its market to its competitors, and to make the balance of trade incline in its favor. Doubtless the idea that 'liberty is the soul of commerce' does not wholly disappear, but the endeavor is to regulate that liberty henceforward in conformity to the interest of the public weal. It is put under the control of intendants, of consuls, of chambers of commerce. We are entering into the period of national economy. This was destined to last, as is familiar, until the moment when, in England at the end of the eighteenth century, on the Continent in the first years of the nineteenth, the invention of machinery and the application of steam to manufacturing completely disorganized the conditions of economic activity. The phenomena of the sixteenth century are reproduced, but with tenfold intensity. Merchants accustomed to the routine of mercantilism and to state protection are pushed aside. We do not see them pushing forward into the career which opens itself before them, unless as lenders of money. In their turn, and as we have seen it at each great crisis of economic history, they retire from business and transform themselves into an aristocracy. Of the powerful houses which are established on all hands and which give the impetus to the modern industries of metallurgy, of the spinning and weaving of wool, linen, and cotton, hardly one is connected with the establishments existing before the end of the eighteenth century. Once again, it is new men, enterprising spirits, and sturdy characters which profit by the circumstances. At most, the old capitalists, transformed into landed proprietors, play still an active rôle in the exploitation of the mines, because of the necessary dependence of that industry upon the possessors of the soil, but it can be safely affirmed that those who have presided over the gigantic progress of international economy, of the exuberant activity which now affects the whole world, were, as at the time of the Renaissance, parvenus, self-made men. As at the time of the Renaissance, again, their belief is in individualism and liberalism alone. Breaking with the traditions of the old régime, they take for their motto *'laissez faire laissez passer.'* They carry the consequences of the principle to an extreme. Unrestrained competition sets them to struggling with each other and soon arouses resistance in the form of socialism, among the proletariat that they are exploiting. And at the same time that that resistance arises to confront capital, the latter, itself suffering from the abuses of that freedom which had enabled it to rise, compels itself to discipline its affairs. Cartels [see CARTELS], trusts, syndicates of producers, are organized, while states, perceiving that it is impossible to leave employers and employees longer to contend in anarchy, elaborate a social legislation; and international regulations, transcending the frontiers of the various countries, begin to be applied to working men. . . . It may be stated . . . that every class of capitalists is at the beginning animated by a clearly progressive and innovating spirit but becomes conservative as its activities become regulated. To convince one's self of this truth it is sufficient to recall that the merchants of the eleventh and twelfth centuries are the ancestors of the bourgeoisie and the creators of the first urban institutions; that the business men of the Renaissance struggled as energetically as the humanists against the social traditions of the Middle Ages; and finally, that those of the nineteenth century have been among the most ardent upholders of liberalism. This would suffice to prove to us, if we did not know it otherwise, that all these have at

the beginning been nothing else than parvenus brought into action by the transformations of society, embarrassed neither by custom nor by routine, having nothing to lose and therefore the bolder in their race toward profit. But soon the primitive energy relaxes. The descendants of the new rich wish to preserve the situation which they have acquired, provided public authority will guarantee it to them, even at the price of a troublesome surveillance; they do not hesitate to place their influence at its service, and wait for the moment when, pushed aside by new men, they shall demand of the state that it recognize officially the rank to which they have raised their families, shall on their entrance into the nobility become a legal class and no longer a social group, and shall consider it beneath them to carry on that commerce which in the beginning made their fortunes."—H. Pirenne, *Stages in the social history of capitalism* (*American Historical Review*, Apr., 1914, pp. 513-515).—See also TRUSTS.

17th-18th centuries.—Foreign trade of France.—Spanish-American trade.—Capitalism in Holland.—Franco-Dutch trade.—England and Spain.—Assiento treaty.—England and Portugal.—Influence of American mines.—"France in the 17th century was filled with silver and gold by reason of its foreign trade. We have no reliable statistics for the extent of this trade, but indications are available of its immensity. Between 1716 and 1720, the period, be it noted, of the greatest bubbles and swindles, France exported 30 million francs' worth of goods more than it imported. The lion's share of available cash was due to Spanish-American trade, and the surplus from this quarter was utilized in paying debts to other countries. When the French East India Company was criticized for taking money out of the land, Seignelay defended its action by informing the King that the Indian imports were paid for in Spanish silver. Many ships there were that carried more than 300 million francs on board. Tiepolo, the Venetian ambassador, bears testimony to the great profitability of the Spanish-American trade, and English writers calculated that from this source alone France obtained some hundreds of millions, and so would be enabled to continue the war. Indeed, the weightiest criticism of the Whigs by the Tories was that they had done nothing to undermine that trade. Another source whence money flowed into France was Holland. In the 17th century Holland simply abounded in ready cash. In 1684, for instance, money was so plentiful that the city of Amsterdam reduced the rate of interest on its loans from 3½ to 3 per cent. For the large supplies of cash Holland was indebted to the French refugees, and, doubtless, also to the Jews. But the trade with Spain, as all authorities agree, must have produced by far the largest portion. From Holland France drew a good deal of money all through the period in which Franco-Dutch trade continued. In 1658 French exports to Holland were valued at 72 million francs, of which 52 millions were for manufactured articles. These goods were paid for mostly in cash; indeed, it was calculated that in those times France received from Holland more than 30 million gulden annually. But the sums of money that flowed into England towards the end of the 17th and the beginning of the 18th centuries must have been larger still. They came from three sources. The French immigrants brought their fortunes with them, and if those who settled in Holland were rich, those who came here [to England] were richer. Then there were the Jews, who were likewise wealthy. Some had come from Portugal, in the suite of Catherine of

Braganza; others from Holland with William of Orange. Thirdly, English export trade was so far above the import trade that in the first decades of the 18th century it yielded an annual surplus of between two and three millions. Four tributaries fed this stream. The Dutch trade was one. The second was the trade with Spain. In the 17th century Englishmen had managed to obtain a number of commercial privileges in Spain; and in the Assiento Treaty of the Utrecht settlement England reserved the right of sending to Spanish America a ship of 500 tons (later 650 tons) of English goods to compete freely at the fairs of Porto Bello and Vera Cruz. The third channel of commerce was with Portugal. By the middle of the 17th century, when the wave of prosperity commenced in Portugal, England entered into close relations with that country. In 1642 a commercial treaty was signed which gave the English a more favoured position than the Dutch in trading with Portuguese Colonies. Then came Charles II's marriage with Catherine of Braganza; and by the Methuen Treaty, concluded in 1703, no less a sum than 50,000 pounds sterling was said to flow every week from Portugal into England. The figure is probably not too high, for a Portuguese authority is of opinion that in the first year of the treaty England exported goods to Portugal to the value of 13 million crusados (1 crusados equals about two shillings [or, roughly speaking, fifty cents]). Finally there was the stream of commerce with Brazil, whither a large part of the exports from England to Portugal were re-exported. But there was a fair amount of direct trade too, more especially in English woollen goods, which were much favoured by the rich Brazilians. These facts, it seems to me, showing as they do that England and France, when the 17th century ended and the 18th began, were simply flooded with cash, are of very great significance, and should not be overlooked in forming a proper estimate of economic activities in those days. I have already pointed out that reliable contemporary authorities described the period as 'an age of projecting'—quite generally, and apart from the South Sea and the Law bubbles which burst towards the end of it. The evidence we have adduced goes to prove that the contemporary views were correct. Did we not see how much money flowed into France and England? And is the conclusion not justifiable that these vast sums both produced and nourished the speculating fever? We have here standing out with perfect clearness a most important fact in economic history. Increase the available quantity of money in a country and you prepare the ground for a development of the capitalist spirit. Where did all the money come from? The answer to this question takes us a step further. But it has already been given in the course of our considerations. It was American silver and Brazilian gold that fructified the economic life of England and France. Holland gathered the bullion of the New World in its markets. From there it was carried directly (by emigration) and indirectly (by trade) to England and France. Commercial intercourse between these two countries and the source of supply only added to the stores already obtained. This was the case in the 16th century; in the course of the 17th the system became perfected. Spain and Portugal were merely canals through which the precious metals of their colonies were distributed. To obtain some idea of the quantities produced, let me give a few figures, generally accepted as reliable. Silver came from Mexico, Peru, and Bolivia. The rich mines of Guanaxuato and Potosi were first opened about the middle of the 16th century, and the output in-

creased from an average of some 30,067,000 ounces, between 1521 and 1544, to 103,900,000 ounces, between 1545 and 1560. In the 17th century the supply varied between 100,000,000 and 140,000,000 ounces. In that century Brazilian gold was discovered, and the silver age of capitalism ended, to give place to the age of gold. Between 1701 and 1720 Brazil yielded gold to the value of 7½ millions sterling. Here we have the key to the proper appreciation of the economic life of Europe from 1680 to 1720. We may now realize the connection between the expansion of the capitalist spirit and the supply of the precious metals. . . . German commercial enterprise in the 16th century was not unconnected with silver-mining in Schwarz and Joachimstal; the feverish speculation of the 'fifties in the last century may be similarly traced to the Californian gold-mines. . . . Money is the medium through which gold and silver can influence economic activities. We see this in the early capitalist period, that is, in the 15th and 16th centuries, to say nothing of the Italian city states before the 15th century. About their supply of metallic currency we know hardly anything; we can only assume that the precious metals, which made the rise and progress of capitalism possible, they must have obtained from Germany (silver), and from the Byzantine Empire and North Africa (gold). But, when all is said, it is obvious that modern economic activities and the people who participate in them cannot be wholly explained by a reference to the discoveries of gold and silver. These could have had only a limited influence. Nay, more, in order to effect even this influence many other conditions were necessary. And they were operative in Western Europe all through the centuries with which we are concerned. Had they not been in existence, the results of the opening of the gold and silver mines in America might have been very different. Spain and Portugal bear witness to that. On the other hand, even if all the other circumstances necessary for the evolution of the capitalist spirit had been present, without the American supplies of the precious metals the capitalist spirit might have grown into something very different from what it actually is. Just think of it. If the miners on the Cordilleras and in the Brazilian valleys had not chanced upon gold and silver veins—quite by accident too—the modern business man might never have come into existence."—W. Sombart, *Quintessence of capitalism*, pp. 313-318.

17th-18th centuries.—France.—Establishment of factories.—Suppression of corporations.—"One of the most important events in social history of the 18th century is the progress of great industries, if one can so call by that modern term work in factories as opposed to work in ateliers of corporations. The regime of the *métiers* (artisan corporations) had been organized in feudal times. It provided for the needs of local life. The seigneur had his artisans, as he had his court, his judges and his men-at-arms. The commune was a collective seigneur, having its council, its judges and its artisans. The corporation was [collectively] a person who had received a handicraft in fief, on certain conditions ruled by a statute. At the end of the fifteenth century the world tripled, the nations disputed for the enlarged commerce. It became necessary to produce in large quantities and quickly. Then commenced the manufactures, which became so considerable in the time of Colbert. With the manufactures, the great capital came on the scene. In the old *métiers* the capital, always small, belonged to the master. Proprietor and owner of the tools, he possessed all the means

of work, and received all the proceeds. The intervention of capital which furnished the tools and collected the profit was a revolution."—E. Lavisse, *Histoire de la France*, v. 7, pp. 331-332.—"In the middle of the [eighteenth] century, under pressure of the economists, a regime of liberty was commenced in industry. Too hastily Turgot undertook to destroy the corporations. Clugny, his successor, restored the ancient rules, but not in entirety. An edict of 1777 interdicted the corporate organization of work outside of cities and suburbs, and even in that limited zone he restrained the numbers of corporations."—*Ibid.*, v. 9, p. 220.

18th century.—England.—Bank of England.—Use of credit.—"The eighteenth century was marked by the continuance of the scheme of national policy which had been devised at the time of Elizabeth, but it showed some very marked differences. . . . We hear much, in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, of the political importance of the monied men and they came to be a much more striking factor than formerly in economic life. The foundation of the Bank of England, and of the numerous Provincial Banks which followed its lead, gave an immense impulse to the forming of capital, . . . enabled the private person to obtain an interest on his money while the money could be still more remuneratively employed in loans to government or to private persons who were in need of capital. By opening up opportunities for obtaining an income, the eighteenth century did a very great deal for the investment of hoards as capital. Still greater prominence came to the owners of capital through the recognition of the power of credit. By means of its credit the government was able to obtain funds to be used for special emergencies. By means of their credit, as the recipients of a large income from government, the Bank of England was able to obtain command of large sums of money, and lend them to those who had the prospects of trading successfully; and hence during the eighteenth century the practice of borrowing money to meet emergencies and of trading on borrowed capital came to be general, not only by merchants and manufacturers, but by agriculturists as well. The question of the direction of this capital into the most profitable channels, so that the country might prosper as much as possible, was the main economic problem of the eighteenth century in England."—W. Cunningham, *Progress of capitalism in England*, pp. 100, 102-103.

18th-19th centuries.—Capital in international finance.—Landgrave of Hesse.—Rothschilds.—Barings.—"The German capitalists were a later growth; even at Frankfort, the cradle of the race, its founder, Mayer Amschel [or Anselm] (1743-1812), only took the Rothschild name in 1780. More than a century earlier the Berliners, the Frankfurters, the Pragers, the Wieners, the Fugers and the Oppenheims had been controlling figures in German finance. The last of these families gave Mayer Amschel those peeps into a realm of gold where he knew that his powers, his ambition, and the courage and industry supporting it, would place him beyond all rivals in the struggle for wealth . . . While hawking his goods at the great fairs in the town of his birth, he showed an expertness in all matters concerned with gold and silver that reached the ears of the Landgrave of Hesse, a prince who swelled his revenues by raising and letting out, at a heavy charge, mercenary troops to the British Government. Those transactions secured Mayer Amschel the chance of becoming the Landgrave's right-hand man and, eventually, his chief adviser. In and after 1785 the

Landgrave's purchases of British stock, always conducted by his agent, brought the first Rothschild into relations with the London money market. His position resembled that in a modern stock-broking firm occupied by an "Authorised Clerk," strictly responsible to his employers but so trusted by them as to have something of a free hand in laying out their capital. The Landgrave combined the title of a prince with the spirit of a pawnbroker, trusted no one even so far as he could see him, seasoned alike his few open-air recreations and the functions of his petty state with a mixture of buying, selling, and bargaining; always on the lookout for a little better percentage, and fearful only lest his neighbour should have a chance which he himself had missed. His court had been turned into a counting-house; the chief duty of his gentlemen-in-waiting was to calculate rates of exchange and to advance their royal master's interests by keeping a sharp outlook for the main chance. The Gentile principal could not but be the teacher as well; the pupil bettered the instruction, and so impressed on his sons the lessons that had been taught him that he lived to see all the five prosperously established at the different places assigned them for the display of the family gift. The eldest, Anselm Mayer, continued to manage the parent business at Frankfort; the second son, Solomon, opened his offices at Vienna; the fourth, James, achieved a purely intellectual distinction, scarcely second to his financial fame, at Paris; the youngest, Charles, conducted the short-lived department of his house at Naples. The third son, Nathan, with whom we are now concerned, concentrated in himself, in their highest form, all the family faculties. Migrating to the British Isles in 1708, he first initiated himself into the mysteries of the cotton trade at Manchester. With the dawn of the 19th century, he went to London and started the great business still flourishing in New Court. Once satisfied as to his son's capacity and prospects, the Frankfort patriarch induced the Landgrave to appoint him his sole agent in London. Shortly afterwards (1806) Nathan Rothschild carried through the first great international transaction, bringing forward the family name as that of the principals, and securing for New Court, as well as for its kindred establishments abroad, the cosmopolitan distinction and influence indicated by the name ever since. During the first decade of the 19th century Denmark had been compelled by her domestic necessities to be a frequent borrower. In 1801 Mayer Amschel had secured her an advance from the Landgrave. Five years later Nathan Rothschild had prospered to such an extent in London that he had no difficulty in obtaining his father's co-operation for supplying the Copenhagen government with a million or so immediately required. This operation is memorable for two reasons: first, as has been said, it brought forward the first of the English Rothschids as a power in the world-finance; secondly, London, already the largest of European money centres, now began to take the place of 18th century Amsterdam, and to become the emporium of the markets of the world. So began the creation of that Rothschild fortune, amounting in a century after Nathan's death to four hundred millions. The chief contributions to that vast capital, made by the ancestor of the English Rothschids, may now be briefly traced. Soon after his arrival here this founder of the London dynasty made a valuable acquaintance in Nicholas Vansittart, a man of Dutch extraction, and a future Chancellor of the Exchequer, with much actual experience of Treasury employments. Through him Rothschild heard

that the East India Company wished to sell a hundred thousand pounds of gold then in its Lead-hall Street cellars. Rothschild not only bought it but a little later conveyed it to the British Commander in Portugal, Sir Arthur Wellesley, the future Duke of Wellington, whose requirements were urgent. Meanwhile the English General had paid his troops from bills which he drew on the Treasury and which were discounted largely but not exclusively by a group of Maltese, Sicilian, and Spanish bankers. It had now become an object with Downing Street to ascertain the whereabouts of all this paper, and to redeem it without the publicity that might cause an inconvenient disturbance of the money market. The Duke's Treasury paper was floating, often in unsuspected corners, over the whole continent. It needed a man of Rothschild's extraordinary gifts first to conduct a thoroughly exhaustive quest and then to take up the bills at the comparatively small outlay of seven hundred thousand pounds. Two years later Wellington's decisive victory over Napoleon gave Rothschild the opportunity of surpassing all his earlier financial strokes. . . . All reports to the contrary notwithstanding, Napoleon had fallen; and Nathan Rothschild, with this priceless knowledge, returned to London [from Ghent] with all the speed that courage and capital could secure. There he took his usual corner in the Royal Exchange (the building with which Jerman had replaced Gresham's structure and which was itself destroyed in 1838). Alarming war news had produced a depression that gradually became a panic; nothing of reassurance or hope was to be gathered from the appearance of Nathan Mayer Rothschild, who alone in the city of London knew the facts. As a consequence every one began to sell Consols, the only Government stock then dealt in, except the lottery with their tickets. As fast as the public sold, Rothschild, through his agents, bought. Gradually the truth began to leak out; the price of the securities rebounded; and Rothschild readily found good customers for the stock bought by him on the falling market. In the course of some hours he thus realised sums the exact total of which has never been published and was perhaps never certainly known. The whole Napoleonic period stimulated Nathan Rothschild to that succession of far-reaching schemes that first won for him the description the 'Napoleon of Finance.' 'Rothschild and I,' the Duke of Wellington is reported, perhaps fabled, to have said, 'both owe something of our success to the gift of knowing what is in progress on the other side of a wall.' Not only England but our chief ally, Prussia, must need—Rothschild foresaw—large supplies before their decisive triumph could follow the escape from Elba in March, 1815. In London, Vansittart, still Chancellor of the Exchequer, was in daily communication with New Court. Berlin had decided that the only thing to do was to send the Finance Minister, Bülow, loan-hunting in London. In this way began the earliest direct relations between the Prussian capital and New Court. A transaction so momentous called for the united action of all the brothers. During the first quarter of the 19th century the official records, digested in Mr. Balla's book, give eighteen million as the amount of Rothschild advances to continental States in the war with France. Reviewing these operations in 1827, Herries, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, estimated at half a million the saving effected by the Rothschilds for England by preventing a fall in the value of public securities; 'the brothers,' said Herries, 'deserve the highest praise for their efforts in the public service. Their consequent profit was se-

cured honestly and openly gained.' . . . 'I trade in pennies and in millions,' is a description of the Rothschild methods closely resembling that given by Gentz, whose account of Nathan's rise includes the smaller miscellaneous transactions that had first engaged him when hovering between the Lancashire cotton capital and the metropolis of the Empire. Before his death on the eve of the Victorian Era, Nathan Rothschild had laid the foundations of the family fame and power with other materials than wealth alone. Fidelity to the paternal tradition of family union in all great enterprises, caution and foresight, a readiness to give financial advice to smaller States even when they had no occasion to be borrowers, and an avoidance of merely sensational strokes whatever the potential profit—such is Gentz's epitome of the secret of New Court success. The family caution showed itself in a general refusal to deal with States considered financially unsound, like Spain and the South American Republics, though it did not prevent Nathan's extensive transactions with the Brazilian Government in 1824. In that year Brazil had applied for a loan to another banking house, but the interest asked was so high as abruptly to end the negotiations. Rothschild then came to the rescue with £2,200,000 at once; and five years later another £800,000 were forthcoming, on the condition that part of it should be reserved for the unpaid interest on the earlier loan. . . . The London house passed entirely to Nathan's firstborn, Lionel, and the two other sons Antony and Mayer. Nothing is more noticeable in the record of this remarkable line than the uniformity with which, in each generation, the family instinct and genius descended from father to son. Nathan's strong brains and illimitable resources had made him a national institution in his adopted country. In 1854 that position was emphasised by a sixteen million loan which the Crimean War forced on the English Government, and which the banking house in St. Swithin's Lane provided. In short, during the greater part of the 19th century, from the Liverpool Government onward to that of Disraeli, the house of Rothschild remained continuously in closer relations with the British Cabinet than those ever occupied by any private business house before or since."—T. H. S. Scott, *House of Rothschild* (*Quarterly Review*, April, 1919, pp. 430-438).

"Although the Barings played a considerable rôle in England, during the middle and latter portion of the eighteenth century. John Baring having represented the city of Exeter for nearly thirty years in Parliament while his son, Sir Francis Baring, was chairman of the East India Company . . . when the great Sultan Tippo was being conquered . . . the real founder of the family fortune was Alexander Baring, second son of Sir Francis." He married "the elder daughter of . . . Senator William Bingham" whose dowry, "estimated at \$5,000,000 was invested in the house of Baring . . . and enabled it to branch out on a huge scale. . . . The firm was able about fifteen or sixteen years later, to loan 40,000,000 francs to the French government at short notice for the war payments, at the time when France was occupied by the allied armies in 1815. It was with reference to this enterprise that . . . Marshal Soult is said to have remarked that there were six great powers in Europe, namely, England, France, Russia, Austria, Prussia and Baring Bros."—Marquise de Fontenoy (*N. Y. Tribune*, April 3, 1906).

19th century.—Capital in empire building.—Cecil Rhodes in South Africa.—Mining as a source of capital.—Struggles between capitalists. —"The lad of seventeen [Cecil John Rhodes] who

was to set his mark on South Africa, and who died there a millionaire and the owner of 300,000 acres of its finest land, came out as an immigrant entitled to a free grant of 50 acres to be paid for in five years. This land he took up, but he had no capital. The allowance he received from his father was a trifling one, and he was destined frequently to feel the pinch of poverty. . . . Under what was called 'Mann's Emigration Scheme,' [his brother] Herbert Rhodes had obtained a grant of 200 acres in the Umkomaas Valley . . . and was experimenting there with cotton. . . . Cecil joined him in an informal partnership, and in a few months they had 100 acres under cultivation. . . . Herbert, who was of a restless disposition, was often away, and Cecil practically 'ran' the plantation."—L. Mitchell, *Life of the Rt. Hon. Cecil John Rhodes, 1853-1902*, pp. 25, 27, 29.—"The discovery of the Diamond Fields opened a new chapter in South African history, in which the eighteen-year-old cotton planter of the Umkomanzi valley was destined to play a principal part. . . . In October 1871 Rhodes left his Natal farm, never to return. His luggage comprised a few digger's tools, some volumes of the classics and a Greek lexicon; heaping these into a Scotch cart drawn by oxen he started on his 400-mile journey to the Diamond Fields. . . . A serious illness, when he was alone in Kimberley, had warned Rhodes that he must not presume on his delicate constitution. . . . To complete his recovery he went off with Herbert some time in 1872 for a long trek into the Transvaal, Frank being left to look after the claims. . . . During that long trek the great love he bore to the country, the people and even the animals of South Africa became rooted in his being. . . . For the immediate present the trek seems to have confirmed him in his cherished design of going to Oxford, 'to help himself in his career,' a career which he always intended to be something more than that of amassing money. Not that he objected to money: on that he was quite frank. He desired it partly to pay for Oxford and for other ambitions, but also because he liked and was amused by the game of winning it. . . . Rhodes then went into partnership with C. D. Rudd, who was to stay out to look after their properties: . . . and began to buy up claims in Old De Beers, which he used to speak of as 'a nice little mine,' and which soon became the mainstay of his fortunes. . . . But he did not keep his last term or take his degree till 1881, when he was twenty-eight, had earned a large fortune for himself and was a rising member of the Cape Parliament."—B. Williams, *Life of the Rt. Hon. Cecil John Rhodes, 1853-1902*, pp. 17, 25, 35-37.—During these years Rhodes had had difficulties and setbacks, but "his mould was that of the great merchant adventurers of an earlier age, who laid the foundations of [the British] dominion beyond the seas."—L. Mitchell, *Life of the Rt. Hon. Cecil John Rhodes, 1853-1902*, p. 60.—He "was one of those who never despaired, because he was long-sighted enough to see remedies for . . . difficulties. Both he and Barnato were convinced that the prosperity of the Fields would not cease with the exhaustion of the 'yellow ground' [which showed signs of giving out]; without any scientific knowledge to guide them, they believed that the blue ground also contained diamonds, and they were confirmed in their instinct by the Cape mineralogist. With regard to the other difficulties, fall of reef, flooding and the haulage of ground from the mines he had one panacea, economy of working by an amalgamation of interests. . . . Barnato saw it as clearly as Rhodes. It could be effected in two ways: by a combination of claim-holders in a mine to work

for objects of common interest, such as pumping out the water or removing blocks of reef; or by an absorption of all claims in a mine or even of the various mines into as few hands as possible. Rhodes took his share in promoting both methods of united action. When the Mining Boards were established, with his partners Rudd and Alderson he tendered in 1874 for the contract to pump out the Kimberley, De Beers and Dutoitspan mines. By cutting the price very fine they got the contract over the head of some formidable rivals. . . . He and Rudd stuck to their Old De Beers mine and rapidly extended their holding in it. . . . They acquired the valuable block known as Baxter's Gully and might once have bought the whole mine for a mere song, some £6000; but after discussing the offer for a whole day they reluctantly decided that they could not afford the capital as well as the licence fees, no doubt one of the occasions missed by Rhodes for 'want of pluck.' . . . And though he did not buy up the mine for £6000 he was gradually working to that end by more expensive methods. By 1880 R. Graham, Dunsmore, Alderson, Stow and English and other less known De Beers claim-holders had joined the Rhodes-Rudd partnership, which on April 1 was floated as a company with the modest capital of £200,000. Some important groups were still outstanding at De Beers, but Rhodes's company already held the chief place. . . . 'Put money in thy purse. . . . Put money in thy purse. . . . Make all the money thou canst': this seems to have been the chief lesson learned by Rhodes after the comparative failure of his first great adventure in politics. . . . During the five years that he had been devoting his energies chiefly to affairs of state in Basutoland and Bechuanaland or at Cape Town, he had not lost sight of his De Beers Mining Company. . . . Since its incorporation in 1880 with a capital of only £200,000 it had prospered exceedingly, largely owing to the vigilance of Rhodes himself, who was secretary of the Company till 1883 and then chairman. . . . By 1885 the De Beers Company was already the chief owner in that mine, and its capital had increased from the original £200,000 to £841,550. But this was not enough: he was determined to clear out all rivals and make his company the sole proprietor of his 'nice little mine.' . . . By 1887 he had bought up all the remaining claims at De Beers and thus made his company the sole owner of the mine. . . . The De Beers Mining Company, which had paid only 3 per cent on the original £200,000 in 1882, in 1888 paid 25 per cent on a capital of no less than £2,332,170. . . . But owing to over-production, the price of diamonds had sunk and was still sinking; if it came to a cut-throat competition between the two mines, profits would disappear altogether, and then the weaker mine would have to succumb. . . . The problem to his mind, therefore, was how to limit the annual output of diamonds for the market. . . . The amalgamation of interests in one mine only was no remedy for this state of things as long as there were rival companies elsewhere. The only solution he saw was to amalgamate all the diamond mines under one control, and so regulate production and prices to suit the interests of the industry. Others before him, his friend Merriman for one, had conceived this idea of one gigantic diamond corporation, but had failed to bring it off. But this did not daunt Rhodes, he remembered the Umkomanzi valley and the cotton: so he resolved to make one more attempt. This resolution brought him into direct antagonism with Barney Barnato. Before 1887 there had been no such rivalry; each had been too busy looking after his own mine. But on

this question of fixing prices and eliminating competition the two kings of the diamond industry took diametrically opposite views. Rhodes's idea of a huge corporation, of which he would naturally be the guiding spirit, to control the four mines and regulate prices, did not suit [Barney] Barnato at all. He was equally convinced that over-production must be checked, but he proposed to secure that end either by a working agreement between equals, or by breaking all his competitors, including De Beers, and so making the Kimberley Mine supreme. On one thing he was quite determined, not to allow his holdings to be sunk in the gulf of De Beers; and, if it came to a fight, he was quite prepared for it, for he had an immense belief in the Kimberley Mine as capable of producing diamonds of better quality, in larger numbers, and more cheaply than De Beers. When, therefore, in May 1887 Rhodes opened the offensive, he readily took up the challenge. [As the result of the contest Barnato] saw that the game was up. He had fought well and gallantly and, when he saw himself beaten, surrendered in a generous spirit. In March 1888 he loyally accepted terms which gave Rhodes complete control of the Kimberley Mine. . . . Rhodes could be ruthless and unscrupulous for an object, but no doubt he excused the means to himself by the importance he attached to the object. As soon as he had secured his victory for amalgamation, he reverted, in the deed of association, to his underlying purpose of securing means to carry out his Imperial policy. A corporation entitled the De Beers Consolidated Mines was formed with the modest capital of £100,000 in £5 shares. All these shares, except twenty-five, were held by four men, Rhodes, Barnato, Beit, and Philipson Stow, who constituted themselves life-governors of the Corporation. . . . [In the gold fields, Rhodes'] principal venture was The Gold Fields of South Africa, Limited, founded in 1887 with a capital of £125,000. . . . The capital was eagerly taken up and had been increased to £1,250,000 by 1892, when it was renamed The Consolidated Gold Fields of South Africa. By that time it had given up the direct working of nearly all its properties and become a huge share trust company in Rand mines, especially deep-levels, to which Rhodes, at first incredulous, had become thoroughly converted. Its shareholders' interests were guarded by the full control it exercised over the gold-mining companies subsidiary to it; and the management, for which Rhodes was largely responsible, gave excellent results. . . . By the enterprises he had thus set going, both at Kimberley and at Johannesburg, during the three years 1885 to 1888, Rhodes was now master of the financial resources he thought necessary for his political aims. How rich he actually was it is impossible to tell and, probably, he himself hardly knew. . . . At first, when he was in his full vigour, he was the absolute dictator of De Beers and the Gold Fields, with all their ramifications throughout South Africa, even, one may say, throughout the world. He could and did make them spend their money on such various objects as securing large tracts of Africa for the Empire, promoting fruit farms, breeding horses or encouraging education. His position at the head of the diamond industry gave him even the excuse for interfering in the politics of the United States. . . . Rhodes had now obtained what in mining practice might be termed an option on Matabeleland. His next business was to convert this option into firm possession. Neither the Cape nor the Home Government could be looked to for further assistance at this stage; the Cape was not yet ready to absorb even Bechuana-

land, while the High Commissioner had gone to the utmost limits of his power. Private enterprise was the only resource left: so Rhodes determined on private enterprise; and, if he could obtain the sanction of the state for his private enterprise, so much the better. . . . His own main object was to preserve as much as possible of Africa for British civilization, to his mind the greatest blessing in the world; but to make converts he did not rely on this lure alone. 'Pure philanthropy is all very well in its way,' as he said, 'but philanthropy plus 5 per cent is a good deal better.' . . . By the beginning of 1888 all things were ready: he had founded the Gold Fields and was on the eve of amalgamating the diamond mines; so he had no anxiety about finance and was prepared to start forthwith. . . . On April 30, 1889, Lord Gifford on behalf of the Exploring Company, and Rhodes, Rudd and Beit representing the Gold Fields of South Africa, jointly applied for a Charter to a company prepared to carry out the following objects: (1) To extend the railway and telegraph northwards towards the Zambesi. (2) To encourage emigration and colonization. (3) To promote trade and commerce. (4) To develop minerals and other concessions under one powerful organization, so as to avoid conflicts between competing interests. . . . The power granted by Charter to the British South Africa Company was, as Rhodes had said of the Rudd concession, 'gigantic.' Certain clauses were inserted for the protection of native rights, freedom of religion, trade and previous concessions; the Secretary of State had limited rights of supervising the Company's operations; and after twenty-five years, or earlier, if the Company's privileges were misused, the Charter might be revoked. Otherwise they had almost unfettered freedom of action. The Company's 'principal field of operations' was all South Africa north of the new Crown Colony and the Transvaal and west of the Portuguese possessions in East Africa: thus it included the Bechuanaland Protectorate and had no limit northwards. for Rhodes, 'not satisfied with the Zambesi as a boundary,' had had his way. In this vast territory the Company was given power to make treaties, promulgate laws, preserve the peace, maintain a police force, and acquire new concessions: it could make roads, railways, harbours, or undertake other public works, own or charter ships, engage in mining or any other industry, establish banks, make land grants and carry on any lawful commerce, trade, pursuit or business. . . . By 1895 Rhodes was at the pinnacle of success and glory. . . . Over a large part of this great dominion, 750,000 square miles in extent, larger than Spain, France and the former German Empire put together, order and settled government had been established; no internal or external danger to its peace gave cause for apprehension. The railway was being pushed on towards Salisbury from Mafeking and from Beira; Salisbury, Buluwayo and other townships had been put in touch by the telegraph line with the outside world. The even more ambitious scheme of the African Transcontinental Telegraph Company, almost entirely a creation of Rhodes's forethought and private capital, had begun linking up the whole of Africa from Cape to Cairo and had already reached Blantyre in the distant Shire Highlands. To secure the through route he had begun negotiations with the German Government for way-leaves through German East Africa, and as a second string had obtained from Lord Rosebery's Government a treaty with the Congo State allowing him to run the telegraph along the western shore of Lake Tanganyika in exchange for the lease of the

Lado Enclave. In Southern Rhodesia farming, stimulated by Rhodes's encouragement and his practical help, was already giving promise, and gold production had at last taken a favourable turn. The public finances were improving and confidence in the country was shown by the rapid development of its chief centres, Salisbury, Buluwayo, Gwelo and Umtali. The climate had been proved healthy and fit for white men to work in and rear families. Already Rhodes's wish, 'Homes, more homes, that is what I want,' formulated as he looked over the uplands of Rhodesia and thought of the squalid tenements General Booth and others had shown him in London, was being realized. Rhodes's great wealth was no doubt a large factor in his success; and there was an element of truth in the critic's envious comment that it was easy for him to attain his objects 'with your armies and your gold and with all the quiet, majestic, resistless advance of an elephant through brushwood.' He himself never underestimated this factor. 'If we have imaginative ideas, we must have pounds, shillings and pence to carry them out,' he said to Gordon. But something more was needed. Earl Grey, the friend who more than any other could pierce through Rhodes's crust of cynicism to the noblest elements in him, put his finger on one essential: public spirit. . . .

"After the failure of the Jameson raid and imprisonment of the leaders, Rhodes made it his business to provide for their legal expenses, and to ensure them every comfort it was within his power to give, and he wrote saying that he was prepared to stand his trial also, if the Government wished to prosecute. The Reform prisoners were put on trial in the Transvaal, and Frank Rhodes and the other leaders were sentenced to death." The sentences, however, were commuted for fines of £25,000 apiece, "which Rhodes cheerfully paid . . . as part of the expenses of the Raid. These expenses, which included the cost of all the agents employed in the plot, a press fund to secure a favourable public opinion, compensation to sufferers, arms smuggled into Johannesburg, and pay and equipment for the raiders, amounted to considerably over a quarter of a million sterling, a debt which was promptly settled by Rhodes and Beit between them."—B. Williams, *Cecil Rhodes*, pp. 45-47, 91-92, 94-96, 102, 111, 113-114, 121, 122-123, 135, 137-138, 181-182, 277.—See also **COMMERCE**: Commercial age: 1766-1921.

19th century.—France.—Increased manufacturing.—International commerce.—Second empire.—Third republic.—Small investors.—"It is probable that if the corporations had not been abolished in 1791, they would have disappeared in 1830 by the logic of events. . . . At that time high finance and capitalism took in hand the destinies of the new industries. They carried to its organization, and to its development the resources of their activity without scruple, and their audacity of speculation, making all converge to their essential end, that is to say the maximum of return for the greatest profit possible. It was during the reign of Louis Philippe . . . that commerce and industry took a magnificent flight. Territories until then purely agricultural covered themselves with factories . . . commerce became international, . . . [by the new means of transportation]. That industrial transformation of the country in fifteen years could naturally not be made without injury, false movements, partial crises, ruin to some. But the aristocracy of money, the modern barons of finance professed absolute scorn for all that was not to their personal interest. They went straight for their end without care for crashes. So much the

worse for the feeble and the powerless, small employers ruined, famished artisans. The law of competition exacted their disappearance or their servitude. From that epoch (1830-1848) the essential characters of the element of capital are crystallized. The Second Empire was, as the July monarchy, a land of choice for capitalism, which was truly then at its apogee. It increased still more its radius of business by speculations in land, and the gigantic construction of buildings in all Paris. . . . It was encouraged by the megalomania of Napoleon III, by a fury of borrowing from foreigners. . . . The Third Republic appeared first to be bound to continue the same course; but it soon perceived a little fact, which passed almost unperceived but which perhaps will have the greatest consequences for our future destinies, and for that of capitalism. Up to that time the privilege of making speculations on the Bourse and mixing in financial affairs remained in the hands of high and powerful seigneurs, who defended it jealously, forming a sort of international free masonry of which they were the masters. From 1880 all that changed, not that more clients were initiated into the arcanas, on the contrary, the shadows were thickened; but an army of small depositors was recruited, which deposited several milliards [of francs] by the year."—E. Amanieux, *Capital and production (La Revue, Revue des revues, v. 24, pp. 1-17)*.—See also **SOCIALISM**: 1840-1848.

19th century.—United States.—Origin of Wall Street houses.—Merchant princes.—Private bankers in England.—Importation of foreign capital.—New American companies and financiers.—Bond dealers.—Civil War debt.—United States bonds abroad.—French loan.—Railroad financing.—Panics.—Entrance of steel.—Andrew Carnegie, Frick and the coke industry.—Mesaba Range.—Growth of steel business.—Rise of oil corporations.—"The old meaning of the word 'capital'—that is, an accumulation of wealth, either money or substantial property, for use in the production of more wealth—has been greatly enlarged within recent times. In earlier days, under the crude methods then prevailing, a given manufacturing plant might earn, say, ten per cent on its invested capital; but when power machinery and improved processes came into use and earnings increased, say, to twenty-five or forty per cent, the practice began of putting a valuation on this increased earning power, and the 'value' of a given property, instead of being based on its original or replacement cost, came to be measured by its capacity to earn profits. Upon this new basis, 'capital,' as expressed through the issue of corporate stocks and bonds, was created by leaps and bounds. . . . In the quarter century from 1890 to 1915, the total capitalization in the form of stocks and bonds of public service corporations in the United States grew from less than two hundred million to nearly twenty billion dollars. This new capitalism is a phenomenon of far-reaching magnitude in modern society. . . . The great financial houses of Wall Street, which are today most closely identified with the organization and control of the great corporate enterprises of the country, nearly all started as firms engaged in the dry-goods or clothing business. Not only the Morgans, but the Brown Brothers, Kuhn, Loeb and Company, the Seligmans, and other old private banking houses of New York, began in this way. It was a natural beginning, for prior to the period of modern machinery capital in large masses was employed chiefly by merchants, and the wholesale handling of merchandise was among the most profitable of undertakings. Before the idea of capitalizing potential

possibilities took possession of the minds of men, the purely competitive commercial business, such as the wholesale merchandising of goods, still held the center of the stage, both in this country and Europe. Even Nathan Rothschild, the most famous financier of the early nineteenth century, had made his start by financing the materials and products of the early English cotton mills. So also in America, the capital of the day tended to gather in the hands of great merchants whose stock in trade was very largely cloth or manufactures from cloth. Most Americans have forgotten all this early history. Our 'merchant princes' . . . have passed out of mind. The business of security making and selling . . . now looms so large that it seems to have been always important. In England they remember better. The men whom we in this country call 'private bankers,' such as the Rothschilds, the Barings, and the Morgans, are not, even today, known as bankers over there, but as 'merchants.' They are the lineal business descendants of the great East India Company of olden times. In the United States one particular section developed the international merchant. . . . In 1837, at the age of forty-two, [George Peabody] went to London and founded there the merchant banking house of George Peabody and Company, which latter became J. S. Morgan and Company. George Peabody's departure for London was not in itself notably interesting at the time. In London he continued to be a 'merchant' just as he had been in this country, but in establishing himself in the greatest mercantile and banking center in the world he was really making an advance along unusual lines. The kind of enterprise he founded is excellently described by his biographer, Fox-Bourne: In London and in parts of England, he bought British manufactures for shipment to the United States; and the ships came back freighted with every kind of American produce for sale in England. To that lucrative account, however, was added one far more lucrative. The merchants and manufacturers on both sides of the Atlantic, who transmitted their goods through him, sometimes procured from him advances on account of the goods in his possession long before they were sold. At other times they found it convenient to leave large sums in his hands long after the goods were disposed of, knowing that they could draw whenever they needed, and that in the meantime their money was being so profitably invested that they were certain of a proper interest on their loans. Thus he became a banker as well as a great merchant, and ultimately much more of a banker than a merchant. In London, the chief financial center of the world, George Peabody represented the greatest and most profitable field for the investment of capital—the American continent, as yet practically unscratched. Literally millions of square miles of the richest farming and mineral lands were there to be had for the asking; valueless it is true until populated, but potentially of vast value. The men who acquired or preëmpted this vast El Dorado, equipped it with power machinery, and the means of transportation, thus setting labor to work, would create values which would mount for generations to come. Untold wealth would continuously flow into their coffers. . . . When Peabody took up his residence in London, European capitalists were already competing for the opportunity to exploit American enterprises. Strong foreign houses were forming financial connections between London and New York. The Rothschilds had sent August Belmont to represent them in New York in the same year that Peabody had settled in London. . . . Peabody's

. . . business was that of the financier, a 'master of capital.' In this field his success was enormous for the times, and his name grew constantly in English favor. . . . When Peabody retired, in 1864, Junius S. Morgan became the head of the business. Morgan was another Yankee dry-goods trader—a member of the firm of J. M. Beebe and Company of Boston—who had been taken into partnership by Peabody ten years before. He was now about fifty-one and was fully capable of carrying on the high traditions of the Peabody firm—doing international commercial banking, holding deposits of customers, and buying and selling securities. The firm placed considerable issues of American railroad bonds in London and negotiated a loan to Chile.

"The name of George Peabody and Company ended with the death of Peabody, according to his own wish. But the business was carried out without interruption under the name of J. S. Morgan and Company. Junius Morgan had a son, John Pierpont by name, born in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1837, when his father was in the dry-goods business there. . . . It was in 1857, the year of a great financial panic in the United States, that John Pierpont Morgan, a tall, taciturn young man of twenty, stepped on the stage of American business. At that time the house of George Peabody and Company . . . had to appeal to the Bank of England for assistance. This experience impressed the London house with the vital importance of closer control of its American business, and it was decided to send young Pierpont Morgan to represent the firm in New York as cashier of Duncan, Sherman and Company. In the offices of Duncan, Sherman and Company, Pierpont Morgan met Charles H. Dabney. . . . In 1864, the year in which George Peabody retired and was succeeded by Junius S. Morgan, Pierpont Morgan and Dabney formed a new firm under the name of Dabney, Morgan and Company, with offices in Exchange Place, New York. This new firm became the correspondents of J. S. Morgan and Company of London. A few years later, Duncan, Sherman and Company failed and faded from view. The house of Dabney, Morgan and Company built up an excellent business in foreign exchange and in the sale of miscellaneous securities. . . . But the house had done nothing spectacular or striking. . . . and its main prestige seems to have been based simply on its connection with the strong London firm of J. S. Morgan and Company. But in the year 1871 a change came. Dabney retired, the firm was dissolved, and young Morgan became a partner with the Drexels of Philadelphia, under the firm name of Drexel, Morgan and Company. Anthony J. Drexel, the senior partner, then personally bought the southeastern corner of Wall and Broad streets and built the Drexel Building, in which the new firm began its great career. . . . John Pierpont Morgan was thirty-four years old in 1871; Anthony Drexel, his principal partner, was forty-five—a conservative, intelligent, and popular man. There were four other members in the new firm, all from the Drexel house in Philadelphia. The new firm had advantageous alliances: on one side of the Atlantic, one of the richest financial houses in America; on the other, the great English house of J. S. Morgan and Company, in close touch with English capital—the greatest body of capital in the world. Its advantages were clear; but it also had its disadvantages. In the chief business of the day—the funding of the government debt—it came into a field already pretty well occupied. Some years before the combination of the Drexels and the Morgans had taken place . . . a financial operation of

vast magnitude had been carried on in America. It was the flotation of the American Civil War debt. This debt had been placed very largely through Jay Cooke, a Philadelphia banker and promoter. . . . Thus, the house of Jay Cooke and Company had forged well to the front, and had built up very strong connections abroad. . . . Jay Cooke estimated that by 1869 at least a billion dollars' worth of United States bonds were held abroad, of which a large proportion were held in South Germany. This large investment had established a new and powerful business interest in America—the Jewish bond dealers, with foreign connections in the great European money center of Frankfurt. With this new group of financial merchants Cooke had naturally allied himself, since the greatest source of English capital was only to be tapped through the Drexel-Morgan interests. A keen contest arose between the Cooke interests . . . and the Drexel-Morgan interests to secure the contracts for the government financing. In this contest Cooke and his party won and then carried through an extraordinarily difficult operation so successfully that the Rothschilds offered themselves as Cooke's associates in future enterprises. But the Morgan interests kept after the business, and subsequently, in combination with Levi P. Morton, secured a half interest in the government refunding operation of 1873, involving a sale of \$300,000,000 of bonds—an enormous transaction for those days. Later, in the fall of the same year, Jay Cooke and Company failed and this left the field in the United States for great financial operations entirely in the hands of the Drexel-Morgan-Morton associates. . . . A year before the formation of the Drexel-Morgan firm, an event of great importance had contributed vastly to the fame and standing of J. S. Morgan and Company. Toward the end of October, 1870, the city of London had been stirred by the news that J. S. Morgan and Company had taken a French loan of 250,000,000 francs. It was a syndicate operation and one of the largest and boldest ever known. In the previous month the Germans had crushed the French army at Sedan, had taken the Emperor Louis Napoleon prisoner, and had besieged Paris. The only authority for the loan was a provisional government at Tours. To take such a loan, even at the low price of about eighty, was undergoing some risk in view of the circumstances. One thing, however, was very clear: the hand of a strong, bold man was at the helm. The bonds were offered to the public at eighty-five; they advanced at once in price and within a year were selling fifteen points above what they cost the Morgan firm. And the syndicate was believed to have cleared \$5,000,000 by the transaction. The reputation of the house of Morgan was thus well established among European bankers just at the moment when Pierpont Morgan, the son of Junius, came to the front in combination with the powerful Drexel interests, and just at the moment when foreign capital was ready to pour into America more freely than ever before. This was the opportunity of the house of Morgan. As the first big organizers of capital, the Morgans—father and son—were to wield a mighty influence in American finance. . . . By 1879, with the financing of the war debt accomplished, American bankers were ready to turn to a new field of activity. But leadership in the dawning financial era was to fall to the younger men. . . . The younger Morgan was then forty-two, just about the age of George Peabody and Junius Morgan when they began their great careers in London. . . . Pierpont Morgan had watched the expansion of the railroads

for many years. . . . But he had taken little part in the battle of the railroads. . . . The Morgan firm had not been active in railroad financing and were not in any sense known as railroad bankers.

"In 1879, however, an incident occurred which brought Morgan directly into the field of railroad finance. William H. Vanderbilt, president and chief stockholder of the New York Central and Hudson River system, was then being harassed beyond endurance. Popular suspicion had been excited by his accumulation of a fortune of one hundred millions in ten years; and the New York Legislature, reflecting public indignation, was investigating the management of the New York Central and was proposing radical control of railroad management. Besides, the rate wars between New York and Chicago were then raging. . . . Vanderbilt's friends advised him strongly to dispose of a substantial portion of his stock in New York Central and thus avert the legislation that was aimed at him. But how to unload his vast holdings was a problem. To throw half of them on the market would result only in a panic; to distribute the stock by private sale in Wall Street would also greatly disturb values. . . . Vanderbilt consulted J. Pierpont Morgan, and Morgan devised a scheme whereby a large block of New York Central stock could be sold secretly in England without in any way disturbing the American security markets. This plan was adopted. The Morgan firm, through its London house, formed a syndicate and distributed 250,000 shares of the stock to permanent investors abroad. The transaction was kept secret for a time, but after a few months the details were all published in the New York and the London papers. Vanderbilt then announced that a large part of the great sum of money he had received had been reinvested in United States government bonds. Thus, at one stroke, J. Pierpont Morgan not only solved Vanderbilt's difficult problem and allayed public criticism, but incidentally, it was said, he made a profit for his syndicate, it more than three million dollars. . . . Carnegie's first money was made in an oil speculation, without the investment of a cent of his own. He gave his note for a block of stock in one of the smaller Pennsylvania oil companies and then paid the note out of dividends received on the stock within a single year. . . . While the Civil War was drawing to a close, the country about Pittsburgh was being agitated not only by the petroleum boom, but by another type of industry, which, like the oil business, was also to leave its stamp on the economic life of America. This was the manufacture of malleable steel by the newly developed Bessemer process. . . . Steel had been made for many years in small quantities, but the cost was far too great to bring it into general use. Moreover, the demand, even for iron, had not developed far enough to attract capital in any great amount. . . . The best furnaces in those days did not produce a thousand tons of iron a year; and, because of the fluctuations in demand, most iron makers were without capital and constantly in debt. The panics of 1837 and 1857 had caused the failure of scores of iron founders. Nobody with capital wanted to put money into so precarious a business. But, as railroad building expanded, the demand for more durable iron began to increase steadily. Steel was recognized as the ideal substance for rails, but the cost of making it was prohibitive. . . .

"During the latter days of the Civil War, with big plans pending for the construction of the Pacific railroads, the demand for railroad iron was taxing all the plants in the country. And, as the cost of production was falling to a point where

it was commercially possible for steel to be used, capital in substantial quantities was seeking investment in this new industry. It seemed at last as if the iron industry might develop into a big money-making enterprise after all. And so thought Andrew Carnegie, for in May, 1864, we find him buying from Thomas N. Miller for \$8920 a one-sixth interest in the Iron City Forge Company. . . . At about the same time Carnegie formed the Keystone Bridge Company, inducing J. Edgar Thomson, Colonel Scott, and other railroad officials to join him in financing the enterprise. It proved immediately successful, and in four years Carnegie had paid for his own stock out of the profits. The backing of the Pennsylvania Railroad, which Carnegie had shrewdly procured, was a gold mine to him. . . . After the Civil War, when prices fell, Carnegie's steel business suffered reverses, but the bad times were tided over. When business revived, Carnegie emerged in complete control of the enterprise, . . . and long before the panic of 1873 he was a millionaire several times over and one of the big ironmasters of America. . . . In England he soon heard of Bessemer steel and realized that perhaps after all the new process was a sound one that should be adopted. Investigation thoroughly converted him to the idea. He rushed back to Pittsburgh and to the astonishment of his partners talked nothing but steel, steel, steel. Immediately the firm of Carnegie, McCandless and Company was formed with a capital of seven hundred thousand dollars. Carnegie subscribed the bulk of the amount needed and steps were at once taken for the construction of a large plant. . . . About the time that Carnegie was getting his money ready to buy out the Iron City Forge Company, in 1864 a fourteen-year-old lad named Henry Clay Frick was working as errand boy in a village store at Mount Pleasant, about forty miles from Pittsburgh. He was the son of poor parents, whose ancestors had emigrated from Switzerland more than a century before, a quiet, thoughtful lad, self-contained and reticent. In those days a new industry was developing at Mount Pleasant, known as coke making. Coal was mined and baked in brick ovens until it turned into crisp gray lumps. These lumps were very valuable to iron makers, who used them in smelting the iron ore. It is not probable that young Frick fully realized what developments were ahead in the iron and steel business of the country or that he foresaw the age of steel in which coke making would become a giant industry. But the boy saw in coke making a lucrative opportunity and began to save his money with the hope that in time he would have capital enough to buy a small strip of coal land and go into the business himself. In four or five years he had saved enough to buy a little coal land, and he then induced his grandfather and uncle to buy some ovens which were offered for sale at a low price. But shortly afterwards the panic of 1873 set in, and the little enterprise was balked. . . . One day, after the smoke of the 1873 panic had disappeared and business was reviving, a Pittsburgh banker named Mellon received by mail a request for a loan of twenty thousand dollars from an unknown person by the name of H. C. Frick. No security was offered but big profits were promised if the money was advanced at once. The banker liked the tone of the letter and sent his partner to Mount Pleasant to investigate. . . .

"When in 1882 the tendency toward consolidation of interests had begun, it was natural enough that the coke making and the steel manufacturing businesses should be drawn together. Both Frick and Carnegie recognized the logic of the idea.

Consequently in this year Carnegie and his associates bought control of the H. C. Frick Coal and Coke Company. This change of ownership brought Henry C. Frick into the steel business. He acquired a substantial interest in the Carnegie Works and an influence which became more evident from year to year. His intelligence and masterful qualities were exactly what the Carnegie organization needed. A new chapter now opened in the affairs of the company. Having acquired control of one raw material by purchasing the coke business, the company was now to make a further advance and acquire ore beds. And, as the only ore deposits of value were far from Pittsburgh in the Lake Superior region, it became necessary for the company to go into the transportation business also, to establish steamship lines on the Great Lakes and to build railroads from the water to its works at Pittsburgh. The Mesaba ore fields, acquired by the Carnegie associates, had been first opened up by Louis Merritt, who had sold his holdings to John D. Rockefeller some years before. Rockefeller, knowing little at that time outside of the petroleum field, afterwards thought he had made a bad investment. But this was not the impression in Pittsburgh, where the possibilities of wealth in the mining of Lake Superior ore had now been fully recognized. A man named Harry Oliver, who had been in the steel business and had been a friend of Carnegie in his early days, realized the possibilities of the Mesaba Range and bought a large tract of land there for a small sum of money. Soon afterward Frick met Oliver on the street and suggested that the Carnegie company go into the Mesaba ore business with him. The terms suggested by Frick were that Oliver should surrender five-sixths of his stock, in return for which the Carnegie company would advance half a million dollars for the development of the mines. The bargain was made, and thus the Carnegie company acquired a property which in a few years was worth tens of millions of dollars. But this was only one step in the control of the ore supply. A few years later, Frick and Oliver joined forces with John D. Rockefeller in the Lake Superior ore business. This powerful alliance caused a great fall in the price of iron ore and forced many smaller producers to the wall. Their holdings were thereupon bought in by the Frick and Rockefeller combination. Thus from small beginnings the steel business had grown into a gigantic industry. Meanwhile railroads had spread over the continent and the petroleum business had become a monopoly under the control of the Rockefellers. The time was at hand when the big bankers of Wall Street, already busy in the railroad field, would take part also in petroleum, steel, and a multitude of other industrial enterprises and utilities which had so grown in size and value that they could no longer remain independent of vast banking interests. . . .

"About this time a young commission merchant in Cleveland, Ohio, named John D. Rockefeller had saved up about seven hundred dollars, nursing it from nothing, a few dollars at a time. In 1860 he took a chance with three other men in the venture of mining petroleum, putting in a portion of his seven hundred dollars. Within two years the three men had run their investment up to about four thousand dollars. They made a good burning oil, and their profits, like those of all refiners at the time, were amazingly large. During the next few years, tens of thousands of dollars were made annually by this concern. But instead of drawing these profits out, Rockefeller, who dominated the combination from the start, insisted that every cent possible be reinvested in the business. . . . Hence,

during the period when the business was getting well established, the decade from 1860 to 1870, John D. Rockefeller and his friends year by year added steadily and quietly to their cash, until by 1867 they were in no sense dependent on bankers or financiers, as were the railroads and other large industries of the country. They were their own bankers from the start and were in a position even in those early days to snap their fingers at Wall Street and Lombard Street. When the Standard Oil Company of Ohio was formed in 1870 with one million dollars cash capital, it was undoubtedly the one great business corporation of America which had no debts and no direct banking alliances or affiliations. There was, of course, a reason for this complete absence of banking or investing interest, aside from the announced policy of the Rockefeller group. From the beginning, such banking houses as the Morgans, the Drexels, and the foreign houses with American connections, had kept away from this new business, just as, until the twentieth century, conservative capital in Wall Street to a large extent kept away from precarious industries like copper mining, electrical enterprises, and so forth. The industry had not proved its permanence or stability and was therefore classed as a 'speculation' rather than a sure investment. . . . Not long after 1870 . . . hard times came, and refiners in all parts of the country went to the wall for want of cash. Bankers would not help them because of the newness and precarious nature of the business. Then the Standard Oil Company began to buy the weaker refineries at bargain prices and to establish a chain of plants across the country. This enabled it to organize production on a large scale and to reduce the cost of refining and distributing oil to a fraction of what it cost most of its competitors. The company then bought the pipes which connected the wells in all parts of the country and laid miles and miles of pipe lines of its own. This forced the railroads to come to terms, as they had been large shippers of oil; and they were obliged to accede to a policy of secret rebating in the interest of Standard Oil and at the expense of the independent refiners. Ultimately, nearly all the competition in the oil trade was eliminated by these methods, until, in 1879, the Standard Oil interests were the only bona-fide buyers, the only gatherers, and the only refiners of all but ten per cent of the petroleum of the country. One by one, all the plants in the business without sufficient cash capital had fallen into the hands of the one firm supplied with cash. During the decade in which this expansion of the Standard Oil Company took place, the policy was never abandoned of accumulating and retaining large cash resources. By 1875 the cash resources had risen from about one million in 1870 to over thirteen millions; half a dozen years later they reached forty-five millions; and during that decade the company and its subsidiaries had not only bought up most of their competitors with ready cash but in addition had paid out in dividends over eleven million dollars."—J. Moody, *Masters of capital*, pp. 1-3, 5, 7-18, 20-23, 37-39, 42-43, 45-47, 49-52, 54-57.—See also TRUSTS.

ALSO IN: W. R. Bassett, *Organization in modern business*.

19th century.—Regulation of capitalism in the United States.—Effects of the Interstate Commerce Act.—Unifying influence of capital.—"That Congress should occupy itself with economic questions was made imperatively necessary, not only by the extraordinary growth of economic interests, but also by the portentous concentration of capital in the hands of corporations and of

small groups of capitalists. Both capital and labor were effecting their own organization independently and upon the grand scale. It was necessary to see to it in the interest of society that they should not be too far beforehand with the law. Some means of controlling them in the common interest became imperative to devise. On the one hand, not only trades unions, but also vast federations of unions, national associations of the trades, were forming; and, on the other hand, great combinations of capitalists, not only into corporations, which the law already undertook to control, but also into 'trusts' and 'combines,' for which the law had as yet devised no machinery of control. The invention of elaborate and costly machinery for all branches of manufacture was steadily increasing the amount of capital necessary for even the initial steps in establishing industries of all sorts, great and small; and for the maintenance of the greater sort associations of individuals were giving place to associations of companies. It was against these great combinations of capital that the laborers were themselves combining, to resist the attempts then already a-making, and sure to be made upon an even greater scale thereafter, to control rates of wages against the influence of competition for labor. For Congress the whole question was typified by the concentration under the management of a few companies of the great railway systems of the country. As the enormous growth of railways continued, and link after link was completed in the great systems of roads which were binding the country together in all its parts, the old order of separate lines of railway, under the management of separate companies, was rapidly giving place to joint management under monster corporations. The trade of the country was largely in their hands. They could discriminate as they pleased in both their passenger and their freight rates between individuals, and even between regions. They could make or ruin particular regions or persons or companies as their interest suggested. Congress had constitutional power to legislate concerning post roads and interstate commerce. The States had many of them sought to regulate the railways already; and in 1837 Congress passed an Interstate Commerce Act which forbade discrimination in rates, the 'pooling' of rates by competing lines of railway, or the division among them of earnings. A semi-judicial tribunal was constituted to enforce the provisions of the Act. This Interstate Commerce Commission speedily became one of the most important tribunals of the country, administering the provisions of the law with both firmness and discretion, to the fortunate correction of many abuses. . . . It was but twenty-four years since the close of the war between the States; but these twenty-four years of steam and electricity had done more than any previous century could have done to transform the nation into a new Union. The South had been changed, as if by a marvel, into likeness to the rest of the country. Freed from the incubus of slavery, she had sprung into a new life; already she promised to become one of the chief industrial regions of the Union. She had discovered resources of coal and iron beneath her rich soil of which she had never dreamed before. Manufactures sprang up on every hand. She lost her old leisure and her old-time culture, but began very fast to build the material foundations for a new leisure and a new intellectual life. In the presence of such changes the old alienation of feeling between the sections could not survive. Northern capital poured into the South; northern interests became identified

with southern interests, and the days of inevitable strife and permanent difference came to seem strangely remote."—W. Wilson, *Epochs of American history*, pp. 294-296, 298.

19th century.—Capitalistic ideals.—Relation of capitalism to finance.—"Early post-Waterloo enterprise was capitalistic rather than financial. The capitalist-entrepreneur class, largely composed of self-made men (felicitously described as a 'broad-bottomed oligarchy'), rose rapidly into a position of great influence in Parliament—a position which, to a large extent, especially as regards Lancashire and Yorkshire, they still maintain. Not a few of the manufacturers were reinforced from the yeomen classes. These could no longer combine agriculture with domestic manufacture, by the spinning-wheel and the hand-loom. The competition of the specialised capitalist manufacturer was too strong for them, and, where they hesitated to remain specialist farmers, they became specialist manufacturers themselves, providing the capital by the sale of their holdings. But they were mainly capitalist employers, as distinguished from financial organisers. Nathan Mayer Rothschild had been a Manchester cotton capitalist before he became a financier. Most of his contemporaries remained capitalists to the end, possessing no ability which was capable of transporting them into the more subtle atmosphere of finance. The influence of the early capitalist employers, unorganised and groping, was utilised to promote the interests of capital alone. They could not take the broader view of finance, for they did not know what finance was. 'Finance,' said Huskisson, in 1822, 'of all political subjects is that which requires the least comprehension or capacity; it is that which, in its own nature, is most on a level with the reach even of ordinary half-educated minds.' These were the views of the man who next year became President of the Board of Trade! Mr. Gisborne, in 1836, pleaded in the House of Commons that some allowance must be made, in the case of the new joint-stock banks, 'for the freakish dispositions incident to youth.' As if there were any room for freakishness in so serious and vital a thing as finance! Such men as Grenfell and Baring had to form financial and economic opinion at the most critical stage in modern British history. They stood almost alone in the possession of expert knowledge. . . . The consequence of this ignorance of the existence and capacities of financial science was to tinge all early nineteenth-century sentiment with the capitalist ideal. So it is that the virtues of capitalism become the darling protégés of early nineteenth-century sentiment. . . . In the age of the Reform Bill, and for thirty years onwards, the political aspirations of the capitalist order were mainly characterised by a desire to bring the 'upper class' down to its own level, while the 'lower classes' were simultaneously to be kept to their old place. Humanity, with all its resources and aspirations, had no interest for it except as sources of income. This is the reason why early nineteenth-century capitalism did so little, while late nineteenth-century finance attempted and achieved so much, for the æsthetic and intellectual interests of humanity. Perhaps it was also the reason why the great Sir Robert Peel said that he respected the aristocracy of birth and of intellect, but not the 'aristocracy of wealth.' Such men as Peel had in his mind's eye were awake to the end, but blind to the means. The central article of their creed was the necessity of giving absolute freedom of operation to the industrial entrepreneur. Early nineteenth-century capitalism was employed in determining, by means of internecine rivalry, who

should supply goods to the customer. Nineteenth-century finance is less concerned with that question than with a problem of much more profound social interest, namely, *what* goods shall be supplied, and whether their supply cannot be encouraged by extensive loans of money—of course, on approved security. Competition, as Arnold Toynbee told us, 'is neither good nor bad in itself; it is a force which has to be studied and controlled.' Early capitalism neither studied nor controlled; modern finance does both. The early nineteenth-century capitalists had not even glimpsed the system under which, in our day, there is an incessant accumulation of capitalist profits to feed finance, combined with a system of beneficial enterprise upon which finance exercises itself. They did not understand that unorganised and undisciplined capitalism is simply an illegitimate drain on the moral and physical forces of the nation, a species of enterprise which will wait long, perhaps, before it presents the bill; but when it comes will inexorably insist on a terrible payment."—E. T. Powell, *Evolution of the money market, 1385-1915*, pp. 255-258.

19th-20th centuries.—"Krupps."—"The Krupp establishment at Essen occupies about 1,000 acres, of which nearly 200 are under roof." Alfred Krupp, the real founder of the Krupp steel works was the son of Frederick Krupp, an iron worker of Essen, who between the years 1810 and 1815 discovered for himself the secret of making cast steel, which had for some time been known in England. He died at the age of thirty-nine, and left to his son Alfred, a boy of fourteen his secret formula for making cast steel, and a small, unsuccessful business. From this beginning Alfred Krupp built up the great steel works, known throughout the world as "Krupps" and the huge business in ordnance which gained for him and his son the title of "cannon king" and enabled Germany to arm herself against the world. "At the very beginning of his activity, he characteristically and eagerly endeavored to make everything required in the Works himself. In these gloomy years, he always deemed it an especially gratifying achievement, of which he at once gave due notice to his men, when he succeeded in enrolling any means to an end, were it even the least important tool, among the list of his products. The great scale upon which he carried out, in later years, the self-manufacturing system, is well-known. To-day there exist few branches of trade or manufacture which are not, in some way or other, represented in the establishment. Slowly but surely, the development of the Works went on. In the year 1832 Krupp stood in the midst of ten workmen. The financial backing of devoted relatives and friends enabled him gradually to get some good out of his inventions. His first and most important invention of this time was the cast-steel roller-die, for which he received patents in Germany, England and France. By the sale of his English patent, Krupp received the first reward worth mentioning for his continued labor, a reward that enabled him considerably to enlarge his Works. . . . From the 'forties' . . . date Krupp's endeavors to make cast-steel guns. In the year 1847, he sent a three-pounder muzzle-loading gun to Berlin, where it remained without notice until the Ordnance Board, in 1840, acknowledged the excellent quality of the metal. . . . After the unfortunate year 1848, all German industries were powerfully stimulated in competition with English and French products, and in the forefront of the patriotic combatants, who were striving with foreign opponents for recognition in the markets of the world, stood Alfred Krupp. . . . In 1852, Krupp invented a method of manufacturing weld-

less railroad tires, an ingenious and simple process, an invention whose extraordinary pecuniary success enabled him to utilize the experience he had gained, upon a grand scale, to establish great shops and to set up powerful machinery. . . . In 1858, ten hammers were in use, of a total weight of 370 hundred weight, even then insufficient for the work required. In the same year was erected a 60,000 lb. hammer, with 10 feet fall, and driven by a 66 horse-power engine. More hammers were shortly added, also other industrial improvements, a roll-train, &c. At this time, too, the giant stack, 230 feet high, 30 feet in diameter, which still towers above all the other chimneys of the Works, was built. . . . Until the 'sixties,' the Works were exclusively engaged in the fabrication of crucible steel; subsequently the later processes of Bessemer and Martin were introduced. . . . Since this period, Krupp, in accordance with his plan which he, as already stated, had formed at the very founding of the Works, that of being independent of other manufacturers and the daily fluctuations in raw material, acquired ore beds, coal mines, and blast furnaces. To-day the entire amount of ore and coal consumed is home supplied. The Firm owns . . . ore beds in Germany and in Spain (near Bilbao), eleven blast furnaces, some coal mines near Essen and Bochum, a number of smelting works on the Rhine and in the Westerwald, a series of stone quarries, clay and sand pits, and an extensive proving ground at Meppen, nearly ten miles long."—K. W. and O. E. Michaelis, *Alfred Krupp: A sketch of his life and work*, pp. 14, 15, 16, 19, 25, 32-33.

"The long reign of Alfred Krupp ended with his death in . . . 1887. . . . In the course of sixty-one years of clever guidance his works had grown into the national arsenal of Germany . . . a department in fact of the German state, whose ambassadors were proud to cater for orders for the monster establishment at Essen. . . . The cannon king's son . . . merely followed on the lines laid down by his father. . . . Friedrich Alfred died in 1902, and left the works to his eldest daughter Bertha. On July 1, 1903, the whole concern was floated as a company with a capital of £9,000,000 [about \$42,000,000], the shares being principally held by the Krupp family. The works were enlarged in 1907 with the aid of a loan of £2,500,000 from the Government." In 1896 Friedrich Alfred Krupp leased "the large ship-building yard [at Kiel] then owned by the Schiff and Maschinenbau Co. . . . and reconstruction began at once." "Just before the war the Krupp employees numbered 80,000 people; [during the] war, the number . . . increased to well over 100,000." There not only the guns for the army and navy were manufactured, but also the armor plate for the navy ships and submarines which were built in the company's shipyards on the Kiel canal.—H. Robertson Murray, *Krupps and the international armament ring*, pp. 79, 80, 81, 83, 138.—See also BELGIUM: 1914: Germany and Belgian neutrality; WARSHIPS: 1893-1914; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 73, iii, vi.

20th century.—Japan.—"It has been the policy of the government to start new industries on a capital of taxes, to sell them at a very nominal figure or even to turn them over gratis into the hands of some capitalist high in government favor. Furthermore, very rich subsidies and bonuses are given to any capitalist enterprises without limitations. For instance, in order to build up a cotton industry in Japan, the government made the cotton free of import duty. This, of course, killed the home cotton growing industry, which until then

had clothed the entire population of thirty-five millions. The cotton industry is now one of the biggest industries in Japan, working 2,870,000 spindles, importing cotton valued at \$110,000,000 a year. The industry is controlled by big capitalists under the management of 161 companies. There are over 400,000 women workers in the cotton and other textile industries; these poor girls, mostly under 20, some of them 10 or 12 years of age, are mercilessly exploited in the factories. Female cotton spinners work 12 hours a day for 28 or 29 days every month. Half of them are employed at night, for, according to the new factory statutes it has become legal to employ children of 10 for 14 hours a day. These statutes are to be in force for the next fourteen years. . . . Every year some two hundred thousand girls are newly recruited to supply the factories; of these a few stay more than a year in the factory, eighty thousand return, the rest disappear. Upon such a brutal exploitation system the cotton masters have built up their industry in a short time, capitalized at nearly a hundred million dollars and producing some four hundred million dollars' worth of cotton yarn and goods a year. But the most extravagantly protected industry in Japan is the Formosan sugar industry. Japan took the island in 1898. Since then the government and its capitalists have decided to raise the sugar supply for the entire country in Formosa, and proceeded to establish sugar companies under very high protection. In the early stage of the industry the government supplied, freely, seeds, machines for cultivation and refinery, and many other aids. To keep up, or rather, to raise sugar prices the government put up very high protective customs duties on sugar and passed a sugar consumption tax to be used for the payment of direct bounties to the sugar companies. At one time 80 or 90 per cent. of the cost of production was paid to the sugar masters in Formosa either directly or indirectly. Furthermore, the government gives a direct bounty of 50c on every hundred pounds of sugar cane raised. The sugar industry in Formosa is capitalized on a gigantic scale. In a little while its valuation has reached forty-two million dollars and it produced 517,520,000 pounds in 1912 and 681,179,000 pounds in 1917."—S. Katayama, *Recent development of capitalism in Japan (Class Struggle, Sept.-Oct., 1917, pp. 75-76)*.

20th century.—Effect of the World War on capitalism.—Distribution of capital.—Capital in new industries.—"The world-convulsion . . . has brought in its train new trading and manufacturing situations which present problems never faced before. Commercial *ententes* between nations for the control of raw materials, control of production and distribution of some of the most important commodities by powerful combinations of private interests, huge agglomerations of capital in the hands of a few banking groups, the formation of gigantic capitalistic trading corporations—these are some of the economic outgrowths of the war. By common consent international competition for the trade of the globe will become a far more serious matter in the early future than at any previous period in history. Where before the war we witnessed competition among comparatively small groups, commercial giants are now preparing to measure their strength on the trade routes and in the markets of the world. It will constitute a problem for our statesmen to solve in how far the public interest will have to be protected by national legislation against dumping, by tariff laws, etc., or by international agreements for the protection of industrial property, etc. Un-

bridled competition of a kind threatened by the developments outlined in the foregoing pages is bound to develop into a source of friction and ill-feeling among the nations of the world in whom the long years of war have created a deep yearning for a lasting peace."—W. Notz, *Cartels during the war* (*Journal of political economy*, Jan., 1919, pp. 37-38).—See also INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.

"The demand for capital will be immense, not only in our own country, but throughout the civilized world. At first sight the problem of providing it appears quite insoluble, since the war has not only swallowed up all the capital available when it broke out, but has prevented the creation of fresh supplies through the normal processes of saving. Money, which in the ordinary course would have been reproductively employed, has been dissipated in the construction of engines and instruments of destruction. The products of the mine and the factory, which normally would have served to increase the world's wealth, have been applied only to its obliteration. To-day [1918] the world's supplies of liquid capital, meaning by that term capital that could be reproductively used in industrial enterprise, are locked up in War Loans, while of the profits being made by commercial undertakings a very high percentage is being absorbed by war taxation. Capital supplies have been practically exhausted, while there is no chance of replenishing them as long as the Government as borrower and tax-gatherer has a first claim upon the profits of commerce and industry. . . . The effect of the war upon the amount and the distribution of what we usually call wealth—the aggregate of private fortunes—is still obscure. It may, indeed, be years before we shall be able to obtain statistics enabling any precise estimates to be made. The British Government will perhaps have spent, before we get through all the necessary cost of demobilization, something like £100,000,000,000; and this is certainly more than half the aggregate total value of all the property, securities, and investments of all kinds owned in the United Kingdom just before the war. Does it follow that those who owned these fortunes have—to use the phrase of a Cabinet Minister—lost half their property? Will the amount drawn, irrespective of any contemporary service rendered, in the form of rent and interest be any less than before the war? Or will, on the contrary, the aggregate of private fortunes, and the tribute of rent and interest that we pay to our landlords and capitalists, be greater after the war? These are questions to which very definite answers can already be given. We know, not by any means exactly, but within a relatively small margin of error, what was the aggregate capital value at market prices of the privately owned wealth in the United Kingdom prior to the war. The calculations of various statisticians, based on the available official statistics—as summarized, for instance, in Dr. Stamp's very authoritative *British Incomes and Property*, and latterly in Mr. Pethick Lawrence's *Levy on Capital*—approximate in placing this total at somewhere about £12,500,000,000. About 88 per cent of this was owned by 12 per cent of the population (each family being 'worth' over £1,000); while 12 per cent of the total was shared among 88 per cent of the population, their average family fortune (including furniture and personal effects and all savings) being less than £40. We may go further and say that 2 per cent of the nation owned twice as much wealth as all the remaining 98 per cent! How will this stand after the war? There have, as we know, been great

changes. The Government (including the local authorities), which was, before the war, 'in debt,' in excess of the very extensive corporate assets, to the extent of perhaps £1,100,000,000 will now be 'in debt' to the extent of seven or eight times as much. On the other hand (after making full allowance for the depreciation in capital value) . . . it is confidently estimated that the post-war capital value of the aggregate of private fortunes in the United Kingdom—such as would be assessed, for instance, to the Death Duties—will have positively increased by at least 20 per cent; or from £12,500,000,000 to £15,000,000,000. So far as private fortunes are concerned, the small minority of us who are property owners, even to the modest extent of £1,000 capital, will certainly, in the aggregate, have increased our fortunes, taking all our possessions at the current market value, by at least £2,500,000,000. And the distribution of the aggregate private wealth will be even more unequal than it was before the war. The 2 per cent of the population, who formerly owned two thirds of the total wealth, now probably own three fourths of a greatly augmented total. Certainly, a vast number of individuals have taken up War Savings Certificates and War Bonds in small amounts. But the total amount of War Savings Certificates . . . is only a little over £200,000,000; and a further £300,000,000 would probably overstate the amount of War Loan and War Bonds held by small investors. It is the 12 per cent of the population who, before the war, owned 88 per cent of the total private wealth, who have been able to add substantially to their possessions, and who now own by far the greater proportion of the enlarged National Debt. The 88 per cent of the population, who before the war may have owned, on an average, £40 per head of wealth, have probably increased their little stocks of furniture and personal effects; to a comparatively small extent their holdings in Savings Banks, Coöperative Societies, Friendly and Building Societies, and Trade Unions; and perhaps even their holdings in houses and land. On the other hand, this class has suffered greatly in the extinction or depreciation of small businesses; while little hoards have in many cases been sadly drawn upon in order to live. It is doubtful, to say the least, whether, after the war, the aggregate private fortunes of the 88 per cent will amount to as much as 12 per cent of the augmented total. Measured in capital wealth, and subject to many individual exceptions, the rich will have become much richer and the poor hardly less poor in the course of the last five years. This, or worse, is, in fact, the invariable effect of war, food shortage, currency depreciation, and a general increase in the price of commodities. . . . Some interesting figures of 'War-time Wealth' were published in *The Observer*. The total number of super-taxes, *i. e.*, persons with incomes of £3,000 and over, was in 1914-1915, 30,211, and in 1917-18, 29,723, but the aggregate income had risen from £244,169,134, in 1914-15 to £247,257,124, in 1917-18. The very rich seem to grow richer, and the moderately rich to grow poorer. Thus the 90 persons who in the former year had incomes of £100,000 and over rose in the latter year to 95. But at the other end of the scale those with incomes between £3,000 and £5,000 fell from 15,524 to 14,463. The incomes of £20,000 to £25,000 rose in number from 537 to 606. The other incomes (the figures of course are of gross incomes) are very stationary. War always offers opportunities to the very rich to make more, *e. g.*, they participate in contracts, in six-penny syndicates, and they buy shares at rubbish prices, when the news is bad,

and everybody else wants to sell. The moral of these figures seems to us plain, and politically very significant. The incomes of the bloated capitalists, the idle rich, or whatever other term of abuse may soothe the ear of Socialism, have remained practically stationary. There is a slight increase at the top and a slight falling off at the bottom of the ladder, whether because the £3,000 to £5,000-a-yearers have gone up or down no one can say. But the great salient fact is that the £8,000,000,000 that have been spent on the war have gone, as to the greater part, not into the banks of the capitalists, but into the pockets of the working classes. Let the Socialists rejoice as much as they please, but let them admit the fact."—*War-time finance* (*Living Age*, Dec. 14, 1918, pp. 607, 700-701, 703.)—See also PROLETARIAN DICTATORSHIP.

"There is little evidence, . . . to suggest that the capital resources of [the United States] have been significantly impaired as a result of the war. Stocks of goods in warehouses and in retail stores may have been smaller at the signing of the armistice than prior to the entrance of the United States into war; statistics are not available for a reliable judgment. But such statistics as have come to the writer's notice indicate that for many raw materials and foodstuffs, including such important commodities as copper, cotton, tea, coffee, wheat, the stocks on hand at the cessation of hostilities were unprecedented in value. Buildings, railroads, highways, were not kept at their pre-war standards of maintenance and repair; extensions were undertaken at very much below the normal rate. But new capital in enormous quantities was turned into the construction and equipment of the greatly enlarged shipbuilding and shipping, chemical, dye, ordnance, and munition industries, was absorbed in the development of hitherto unexploited mineral and timber resources, and was used to purchase American securities held abroad, to make foreign loans, to build up a great reserve of gold obtained from abroad. Some of this new accumulation has proved to be of little value for peacetime purposes; the cases of conspicuous depreciation have received considerable publicity; but the bulk of it remains as a valuable addition to the working equipment of the United States."—J. Viner, *Who paid for the war* (*Journal of Political Economy*, Jan., 1920, p. 49).

20th century.—Re-establishing capitalism in Russia.—Nikolai Lenin, in a speech delivered in Moscow on October 19, 1921, "on Russia's new economic policy, declared: 'We must face the fact that we are re-establishing capitalism, and also the question of whether the peasantry will follow the capitalists or the communists. If the capitalists organize quicker and better they will send us communists to the devil. Our problem,' continued the Soviet Premier, 'is to make the future capitalism subject to the State and serve it. We are now surrounded by forces stronger than ourselves, and in order to gain victory we must use the last of our forces and convince the peasantry, and also the workers, of the necessity of our aims and of their advantages to the common good. The present return to capitalism is not the re-establishing of private ownership, but of personal communistic interests. In order to reorganize our economic life we must interest every specialist; and in this we have failed so far by direct attack. Now we must make a turning movement. If we again fail every one of us will go to the devil and be hanged, and will deserve it. I say to you: "Go into business. Work with the capitalist by your side, both Russian and foreign, who will get 100 per cent. out of you. Let him get rich. But learn from him, and only then

will the true communistic republic be created. It is hard, difficult, wrenching toil, but all of us must do it, as there is no other way out.'" The time for drawing political pictures of great aims is now past. We must put theories into practice. We must do much cultural work and also digest our political experience in order that our political coup d'état may be saved.'

"After a long rest in the country, Premier Lenin . . . returned to the political arena with an open admission of communism's defeat, according to an account of a speech he made recently before the Congress of Political Workers in Moscow, given out by the Rosta Agency, official Bolshevik news disseminator. 'Everybody sees,' he said, 'what a sharp turn the Soviet powers and the Communist Party have taken by adopting a new economic policy, which, in substance, contains more of the old régime than of our previous policy. The attitude of the Soviet toward economic questions during the first half of 1918, when the Brest-Litovsk peace treaty gave hope of peaceful reconstruction, was extraordinarily cautious. Then the necessity of considering the peasants was always pointed out, and the rôle of State capitalism in socialistic construction was considered. The civil war which broke out and the desperate position in which the republic found itself compelled us to change directly to communistic production and distribution. However, a not very long experience convinced us that, without having gone through a period of socialistic adjustment and investigation, it was not possible to reach even the lowest steps of communism. There can be no doubt that on the economic front, in the attempt to come over to communism toward the Spring of 1921, we suffered a defeat more serious than we had experienced before. This showed that our economic policies failed to have their feet on the ground and did not create that rising of productive powers which was recognized in the party program as fundamental and urgent.

"Acquisitions in villages and a direct communistic approach to construction problems in the cities retarded the elevation of our productive powers and were the cause of a deep economic and political crisis. We recognized defeat and retreated, and the retreat is continuing in many places even at present, amid very unnecessary disorders.'"—N. Y. *Times*, Oct. 22, 1921.

Also in: L. Melville, *South Sea bubble*.—D. C. Baldwin, *Capital control in New York*.—A. L. Bowley in *Carnegie endowment for international peace, Economic and local history of the World War*.—W. H. Hunter, *Outlines of public finance*.—F. H. M. Ralph & W. J. N. Griffith, *Digest of British economic history*.—B. E. Hazard, *Organization of the boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts*.

CAPITOLINE HILL AT ROME.—Capitol.—"In prehistoric times this hill was called the Mons Saturnius, see Varro, *Lin. Lat.*, v. 41; its name being connected with that legendary 'golden age' when Saturn himself reigned in Italy. . . . This hill, which, like the other hills of Rome, has had its contour much altered by cutting away and levelling, consists of a mass of tufa rock harder in structure than that of the Palatine hill. It appears once to have been surrounded by cliffs, very steep at most places, and had only approaches on one side—that towards the Forum. . . . The top of the hill is shaped into two peaks of about equal height, one of which was known as the Capitolium, and the other as the Arx, or Citadel. . . . The Capitolium was also in early

time known as the 'Mons Tarpeius,' so called from the familiar legend of the treachery of Tarpeia. . . . In later times the name 'rupes Tarpeia' was applied, not to the whole peak, but to a part of its cliff which faced towards the 'Vicus Jugarius' and the 'Forum Magnum.' The identification of that part of the Tarpeian rock, which was used for the execution of criminals, according to a very primitive custom, is now almost impossible. At one place the cliff of the Capitolium is quite perpendicular, and has been cut very carefully into an upright even surface; a deep groove, about a foot wide, runs up the face of this cutting, and there are many rock-cut chambers excavated in this part of the cliff, some openings into which appear in the face of the rock. This is popularly though erroneously known as the Tarpeian rock. . . . The perpendicular cliff was once very much higher than it is at present, as there is a great accumulation of rubbish at its foot. . . . That this cliff cannot be the Tarpeian rock where criminals were executed is shown by Dionysius (viii. 78. and vii. 35), who expressly says that this took place in the sight of people in the Forum Magnum, so that the popular Rupes Tarpeia is on the wrong side of the hill."—J. H. Middleton, *Ancient Rome* in 1885, ch. 7.—See also SEVEN HILLS OF ROME.

CAPITULARIES.—Capitularies "were the ordinances or constitutions issued by [the Frank] sovereigns, alone or, in certain cases, with the assent of the assembly of the people. The word capitulary came simply from the fact that the ordinances were divided into chapters—*capitula*. . . . Certain capitularies, and they are the most numerous, had for their object the organization of the empire, the administration, finances, justice, the relations of church and state, etc. They are the personal work of the prince, assisted by his counsellors. However, under Charlemagne the magnates [both lay and church] frequently participated in drawing up these capitularies, but they continued none the less to be considered as the personal work of the sovereign. Certain capitularies constituted a territorial law, and applied as such to all the empire. Another class composed the *capitula per se scribenda*, that is to say, capitularies destined to complete or modify a law (*lex*). These latter are sometimes distinguished by saying that they are special, whilst the others are general. But that formula is a little vague, also as they were not obligatory except for the people in whose presence they were made it was necessary that they should receive the assent of the people in order to become law. Finally there were capitularies which were simple instructions addressed to functionaries. . . . These are the *capitula missorum*. Properly speaking they do not form laws, in the large sense of the word. Also they were not promulgated and published by the system then used for all the other capitularies, and also for the *leges*. Publication [of the first two classes] was made by the despatch, in the name of the king, of certified copies, addressed to the officers charged with their execution. These brought the new capitularies to the knowledge of all by means of reading them aloud in the judicial assembly, *in mallo publico*. The authenticated copies were deposited in the archives, but as the archives were badly kept, it was often difficult to procure the text of a capitulary. The number of the royal ordinances appear to have been very limited under the Merovingians, and in fact few are in existence—nine in all. But the capitularies of the Carolingian epoch are very numerous, especially those of the reign of Charlemagne. Also from that time the necessity of collecting them

in order to facilitate research and application began to be understood. In the reign of Louis the Pious, Anségise abbot of Fonteville, made a collection. Twenty years later, before 858, a deacon of Mayence, named Benedictus Levita [Benoit the Levite or deacon] undertook a work on the capitularies. He stated in his preface that he proposed to reunite the capitularies which had escaped the researches of Anségise, and those which had been published since his death, and of adding to them some canonical pieces. In reality, however, his work is of quite a different nature and the capitularies disappear in a crowd of extracts of all sorts, often borrowed from the canon law or the Roman law. Some have concluded that Benoit had an obscure, confused mind, but the general opinion is that he proceeded with skill to obtain a hidden end; that he proposed to pass for capitularies, that is the laws of the state, doctrines borrowed from the Church, or even the Roman law, which would assure the privileges and the supremacy of the clergy. It is certain that at the same epoch there appeared another work written without doubt in that intention—the false decretals. But, some have discovered a certain relationship between the capitularium of Benoit and the false decretals. The false decretals have even been attributed to him though without serious proof on which to base that opinion. Some time after the composition of the Benoit collection Isaac, bishop of Langres, and Hérard archbishop of Tours, published, each in a single book, extracts from the Benoit collection containing only ordinances of a nature to interest the church. Finally there was composed an abridged collection towards the middle of the ninth century by order of the Emperor Lothaire for use in his Italian kingdom. These are the only collections which were made in the middle ages. In the XVII century, Baluze, Colbert's librarian, made his name illustrious by publishing a collection of capitularies."—E. Glasson in *La Grande Encyclopedie*.

ALSO IN: Glasson, *Histoire du droit et des institutions de la France*, v. 2, p. 199.—E. F. Henderson, *Select historical documents of the Middle Ages*, bk. 2.—Capitularies have come down also from the reigns of Louis the Pious and Charles the Bald. The best collections are those made by Walter, *Corpus juris germanici antiqui*, Berlin, 1824, 3 v.; Pertz, *Monumento Germaniae historica*, Hanover, 1826; Boretius, *Capitularia regum Francorum*, Hanover, 1883-1897.

CAPITULATION OF CHARLES V. See GERMANY: 1520-1521; also CAPITULATIONS.

CAPITULATIONS, a term used to designate treaties by which the nationals of one state are given extra-territorial privileges and rights within the boundaries of another. The name has probably come from the Latin *caput*, because of the heads or Chapters into which the treaties are divided. The custom of granting extra-territorial rights had its origin in ancient times when law was a personal; a man had no right to nor obligation under any law save that of his own nation, and was therefore practically an outlaw outside of his own country. But when numbers or wealth, or both, brought power to "strangers within the gate" it was found desirable to bring them within the jurisdiction of some law, and as in earlier times nations were slow to confer their citizenship, or freedom, upon aliens it was deemed advisable to give them the privilege of living under the jurisdiction of the laws of their own nation. The custom, however, is best known for its use between eastern and western nations. Thus, subjects of Charlemagne who traveled with

his consent, were granted privileges by Harun Al-Rashid. Some of the city republics of Italy obtained similar privileges from eastern potentates for their citizens. When the Byzantine empire fell before the Mahomedans, the Christian peoples were permitted to retain their personal rights, and a kind of semi-autonomy. Moreover the privileges which had been held by Genoese and Venetians, under the Greek emperors, were confirmed to them.

"The early Capitulations were in the form of a grant or charter of privileges accorded to foreigners by Sultans. The fact that these privileges were set forth under certain headings as statutes, or ordinances, gave rise to the vernacular use of the term Capitulations, which . . . meant nothing more than an . . . agreement to express in ordinary form the various stipulations agreed upon."—P. M. Brown, *Foreigners in Turkey, their juridical status*, p. 29, note.

The Capitulations "were a series of agreements by which foreigners resident in Turkey were placed under the jurisdiction of their own laws and their own officials. As it has worked out, this has become a valued privilege, securing to the foreigner immunity from the vexations of Turkish maladministration and even from the legitimate duties of citizenship. As such, we have come to think of the Capitulations as concessions extorted from decadent Turkey by the powerful nations of the West. Such they were when, in the later day, the system was imposed on China and Japan, and such they eventually became in Turkey. But nothing could be further from the truth as regards their origin. They date from a time when—can our imaginations picture it?—the two supreme powers in Europe were Portugal and Turkey. The first of these agreements was made between the most powerful of Turkish monarchs and a defeated Christian sovereign. Their real purport was this. The alien and the unbeliever had no standing in Moslem law. Its blessings were only for the faithful. Yet as Turkey possessed the shrines of the Christians and the most important highways of the world's commerce, thousands of aliens were at all times within the empire. These aliens were long outlaws, and got along only by the suffrance of their Turkish neighbours, but the need of regulating their status and conduct ultimately became manifest. Rome had had the same problem in her early history, and had just as unhesitatingly refused to aliens the benefit of her sacred law. She met their needs, however, by developing alongside her own code, a second code called the law of nature, or law of nations, a sort of codification of common sense and the supposed general practice, which, because of its less sacred character, proved infinitely more flexible. . . . The Turk, not being a lawgiver, and having an easier alternative, merely refused to bother with these outsiders, and said to the Christian powers in effect: 'Here, take care of your own people and see that they behave, and I won't interfere.' He was totally unconscious at the time that the task thus laid upon them might later be used to impair his authority. It was in pursuance of this same policy that he allowed the church, in the various countries which he conquered, to persist, and recognised its patriarchs as responsible leaders and administrators. It was out of the question to continue the temporal sovereigns of these countries. Moreover, it was perfectly congenial to Mohammedan ideas, that a religious functionary should administer law, for their own law is founded on the Koran and has been largely administered by

religious authorities. So each country got its patriarch, and thus was laid the foundation of that tenacious sectarianism which to-day is one of the chief obstacles to the unification and tranquillisation of the Balkans."—H. H. Powers, *Things men fight for*, pp. 124-126.

The earliest Capitulations with the Venetians "aimed particularly to determine the status of Venetians residing in Turkey. Among its many provisions were included one for the mutual rendition of criminals; another for the custody and settlement by the Venetian Consul of the estates of Venetians dying intestate or without heirs. . . . A provision calling for special mention is one fixing a duty of 2 per cent on all goods sold by Venetians in Turkish ports. . . . In the year 1528, Sultan Suliman II formally confirmed the privileges long enjoyed by the French and Catalan merchants established at Alexandria. . . . More definite, complete, and formal were the solemn treaty engagements of Sultan Suliman in 1535 with Francis I of France [which] . . . may be considered as the real commencement of the régime of the Capitulations. . . . Certainly all subsequent treaties were modelled on this treaty; and other nations have claimed as favorable treatment as therein accorded to France. Owing to the Turkish theory that a treaty could have force only during the life of the Sultan who signed it . . . the Capitulations of 1535 were subjected to numerous alterations of a sweeping character. . . . It was not until 1740 that these treaty rights were made perpetual. . . . Through tenacious insistence on the right to the same treatment accorded to the most favored nation, the other nations have successively obtained from Turkey for their own nationals, the same privileges granted to France. . . . England was the first in the year 1879; Holland also in the same year; Austria in 1615; Russia in 1711; Sweden in 1737; Denmark in 1756; Prussia in 1761; Spain in 1782; Sardinia in 1825; the United States in 1820; Portugal in 1843; Greece in 1854; Brazil in 1858. By these treaties all cases involving life and liberty of foreigners were removed "from the jurisdiction of Ottoman courts, and [submitted] to settlement through diplomatic negotiations with the Sublime Porte. This . . . method became in time most unsatisfactory, and early in the nineteenth century the consular courts assumed jurisdiction over their nationals charged with crimes against Ottoman subjects. After the . . . reforms of the year 1856, however, the rights of jurisdiction of Ottoman Courts in such cases were conceded by the powers with the important restriction requiring the presence of the Dragoman of the consulate of the accused, together with the virtual right of review of the decision by his consular or diplomatic representative."—P. M. Brown, *op. cit.*, pp. 36, 37, 41.—In 1673, France was given exclusive right to protect the subjects of nations which had received no capitulations. This gave increased prestige to France, but in 1675 England gained the right to protect such unrepresented nationals jointly with France, and in 1718 Austria obtained permission to protect the citizens of Genoa and Leghorn with her flag. As the different parts of the Turkish empire became independent, or fell under the rule of other powers, the capitulations became of no effect. Thus they became ineffective in Greece, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Cyprus, Serbia and Rumania after the Treaty of Berlin. In 1881 they were suppressed in Tunis, France having established a protectorate in that country. The use of the term "capitulation" is in modern times usually applied to the Turkish capitulations.

but treaties of the same nature have been made by most of the western powers with Japan, China, Siam and Persia, whose laws were contrary to western ideals. In 1890, however, they were abolished in Japan. "In countries where extra-territorial treaty rights exist, the nations which enjoy these rights also enjoy the right of jurisdiction over their own nationals. In order to exert this right consuls are given juridical powers, or special courts are set up. Thus there is a British Supreme Court, consular court in Constantinople, while in 1906" the United States court for China was established and given "exclusive jurisdiction in all cases and judicial proceedings whereof jurisdiction may now be exercised by the United States consuls and ministers of law and by consuls and ministers of law and by virtue of treaties between the United States and China."—*Cyclopedia of American Government: Extraterritoriality*.

In August, 1914, shortly after the outbreak of the World War, two German warships, *Goeben* and *Breslau*, fled into the Dardanelles. The Allies protested to the Turkish government; the latter, impotent to enforce its international obligations, abrogated the capitulations. The system, however, was restored by the peace treaty imposed by the Allies at Sèvres in 1920.—See also HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1890; Convention with respect to the laws and customs of war on land; WORLD WAR: Diplomatic background: 8.

CAPO D'ISTRIA, Giovanni Antonio, Count (1776-1831), Russian statesman, president of Greece, 1827-1831. He was born in Corfu. After holding an important position in the Republic of the Ionian Islands, entered the diplomatic service of Russia. In 1807, after the Treaty of Tilsit giving the Ionian Republic to Napoleon was signed, he was appointed attaché to the foreign office in Petrograd, and there became assistant minister of foreign affairs, and later counsel to the Tsar. In 1828, he was elected President of Greece. When he suspended the constitution and made himself dictator, he incurred ill-will in some factions and was assassinated, October 9, 1831.—See also GREECE: 1821-1829; 1830-1862.

CAPORETTO, village on the Isonzo river about 20 miles north of Gorizia and just east of the 1914 boundary of Italy. Here in 1917 the Italians suffered a crushing defeat by the Germans and Austrians. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: d, d, 1-4; also ITALY: 1918: Conditions in Italy at the end of the World War.

CAPPADOCIA, in ancient geography, a vaguely-defined country of eastern Asia Minor, between the Black Sea, Cilicia, Armenia and Phrygia. In the fourth century B. C. it was a province of the Persian empire. It became a Roman province in A. D. 17. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1057-1081; MITHRADATIC WARS; PERSIA: 226-627.

CAPPONI, Niccolo, gonfalonier of Florence. See FLORENCE: 1502-1569.

CAPRI, an island in southern Italy at the entrance of the Bay of Naples. In ancient times it was occupied by the Greeks; acquired by Neapolis and then granted to Augustus in exchange for Ænaria (Ischia). There are remains of twelve villas, said to have been built by Tiberius in honor of twelve deities. The island was captured by the English in 1806 and recaptured by the French two years later. In 1813 it was ceded to Ferdinand I, king of the two Sicilies.—See also ITALY (Southern): 1808-1809.

CAPRIVI DE CAPRARA DE MONTECUCCOLI, Georg Leo von (1831-1899), noted Ger-

man statesman. Became chief of the admiralty in 1883, commanding general of the 10th army corps in Hanover in 1888, and later general of infantry; succeeded Bismarck as imperial chancellor (see GERMANY: 1890-1894), president of the Prussian ministry and imperial minister of foreign affairs, in 1890 (see TARIFF: 1870-1000); resigned the presidency of the Prussian ministry in 1892; retired in 1894.—See also GERMANY: 1889-1890, 1890-1891, 1892-1894.

CAPRONI, Gianni, (1886-), Italian aviation engineer, builder of the Caproni aeroplanes. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1918-1921: Air service after World War.

CAPS, a political party in Sweden in favor of limiting the powers of the monarch. See SWEDEN: 1720-1792.

CAPTAINCY - GENERAL.—Office in the Spanish military system, corresponding to that of commander-in-chief. "As a strictly military office the grade of captain-general was . . . the highest in the whole military hierarchy and the military governors of the most important provinces in Spain took that title, by courtesy as it were, whatever their real rank may have been. The following Spanish provinces had captains-general in 1800: Aragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Majorca, Granada, Andalusia, Estremadura, Old Castile, and Galicia." In the colonies, this office was "perhaps . . . the most characteristic of all the positions of trust and profit in Spain's system of . . . administration. . . . From Chile and the extreme south to Mexico and Cuba on the north, the whole of Spanish America was divided, not into vice royalties or provinces, but captaincies-general, and the rulers of these districts had the all-important duty of maintaining the authority of the Spanish crown by the ultimate logic of military force."—D. E. Smith, *Viceroy of new Spain*, p. 193.—See also AUDIENCIAS; CHILE: 1540-1778; INTENDANTS IN SPANISH AMERICA; LATIN AMERICA: 1715-1810.

ALSO IN: *Des devises du Désert*, ii, pp. 133-134.

CAPTAL, title, derived from "capitalis," originally equivalent to count and anciently borne by several lords in Aquitaine. "Towards the 14th century there were no more than two captals acknowledged, that of Buch and that of Franc."—Froissart (Johnes), *Chronicles*, bk. 1, ch. 158, note.

CAPTIVITY, Prince of the. See JEWS: 200-400.

CAPTIVITY OF THE JEWS. See JEWS: B. C. 604-536.

CAPUA.—Capua, originally an Etruscan city, called Vulturnum, was taken by the Samnites, 424 B. C. and was afterwards a city in which Etruscan and neighboring Greek influences were mixed in their effect on a barbarous new population. "Capua became by its commerce and agriculture the second city in Italy in point of size—the first in point of wealth and luxury. The deep demoralization in which, according to the accounts of the ancients, that city surpassed all others in Italy, is especially reflected in the mercenary recruiting and in the gladiatorial sports, both of which pre-eminently flourished in Capua. Nowhere did recruiting officers find so numerous a concourse as in this metropolis of demoralized civilization. . . . The gladiatorial sports . . . if they did not originate, were at any rate carried to perfection in Capua. There, sets of gladiators made their appearance even during banquets."—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 2, ch. 5.

B. C. 343.—Surrender to the Romans. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 343-290.

B. C. 216-211.—Welcome to Hannibal.—Siege and capture by the Romans.—City repeopled. See PUNIC WARS: Second.

B. C. 211.—Fall of. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 218-202.

800-1016.—Lombard principality. See ITALY (Southern): 800-1016.

1501.—Capture, sack and massacre by the French. See ITALY: 1501-1504.

CAPUCHINS.—The Capuchins were only a branch of the great Franciscan order, and their mode of life a modification of its Rule. Among the Franciscans the severity of their Rule had early become a subject of discussion, which finally led to a secession of some of the members, of whom Matteo de' Bassi, of the convent of Montefalcone was the leading spirit. These were the rigorists who desired to restore the primitive austerities of the Order. They began by a change of dress, adding to the usual monastic habit a 'cappuccio,' or pointed hood, which Matteo claimed was of the same pattern as that worn by St. Francis. By the bull 'Religionis zelus' (1528), Matteo obtained from Pope Clement VII, leave for himself and his companions to wear this peculiar dress; to allow their beards to grow; to live in hermitages, according to the rule of St. Francis, and to devote themselves chiefly to the reclaiming of great sinners. Paul III. afterwards gave them permission to settle wherever they liked. Consistently with the austerity of their professions, their churches were unadorned, and their convents built in the simplest style. They became very serviceable to the Church, and their fearlessness and assiduity in waiting upon the sick during the plague, which ravaged the whole of Italy, made them extremely popular.—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 3, p. 455.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 16th century: Counter-Reformation; FRANCE: 1003.

CAPUCHONS, or **Caputiati**. See WHITE HOODS OF FRANCE.

CAPUCINS. See CAPUCHINS.

CARABINIERE PONTIFICI (Later called papal gendarmes). See VATICAN: 1800-1850.

CARABOBO, Battles of (1821-1822). See COLOMBIA: 1819-1830.

CARACA, ancient name for Guadalajara, Spain. See GUADALAJARA.

CARACALLA, Marcus Aurelius Antoninus (186-217), Roman emperor, 211-217. See ALEXANDRIA: 215; ROME: Empire: 192-284.

CARACAS.—Geographical description.—Climate.—Area and population.—“The city of Caracas, the capital of Venezuela, as well as its metropolis, and according to geographies one of the most delightful places of residence in the world, lies in a narrow valley between two high ranges of mountains, which lift their heads nearly nine thousand feet on one side, and something over six thousand on the other. To one standing in the centre of the city it seems to be entirely surrounded by peaks, to lie in a pocket or deep depression; but from the top of 'Calvary,' a hill which used to be a cemetery but is now a park, one can see two roads that lead out, two passes through the mountains whence the river comes and whither it flows. The natural beauties of the place are very marked, and make it plain why Venezuelans are proud of their chief city.”—W. E. Curtis, *Capitals of Spanish America*, p. 265.—“Caracas stands on the north bank of the River Guaire, on the inner slope of the coastal cordillera. The northern part of the city is thus higher than the southern. . . . The minimum temperature recorded in an average year

may be as low as 48° F. (this, of course, at night), but, in general, days and nights are mild, and only in the middle of the year is the air uncomfortably warm at any time of the day. . . . It would be obviously unfair to institute a comparison between a city of this size and any of the better known capitals of the Spanish-American republics, but, considered purely on its own merits, the capital of Venezuela has much to commend it, and undoubtedly exerts a peculiar fascination over most of those who visit it.”—L. V. Dalton, *Venezuela*, pp. 138-139.—See also LATIN AMERICA: Map of South America.

Government.—“The city of Caracas is a Federal district, like the city of Washington, with a governor appointed by the President. His office is in a memorable room, corresponding to the Independence Hall in Philadelphia. It was formerly the chapel of an old convent, confiscated like the rest, and the remainder of the building is used for the police headquarters, the municipal court, and the other local authorities.”—W. E. Curtis, *Capitals of Spanish America*, p. 265.

ALSO IN: M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*, p. 434.

1567.—Caracas founded by Diego de Losada.—“During the governorship of Don Diego Ponce de Leon, Diego de Losada, a native of Tucuyo, travelled across through Villa Rica (Nirgua) to the Llanos, where his efforts, in spite of the many battles with the Indians, were directed rather towards settlement than conquest. Returned to the Villa de San Francisco (of Faxardo), he founded there—presumably in the latter part of 1567, though, strangely enough, the exact date is not recorded—the city of Santiago de Leon de Caracas. As he had on his travels adopted San Sebastian as his patron and protector against the poisoned arrows of the Indians, that saint's day has been celebrated in a special manner in Caracas since its foundation.”—L. V. Dalton, *Venezuela*, p. 76.

ALSO IN: *Bulletin of Pan-American Union*, Nov., 1919, p. 497.

1595.—Capture of Caracas by Drake.—“Drake's capture of Caracas was considered the boldest of all his achievements. It was in 1595 that he stood in with his squadron at La Guayra, and the inhabitants, when they realized the presence of the man who had devastated the West Indies, abandoned their homes and fled to the mountains, carrying the news of the arrival of the terrible Englishman. The Alcaldes of Caracas assembled all the men in the country who could carry arms, from the ages of sixteen to seventy, and marched down the wagon-road along which the railway runs, to stay the invader. Half way down they prepared an ambush and lay in wait to annihilate him. Drake landed at La Guayra with seventy men, captured a fellow named Villalpando, who, by gifts of treasure, agreed to guide him up the old, dangerous, and abandoned Indian trail. So, while the gallant Alcaldes with all the men of Caracas were marching down one road Sir Francis was marching up another, which they thought he would not dare to climb. Neither met an enemy, and while the Spaniards were lying in ambush Sir Francis [and his men were] . . . hanging the traitorous Villalpando in what is now the Plaza Bolivar, drinking the wine from the Spanish cellars, ravishing the women, and plundering the houses of the citizens. But one old hidalgo, named Alonzo de Ledoema, who remained behind, denounced the invaders from the threshold of his plundered house . . . and dared the bravest of the Englishmen to meet him in single combat. Sir

Francis and his crew jeered at the brave old man, and told him to send for his fellow-citizens who had gone down the mountain-road; but he insisted on fighting them alone, and was accommodated. They killed him as tenderly as they could, set fire to the city, and then, laden with all the portable property of value in Caracas, marched down the ravine to La Guayra again, and sailed away with a million dollars' worth of treasure, captured without the loss of a single man."—W. E. Curtis, *Capitals of Spanish America*, p. 264.

1721.—Founding of the university of Carácas.—"The founding of the University of Carácas by Philip V. in 1721 seemed to promise development of the colony on sound lines, but three years later a monopoly of trade was granted to the Compañía Guipuzcoana, a step which probably did more than any other single act to bring about disaffection towards Spain."—L. V. Dalton, *Venezuela*, p. 80.

1810-1919.—Development of the city.—Revolution.—Recovery.—"The city began to prosper after the subjugation of the Indians in spite of the misfortunes which had fallen upon the province (among these, the invasion and pillage [in 1595] by the pirates of the famous filibuster, Preston), and before long it was made the headquarters of the captaincy general of Venezuela. The government of Caracas was organized according to the system which had been adopted for the Spanish colonies of America. The illusion of El Dorado no longer engaged the minds of the conquerors, they occupied themselves in founding towns in due form, providing them with municipal governments, consisting of a town corporation or city council, and dividing the lands and the Indians among the colonies according to their merits. The Indian population, which rapidly perished on account of privations and bad treatment, was in time replaced by slaves brought from Africa. In Caracas, as in all the other towns established in Spanish America, the same customs were followed. It has been said that the location of Caracas was chosen for the purpose of preventing Indian ambushes and attacks. The topography of the land does not seem to confirm this. It is easy to imagine into what the first Spanish camp would develop, converted little by little into a town, which grew gradually until it became a city. Soon after becoming the headquarters of the captaincy general it acquired a decided preponderance in the management of the public questions of the province, obtained certain relative advantages which gave it undoubted superiority over the other urban centers, and its inhabitants progressed in the study of science and of the arts, so that in 1810, when the revolution of April 10 broke out, Caracas was the center of the uprising and gave an example to the other towns of the real spirit of Spanish America. . . . The Caracas revolutionary forces took advantage of the opportunity to spring their long-matured plans, in the execution of which they relied upon the support of many important persons besides that of some of the troops. . . . While the country was being pacified, Caracas began to restore the destruction caused by the war. Her advantages as the capital permitted her to rapidly repair all damages, although the civil wars with which the country was afflicted for a number of years considerably retarded her progress. Thus, at the close of a long struggle, she maintained intact her appearance as a colonial town. It was during the administration of Guzman Blanco that her transformation began. That government, imbued with a spirit of material progress, gave to Caracas the first elements of modern life by con-

structing beautiful driveways, theaters, plazas, buildings, and, for that period, artistic monuments."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union*, Nov., 1910, pp. 500, 503, 509.

1812.—Destruction by earthquake.—"The fine city, of fifty thousand people and handsome edifices, was razed, people were crushed to death at home, in churches, and in business buildings. One patriot company of eight hundred men was almost entirely destroyed. There were twelve thousand dead and the city was a waste and the people were in a frenzy of grief and fear. Then came the priests wailing and proclaiming that it was the punishment of God for the guilt of revolution. This operated upon patriotism as the earthquake had upon the city, as a disintegrating blast. The revolutionary leaders were looked upon as the authors of the trouble and they lost their influence."—C. S. Osborn, *Andean land*, pp. 240-241.—See also COLOMBIA: 1810-1819.

1904-1919.—Municipal growth and changes.—"It is within the last 15 years [written in 1919] that Caracas has rapidly changed. The old colonial city with its flat, ill-proportioned houses, with their broad eaves and shady courts or patios, with its dusty, miry, and badly paved streets, slept through its sestas with the same apathy and unconcern as did its priests of the eighteenth century. It has now been transformed into a modern city full of the noise of traffic and enterprise, with paved streets, suitable for the use of automobiles, fine buildings, and beautiful driveways. To-day the city has a pleasing aspect and is growing more and more attractive. Its streets are still too narrow for the volume of traffic, especially in the business sections. The municipality embraces a large area, and it has not been necessary to build high buildings so that there are not many houses of two stories and fewer still of three."—*Bulletin of Pan-American Union*, Nov., 1919, p. 510.

CARACAS. See CARRACKS.

CARACTACUS, Tribentine prince captured by the Romans. See BRITAIN: 43-53.

CARAFFA, Antonio (d. 1693), a general in Austrian service. See HUNGARY: 1683-1687.

CARAFFA, Giovanni Pietro (1476-1559), Cardinal (Pope Paul IV).

Counter-Reformation. See PAPACY: 1537-1563; 1555-1603.

Inquisition. See ROME: Modern city: 1537-1621.

CARAONNE, Battle of (1814). See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

CARAS, or Carans, aboriginal tribe. See ECUADOR: Aboriginal kingdom of Quito.

CARAUSIUS, Marcus Aurelius Valerius (d. A. D. 293), Roman insurgent revolts against Romans. See BRITAIN: 288-297.

CARAVANS: Routes in medieval times. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 12th-16th centuries.

CARAVELS, GALLEONS, etc.—"The term caravel was originally given to ships navigated wholly by sails as distinguished from the galley propelled by oars. It has been applied to a great variety of vessels of different size and construction. The caravels of the New World discoverers may be generally described as long narrow boats of from 20 to 100 tons burden, with three or four masts of about equal height carrying sometimes square and sometimes lateen sails, the fourth mast set at the heel of the bow-sprit carrying square sails. They were usually half-decked, and adorned with the lofty forecastle and loftier poop of the day. The latter constituted over that part of the vessel a double or treble deck, which was pierced for cannon. . . . The galera was a vessel of low bulwarks, navigated by sails and oars, usually

twenty or thirty oars on either side, four or five oarsmen to a bench. . . . The galeaza was the largest class of galera, or craft propelled wholly or in part by oars. . . . A galeota was a small galera, having only 16 or 20 oarsmen on a side, and two masts. The galeon was a large armed merchant vessel with high bulwarks, three or four decks, with two or three masts, square rigged, spreading courses and top-sails, and sometimes top-gallant sails. . . . Those which plied between Acapulco and Manila were from 1,200 to 2,000 tons burden.



A CARAVEL, 17TH CENTURY

A galeoncillo was a small galeon. The carac was a large carrying vessel, the one intended for Columbus' second voyage being 1,250 toneles or 1,500 tons. A nao, or navio, was a large ship with high bulwarks and three masts. A nave was a vessel with deck and sails, the former distinguishing it from the barca, and the absence of oars from a galera. The bergantin, or brig, had low bulwarks. . . . The name brigantine was applied in America also to an open flat-bottomed boat, which usually carried one sail and from 8 to 16 men."—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific States*, v. 1, p. 187, foot-note.—See also AMERICA: 1402.

CARBERRY HILL, in Scotland near Edinburgh where Mary Stuart surrendered to the barons who rose against her. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

CARBON COMPOUNDS. See CHEMISTRY: Organic; Defined.

CARBONARI.—"The most famous and widespread [of the Italian secret societies] was the Carbonari or society of charcoal-burners, which would appear to have been organized during the reign of Murat [king of Naples] about the year 1811. This association, which may be taken as most typical and influential of all the Italian societies, represents both the undercurrents of popular agitation, and, in its higher and most worthy aspect, the influence of the revolutionary ideas and principles that had been evolved out of the events of the preceding twenty years. Italy had been shaken to her very foundation, and it was impossible that the national elements should rearrange themselves as they had been before. Therefore Carbonarism is for the student of Italian history not a great political movement, not even a great organized revolt, but a widespread political symptom indicating the spirit of the newer life that was everywhere dominating the mind of the people of western Europe. Carbonarism was not limited to Italy; it included the popular elements in neighbouring countries, in France . . . in Swit-

zerland, and Spain, and established its branches wherever it could find a following. . . . In France it protested against the Restoration, in Spain against the wretched government of Ferdinand VII., while in Italy it opposed Austria and everything for which that state stood. It took as its cardinal principles individual liberty, constitutional government and national independence; and for its instruments of action, agitation and revolution. Its chief defects were the character of its organization, the method that it employed, and the aim that it placed before itself; for each was vague, insufficient, and unsatisfactory. In organization it was secret, cosmopolitan, and ceremonious. . . . In form the system was a republic, but the facts did not always bear out the theory. The territory of activity was divided into provinces, in each of which were one or more lodges whose numbers were increased as rapidly as possible. The members were also divided into 'tribes,' and there was a senate and a house of representatives that were supposed to make the laws for each 'tribe.' In point of fact, however, the Constitution of the Carbonari was never very rigorously followed, and in practical working the system became rather oligarchic than republican. Instead of unity and free intercourse there was little or no communication between the lodges. Initiated members did not know their leaders. Instead of common co-operation in the making of laws, obedience was demanded to rules the origin of which was kept a secret, and power was concentrated in the hands of a few men, to whose councils few were admitted and whose identity was in the majority of cases a secret. . . . Then, too, it was cosmopolitan, and not Italian. It believed in the propagation of its doctrines throughout Europe, and did not concentrate its efforts upon the redemption of Italy alone. It was, therefore, a part of the general European liberal movement with its centre in Italy, a connection that weakened its strength, and prevented its holding a secure place in the hearts of those who desired Italy's salvation, and who were willing to sacrifice themselves for her cause but not for the Cause of Europe."—C. M. Andrews, *Historical development of modern Europe*, v. 1 (1815-1850), pp. 193-195.—See also ITALY (SOUTHERN): 1808-1809; PORTUGAL: 1911-1914.

ALSO IN: O. BROWNING, *History of the modern world*, v. 1, p. 38.

CARCASSONNE, city in France, capital of the department of Aude. It consists of the new city and the old *cit * which stands on an elevation and has retained, to a great extent, its ancient fortifications of the Middle Ages. See BURGUNDY: 1032.

CARCHEMISH, ancient city of Mesopotamia on the Euphrates river. See BABYLONIA: Map of Egyptian, Assyrian, Babylonian and Median powers.

CARCHEMISH, Battle of (1060 B.C.). See HITTITES.

CARCHEMISH, Battle of (604 B.C.), fought between the armies of Necho, the Egyptian pharaoh, and Nebuchadrezzar, then crown prince of Babylon. Necho, being defeated, was driven back to Egypt and stripped of all his Syrian conquests.—F. Lenormant, *Manual of ancient history of the east*, bk. 2, ch. 4.—See also EGYPT: B.C. 670-525; JEWS: B.C. 724-604, 604-536.

CARDADEU, Battle of (1808). See SPAIN: 1808-1800 (December-March).

CARDANO, Girolamo (1501-1576), physician of Pavia. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century; Education for the deaf, blind and feeble minded: Deaf mutes.

CARDEN, Sir Sackville Hamilton (1857-), British admiral, at the Dardanelles. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: VI. Turkey: a; a, 1.

CARDINALS, College of. See **COLLEGE OF CARDINALS**; **CURIA**, Papal; **VATICAN**: Present-day papal administration.

CARDIOGRAM. See **ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY**: 1833-1921.

CARDROSS, Henry Erskine, 3d baron (1650-1693), Scottish nobleman, founder of Stuart's Town. See **SOUTH CAROLINA**: 1680.

CARDUCCI, Giosuè (1835-1907), Italian poet and critic, one of the founders of the modern school of Italian poetry, into which he infused life and spirit. He began to publish in 1865 and thenceforth produced a large number of poems. His best work was done in 1880 to 1900 when the "Ode barbare" and "Rime e ritmi" were written. His critical work, notably "Conversazioni critiche," and "Storia filosofica della letteratura Italiana," belongs to his later period. The year before his death he was awarded the Nobel prize for literature. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE**: 1830-1912; 1860-1914; **NOBEL PRIZES**: Literature: 1906.

CARDUCHI.—"South of the lake [Lake Van, in Asia Minor] lay the Carduchi, whom the later Greeks call the Gordyæans and Gordyenes; but among the Armenians they were known as Kordu, among the Syrians as Kardu. These are the ancestors of the modern Kurds, a nation also of the Aryan stock."—M. Duncker *History of antiquity*, bk. 2, ch. 12.—See also **GORDYENE**.—Under Saladin and the Ayonbite dynasty the Kurds played an important part in medieval history.

CARENCY, town in France near Arras, lost in the German drive of 1914, retaken by French in 1915, during World War. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: a, 6.

CAREY, George Glas Sandeman (1867-), British army officer. During the World War, he improvised an army of engineers and laborers, and for six days held the Germans before Amiens, which they were unable to capture. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: c, 21.

CAREY, Henry (c. 1692-1743), English musician and poet. He is remembered as the author "God Save the King," and of "Sally in Our Alley." He was also the composer of a number of cantatas and other compositions. See **MUSIC**: Modern: 1750-1870.

CAREY, Henry Charles (1793-1879), American economist. He was the author of a number of works on economics, notably *Principles of Political Economy* (1837-1840).

CAREY, William (1761-1834), English missionary and Orientalist. See **MISSIONS**, **CHRISTIAN**: Mission fields: India; Y. M. C. A.: 1625-1844.

CAREY ACT (1804), aided reclamation in the United States. See **CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES**: United States: 1847-1901.

CARGILLITES, Presbyterian group of insurgents, followers of Donald Cargill, a Covenanting preacher, opposed to the religious policy of England. See **SCOTLAND**: 1681-1680.

CARHAM, Battle of (1018), fought and won by an army of Scots, under King Malcolm, invading the then English earldom of Bernicia, 1018, and securing the annexation of Lothian to the Scottish kingdom. The battlefield was near that on which Flodden was afterwards fought.—E. A. Freeman, *Norman conquest*, ch. 6, sect. 2.

CARIANS.—"The Carians may be called the doubles of the Leleges. They are termed the 'speakers of a barbarous tongue,' and yet, on the other hand, Apollo is said to have spoken Carian. As a people of pirates clad in bronze they once

upon a time had their day in the Archipelago, and, like the Normans of the Middle Ages, swooped down from the sea to desolate the coasts; but their real home was in Asia Minor, where their settlements lay between those of Phrygians and Pisidians, and community of religion united them with the Lydians and Mysians."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 1, ch. 2.—The country of the Carians was the mountainous district in the southwestern angle of Asia Minor, the coast of which is indented with gulfs and frayed with long-projecting rocky promontories. The island of Rhodes lies close to it on the south. The Carians were subjugated by the Lydian king, Cræsus, and afterwards passed under the Persian yoke. The Persians permitted the establishment of a vassal kingdom, under a dynasty which fixed its capital at Halicarnassus, and made that city one of the splendid Asiatic outposts of Greek art and civilization, though always faithfully Persian in its politics [see also **GREECE**: B. C. 500-493]. It was to the memory of one of the Carian kings at Halicarnassus, Mausolus, that the famous sepulchral monument, which gave its name to all similar edifices, and which the ancients counted among the seven wonders of the world, was erected by his widow. Halicarnassus offered an obstinate resistance to Alexander the Great and was destroyed by that ruthless conqueror after it had succumbed to his siege. Subsequently rebuilt, it never gained importance again. The Turkish town of Budrum now occupies the site.—C. T. Newton, *Travels and discoveries in the Levant*, v. 2.—See also **HAMITES**; **DORIANS AND IONIANS**; **MILETUS**.

CARIAY, Indian tribe. See **GUCK OR COCO GROUP**.

CARIBBEAN NATIONS, Central and South American states which border on the Caribbean sea.

United States relations with. See **DOLLAR DIPLOMACY**.

CARIBBEE ISLANDS. See **AMERICA**: 1493-1496; **WEST INDIES**.

CARIBS.—"Their kindred,—The warlike and unyielding character of these people, so different from that of the pusillanimous nations around them, and the wide scope of their enterprises and wanderings, like those of the nomad tribes of the Old World, entitle them to distinguished attention. . . . The traditional accounts of their origin, though of course extremely vague, are yet capable of being verified to a great degree by geographical facts, and open one of the rich veins of curious inquiry and speculation which abound in the New World. They are said to have migrated from the remote valleys embosomed in the Apalachian mountains. The earliest accounts we have of them represent with weapons in their hands, continually engaged in wars, winning their way and shifting their abode, until, in the course of time, they found themselves at the extremity of Florida. Here, abandoning the northern continent, they passed over to the Lucayos [Bahamas], and thence gradually, in the process of years, from island to island of that vast verdant chain, which links, as it were, the end of Florida to the coast of Paria, on the southern continent. The archipelago extending from Porto Rico to Tobago was their stronghold, and the island of Guadalupe in a manner their citadel. Hence they made their expeditions, and spread the terror of their name through all the surrounding countries. Swarms of them landed upon the southern continent, and overran some parts of terra firma. Traces of them have been discovered far in the interior of that vast country through which flows the Oroon-

oko. The Dutch found colonies of them on the banks of the Ikouteka, which empties into the Surinam; along the Esquibi, the Maroni, and other rivers of Guayana; and in the country watered by the windings of the Cayenne."—W. Irving, *Life and voyages of Columbus*, v. 1, bk. 6, ch. 3.—"To this account [substantially as given above] of the origin of the Insular Charaibes, the generality of historians have given their assent; but there are doubts attending it that are not easily solved. If they migrated from Florida, the imperfect state and natural course of their navigation induce a belief that traces of them would have been found on those islands which are near to the Florida shore; yet the natives of the Bahamas, when discovered by Columbus, were evidently a similar people to those of Hispaniola. Besides, it is sufficiently known that there existed anciently many numerous and powerful tribes of Charaibes on the southern peninsula, extending from the river Oronoko to Essequibe, and throughout the whole province of Surinam, even to Brazil, some of which still maintain their independency. . . . I incline therefore to the opinion of Martyr, and conclude that the islanders were rather a colony from the Charaibes of South America, than from any nation of the North. Roehofort admits that their own traditions referred constantly to Guiana."—B. Edwards, *History of British colonies in the W. Indies*, bk. 1, ch. 2.—"The Carabisee, Carabeesi, Charaibes, Caribs, or Galibis, originally occupied [in Guiana] the principal rivers, but as the Dutch encroached upon their possessions they retired inland, and are now daily dwindling away. According to Mr. Hillhouse, they could formerly muster nearly 1,000 fighting men, but are now [1855] scarcely able to raise a tenth part of that number. . . . The smaller islands of the Caribbean Sea were formerly thickly populated by this tribe, but now not a trace of them remains."—H. G. Dalton, *History of British Guiana*, v. 1, ch. 1.—E. F. im Thurn, *Among the Indians of Guiana*, ch. 6.—"Recent researches have shown that the original home of the stock was south of the Amazon, and probably in the highlands at the head of the Tapajoz river. A tribe, the Bakairi, is still resident there, whose language is a pure and archaic form of the Carib tongue."—D. G. Brinton, *Races and peoples*, p. 268.—"Related to the Caribs stand a long list of small tribes . . . all inhabitants of the great primeval forest in and near Guiana. They may have characteristic differences, but none worthy of mention are known. In bodily appearance, according to all accounts, these relatives of the Caribs are beautiful. In Georgetown the Arauacas [or Arawaks] are celebrated for their beauty. They are slender and graceful, and their features handsome and regular, the face having a Grecian profile, and the skin being of a reddish cast. A little farther inland we find the Macushi [or Maecis], with a lighter complexion and a Roman nose. These two types are repeated in other tribes, except in the Tarumi, who are decidedly ugly. In mental characteristics great similarity prevails."—*Standard natural history* (J. S. Kingsley, ed.), p. 237.—"The Arawaks occupied on the continent the area of the modern Guiana, between the Corentyn and the Pomeroun rivers, and at one time all the West Indian Islands. From some of them they were early driven by the Caribs, and within 40 years of the date of Columbus' first voyage the Spanish had exterminated nearly all on the islands. Their course of migration had been from the interior of Brazil northward; their distant relations are still to be found between the headwaters of the Paraguay

and Schingu rivers."—D. G. Brinton, *Races and peoples*, p. 268-269.—"The Kāpohn (Acawoios, Waikas, &c.) claim kindred with the Caribs. . . . The Acawoios, though resolute and determined, are less hasty and impetuous than the Caribs. . . . According to their tradition, one of their hordes removed [to the Upper Demerera] . . . from the Masaruni. The Parawianas, who originally dwelt on the Demerera, having been exterminated by the continual incursions of the Caribs, the Waika-Acawoios occupied their vacant territory. . . . The Macusis . . . are supposed by some to have formerly inhabited the banks of the Orinoco. . . . As they are industrious and unwarlike, they have been the prey of every savage tribe around them. The Wapisianas are supposed to have driven them northward and taken possession of their country. The Brazilians, as well as the Caribs, Acawoios, &c., have long been in the habit of enslaving them. . . . The Arecunas have been accustomed to descend from the higher lands and attack the Macusis. . . . This tribe is said to have formerly dwelt on the banks of the Uaupes or Ucayari, a tributary of the Rio Negro. . . . The Waraus appear to have been the most ancient inhabitants of the land. Very little, however, can be gleaned from them respecting their early history. . . . The Tivitivas, mentioned by Raleigh, were probably a branch of the Waraus, whom he calls Quarawetes."—W. H. Brett, *Indian tribes of Guiana*, pt. 2, ch. 13.—See also APALACHES.

CARILLON, French name of Fort Ticonderoga. See CANADA: 1758; TICONDEROGA.

CARINTHIA, one of the seven provinces of the Republic of Austria, northeast of Italy and southeast of Salzburg. In 1920 it had a population of 369,401 to an area of 3,678 square miles.

Races. See BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities.

Early medieval history. See SLAVS: 6th-7th centuries; GERMANY: 843-962.

14th century.—Quarrels over its possession by Bavaria and Bohemia. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364.

15th-19th centuries.—Map showing growth of Hapsburg power. See AUSTRIA: Map showing Hapsburg possessions.

CARINUS (d. 285), Roman emperor, 283-284.

CARIPUNA, Indian tribe. See GUCK OR COCO GROUP.

CARISBROOKE CASTLE, situated in the Isle of Wight, England, wherein Charles I took refuge and was held in captivity for fourteen months, 1647-1648. See ENGLAND: 1647 (August-December).

CARISSIMI, Giacomo (c. 1604-1674), famous Italian composer. A master at Assisi, he removed to Rome 1628 and became master of S. Apollinaris. Noteworthy work in sacred cantatas and chamber-music. Teacher of Alessandro Scarlatti. Manuscripts of his works are in British Museum, National Library and the Conservatory, Paris; Christ Church, Oxford, and in the Lateran. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1734.

CARIZMIANS, people of an ancient Asiatic tribe. See JERUSALEM: 1244; KHUAREZM: 12th century.

CARLETON, Sir Guy. See DORCHESTER, GUY CARLETON, 1ST BARON.

CARLINGS, Carlovingians, or Carolingians, a dynasty of Frankish kings. See FRANKS: 768-814.

CARLISLE, John Griffin (1835-1910), American lawyer and politician. He served as member of the House of Representatives, senator, speaker of the House and secretary of the treasury under Cleveland. See CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES:

House: Speaker and the committee system. U. S. A.: 1900-1901.

CARLISLE, parliamentary and municipal borough of England. Capital of the county of Cumberland. Originally a Roman military post by the name of *Luguvallium* (see *LUGUVALIUM*). Overrun by the Picts and Scots, and destroyed by the Danes in 875. During the Civil War it sided with the monarchy, and in 1745 it was captured by the Pretender. It is an episcopal city, having a fine cathedral founded by William Rufus.

CARLISLE INDIAN SCHOOL. Through the influence of Capt. R. H. Pratt an industrial training school for Indians was founded in 1879 at Carlisle, Pennsylvania. See *INDIANS, AMERICAN*: 1910.

CARLISTS, supporters of Don Carlos, the Spanish pretender; adherents of Spanish legitimacy and Catholic orthodoxy. When Don Jaime succeeded his father Don Carlos in 1909, he stated his determination to avoid civil war, to keep the peace. See *SPAIN*: 1833-1846; 1873-1874; 1874-1875; 1900-1900; 1921: Political outlook.

CARLO ALBERTO, Italian battleship loaned to Marconi in 1902 in order to assist him in transmitting messages across the Atlantic.

CARLOMAN (d. 754), son of Charles Martel. He shared the kingdom with Pippin the Short; but abdicated and became a monk.

Carloman (751-771), son of Pippin, King of the Franks. See *CHRISTIANITY*: 496-800.

Carloman (828-880), king of Bavaria and Italy, eldest son of Louis the German.

Carloman (d. 884), king of West Franks, son of Louis the Stammerer.

CARLOPAGO, seaport town of Jugo-Slavia, on the Adriatic. In 1915 it was promised to be incorporated in the territory of Croatia, Serbia and Montenegro, by the Treaty of London. See *LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF*.

CARLOS. See *CHARLES*.

CARLOS I (1863-1908), king of Portugal. See *PORTUGAL*: 1906-1909.

CARLOS, Don (1420-1461), Infante of Navarre. See *NAVARRÉ*: 1442-1521.

Carlos, Don (1545-1568), son of Philip II, Prince of Asturias and heir to the Spanish crown.

Carlos, Don (1788-1855), second son of Charles IV. Spanish pretender.

Carlos, Don (1848-1900), prince of Bourbon, claimant to the throne of Spain.

CARLOTTA. See *CHARLOTTE*.

CARLOVINGIANS, a dynasty of Frankish kings. See *FRANKS*: 768-814.

CARLOWITZ, Peace of (1699). See *HUNGARY*: 1683-1699; *TURKEY*: 1684-1696.

CARLSBAD (Karlsbad), Congress of (1819). See *GERMANY*: 1814-1820.

CARLSEN, Elling, Norwegian seal fisherman and explorer. See *SPITSBERGEN*: 1827-1898.

CARLSTROM, Victor (d. 1917), American aviator. See *AVIATION*: Important flights since 1900: 1916.

CARLYLE, Thomas (1795-1881), Scottish man of letters, essayist, historian, and philosopher. Among his most important works are his translations from Schiller and Goethe, and biographical and critical works on German literature, "Sartor Resartus" (1833-1834), "The French Revolution" (1837), series on the "History of Literature" (1838), on "The Revolutions of Modern Europe" (1839), and on "Heroes and Hero-Worship" (1840), "Oliver Cromwell's Letters and Speeches, with Elucidations and a Connecting Narrative" (1845), "Latterday Pamphlets" (1850), "History of Frederick the Great" (1858-1865). For treat-

ment of Carlyle's work and influence see *ENGLISH LITERATURE*: 1832-1880; *ECONOMICS*: 19th-20th centuries: Influence of Carlyle, Ruskin, Tolstoi; *HISTORY*: 4, 27, 33.

CARMACK, Edward Ward (1858-1908). American journalist and politician. Member of Tennessee state legislature, 1884; United States House of Representatives and Senate, 1897-1907. See *TENNESSEE*: 1887-1908.

CARMAGNOLA, Francesco Bussone, Count of (1390-1432), Italian general. See *ITALY*: 1412-1447.

CARMAGNOLE, French revolutionary song and dance. See *FRANCE*: 1793 (February-April).

CARMANIA, converted Cunard steamship which on September 14, 1914, off the coast of Brazil, sank the German raider *Cap Trafalgar*, during the World War.

CARMANIANS.—"The Germanians of Herodotus are the Carmanians of the later Greeks, who also passed with them as a separate nation, though closely allied to the Persians and Medes. They wandered to and fro to the east of Persia in the district now called Kirman."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, v. 5, bk. 8, ch. 3.

CARMATHIANS.—"In the 277th year of the Hegira [A. D. 800], and in the neighbourhood of Cufa, an Arabian preacher of the name of Carmath assumed the lofty and incomprehensible style of the Guide, the Director, the Demonstration, the Word, the Holy Ghost, the Camel, the Herald of the Messiah, who had conversed with him in a human shape, and the representative of Mohammed the son of Ali, of St. John the Baptist, and of the Angel Gabriel." Carmath was one of the eastern proselytes of the sect of the Ishmailians or Ishmailites—the same from which sprang the terrible secret order of the Assassins. He founded another branch of the Ishmailians, which, taking his name, were called the Carmathians. The sect made rapid gains among the Bedouins and were soon a formidable and uncontrollable body. "After a bloody conflict they prevailed in the province of Bahrein, along the Persian Gulf. Far and wide the tribes of the desert were subject to the sceptre, or rather to the sword, of Abu Said and his son Abu Taher; and these rebellious imams could muster in the field 107,000 fanatics. . . . The cities of Racca and Baalbec, of Cufa and Bassorah, were taken and pillaged; Bagdad was filled with consternation; and the caliph trembled behind the veils of his palace. . . . The rapine of the Carmathians was sanctified by their aversion to the worship of Mecca. They robbed a caravan of pilgrims, and 20,000 devout Moslems were abandoned on the burning sands to a death of hunger and thirst. Another year [929] they suffered the pilgrims to proceed without interruption; but, in the festival of devotion, Abu Taher stormed the holy city and trampled on the most venerable relics of the Mahometan faith. Thirty thousand citizens and strangers were put to the sword; the sacred precincts were polluted by the burial of 3,000 dead bodies; the well of Zemzen overflowed with blood; the golden spout was forced from its place; the veil of the Caaba was divided among these impious sectaries; and the black stone, the first monument of the nation, was borne away in triumph to their capital. After this deed of sacrilege and cruelty they continued to infest the confines of Irak, Syria and Egypt; but the vital principle of enthusiasm had withered at the root. . . . It is needless to enquire into what factions they were broken, or by whose swords they were finally extirpated. The sect of the Carmathians may be considered as the second vis-

ible cause of the decline and fall of the empire of the caliphs."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 52, and note by W. Smith.

CARMELITE FRIARS.—"About the middle of the [twelfth] century, one Berthold, a Calabrian with a few companions, migrated to Mount Carmel [see CHRISTIANITY: Map of Palestine in the time of Christ], and in the place where the prophet Elias of old is said to have hid himself, built a humble cottage with a chapel, in which he and his associates led a laborious and solitary life. As others continued to unite themselves with these residents on Mount Carmel, Albert the patriarch of Jerusalem, near the commencement of the next century, prescribed for them a rule of life; which the pontiffs afterwards sanctioned by their authority, and also changed in various respects, and when it was found too rigorous and burdensome, mitigated considerably. Such was the origin of the celebrated order of Carmelites, or as it is commonly called the order of St. Mary of Mount Carmel [and known in England as the White Friars]; which subsequently passed from Syria into Europe, and became one of the principal mendicant orders. The Carmelites themselves reject with disdain this account of their origin, and most strenuously contend that the holy prophet Elias of the Old Testament, was the parent and founder of their society. But they were able to persuade very few (or rather none out of their society), that their origin was so ancient and illustrious."—J. L. von Mosheim, *Institutes of ecclesiastical history*, bk. 3, century 12, pt. 2, ch. 2, sect. 21.

ALSO IN: G. Waddington, *History of the church*, ch. 19, sect. 5.—J. Alzog, *Manual of universal church history*, v. 2, sect. 244.—E. L. Cutts, *Scenes and characters of the middle ages*, ch. 5.

CARMEN SYLVA, pen name of Elizabeth of Rumania. Pauline Elizabeth Ottilie Louise (1843-1916) was born in Germany, a princess of Wied, and married to Prince Charles (Carol) of Rumania in 1869. She was crowned queen in 1881 when Rumania became a kingdom. She published some twenty volumes of verses, mostly in German; some in Rumanian, and one in English, "The Bard of the Dimbovitza," besides many novelettes and dramas.

CARMONA, a city in the province of Seville, Spain. See SPAIN: 711-713.

CARNABII, or *Cornabii*. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CARNAC.—"The celebrated monument of Carnac, in Brittany, consists of eleven rows of unhewn stones, which differ greatly both in size and height, the largest being 22 feet above ground, while some are quite small. It appears that the avenues originally extended for several miles, but at present they are very imperfect, the stones having been cleared away in places for agricultural improvements. At present, therefore, there are several detached portions, which, however, have the same general direction, and appear to have been connected together. . . . Most of the great tumuli in Brittany probably belong to the Stone Age, and I am therefore disposed to regard Carnac as having been erected during the same period."—J. Lubbock, *Prehistoric times*, ch. 5.

CARNARVON, British cruiser in the battle of the Falkland islands (December, 1914) during the World War.

CARNARVONSHIRE, a county in North Wales. Carnarvon, the county town, is historically noted as the birthplace of Edward II, who in his infancy was created Prince of Wales by his father.

CARNAVALET, Musée, also called Musée Historique de la Ville, Paris. It is designed to illustrate the history of Paris and the revolution. Begun in 1544, the building was originally the Hôtel des Ligneris and then de Kernevenoy. In 1866 it was turned into a museum. Its collections comprise prehistoric monuments, Roman antiquities, monuments of the Merovingian period, bas-reliefs of scenes from the history of Paris, memorials of Paris, and numerous portraits of men prominent in the Revolution.

CARNEGIE, Andrew (1835-1919), American manufacturer and philanthropist. Superintendent of military railroads and government telegraph lines in the East during the Civil War; founder of Carnegie Steel Company (see CAPITALISM; 19th century: United States; and U. S. A.: 1897); gave liberally to public libraries and educational institutions.—See also CARNEGIE HERO FUNDS; CARNEGIE INSTITUTION, WASHINGTON; FOUNDATIONS, EDUCATIONAL AND PHILANTHROPIC, UNITED STATES; Carnegie Foundations; INSTITUTION; LIBRARIES: Modern: Carnegie library gifts; PEACE MOVEMENT: Peace organizations.

Central American court of justice. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1908.

Pan-American building at Washington. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906-1908.

Dunfermline, Scotland, gift to. See RECREATION: 1914.

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION. See FOUNDATIONS, EDUCATIONAL AND PHILANTHROPIC, UNITED STATES: Carnegie Foundations.

CARNEGIE HERO FUNDS.—April 15, 1904, a letter from Andrew Carnegie was made public announcing that he had set apart a fund of \$5,000,000 to be known as "The Hero Fund." In this letter Mr. Carnegie said: "We live in an heroic age. Not seldom are we thrilled by deeds of heroism where men or women are injured or lose their lives in attempting to preserve or rescue their fellows; such are the heroes of civilization. The heroes of barbarism maimed or killed. I have long felt that the heroes and those dependent upon them should be freed from pecuniary cares resulting from their heroism and as a fund for this purpose I have transferred to a commission \$5,000,000 of collateral 5 per cent bonds of the United States Steel Corporation." Only such as follow peaceful vocations on sea or land in the United States or Canada are eligible to receive money or medals for heroic deeds. The commission which has charge of the fund has its headquarters in Pittsburg, Pa. A similar fund in Great Britain was created soon afterward by Mr. Carnegie, and in May, 1909, he placed, for the same purpose, \$1,000,000 of the bonds of the United States Steel Corporation in the hands of trustees in France, under the sanction of the French government.—See also U. S. A.: 1909 (May 25).

CARNEGIE INSTITUTE, Pittsburgh.—The Carnegie Institute of Pittsburgh was founded in 1895 by Andrew Carnegie, who in 1890 offered \$1,000,000 to the city for the erection of buildings to house a museum, art gallery, library, and library branches. The city obtained legislative permission to accept the gift and the first building—the main library—was opened in 1895. From time to time the founder added large sums, to his generous donation, for the erection of additional buildings and for endowments. In 1907 the Institute was re-dedicated and is now one of the finest educational centers in the United States. "The Carnegie Institute, of Pittsburgh, comprises a group of cultural and educational departments embracing Fine

Arts, Museum, Music Hall, Library School and Institute of Technology. All of these departments, excepting the Technical Schools, are housed in a building which stands among the world's great pieces of architecture, and the Technical Schools are located in a group of commodious buildings on a large tract of land adjoining the Carnegie Institute. . . . In addition to the departments named there is the great Carnegie Library system, with the main library established in the same building with the Carnegie Institute, and eight branches placed at convenient locations throughout the city of Pittsburgh. . . . The Music Hall, which was originally under the direction of the Library Trustees . . . was, on January 1, 1916, transferred from the Carnegie Library control to the control of the Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Institute. . . . The Carnegie Library School is the outgrowth of a class of five students formed in October, 1900, to train young women for the staff of the Children's Department of the Carnegie Library of Pittsburgh. . . . On April 1, 1915, it became a department of the Carnegie Institute, and its name was officially changed to the Carnegie Library School. . . . In the Carnegie Music Hall . . . two public recitals are offered each week during nine months of the year, or approximately seventy-five recitals each season. . . . [The Museum and Art Gallery are very important sections of the Institute, and have a decided influence on American art. The donor desired that the directors should encourage American artists. Therefore the constitution provides that] within one year from the said appointment and in like manner within each succeeding year thereafter, the Fine Arts Committee shall submit to the Board of Trustees [for purchase if authorized by a two-thirds vote] not less than two pictures painted by American artists . . . completed within the year for which said committee shall be appointed."—*Manual of the Public Benefactions of Andrew Carnegie*, pp. 1, 8, 9, 25, 43.—The pictures are required to be exhibited for the public, in the Art Gallery, a provision which has created a significant annual exhibition.—See also COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES.

CARNEGIE INSTITUTION, Washington.—The following information relative to the founding, the plan and the work of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, is derived from the authorities of the Institution:

The Institution was founded by Mr. Andrew Carnegie, January 28, 1902, when he gave to a board of trustees \$10,000,000 in registered bonds, yielding five per cent annual interest. To this endowment fund an addition of \$2,000,000 was made by Mr. Carnegie on December 10, 1907. The Institution was originally organized under the laws of the District of Columbia as the Carnegie Institution. Subsequently, however, it was incorporated by an act of Congress, approved April 28, 1904, under the title of the Carnegie Institution of Washington. The articles of incorporation declare, in general, "that the objects of the corporation shall be to encourage in the broadest and most liberal manner investigation, research, and discovery, and the application of knowledge to the improvement of mankind." By the act of incorporation the Institution was placed under the control of a board of twenty-four trustees, all of whom had been members of the original board referred to above.

Since the object of the Institution is the promotion of investigation "in the broadest and most liberal manner," many projects in widely different fields of inquiry have been considered, or are

under consideration, by the Executive Committee. These projects are chiefly of three classes, namely:

First, large projects or departments of work whose execution requires continuous research by a corps of investigators during a series of years. Ten such departments have been established by the Institution. . . .

Second, minor projects which may be carried out by individual experts in a limited period of time. Many grants in aid of this class of projects have been made.

Third, research associates and assistants. Under this head aid has been given to a considerable number of investigators possessing exceptional abilities and opportunities for research work.

An annual appropriation is made for the purpose of publishing the results of investigations made under the auspices of the Institution, and for certain works which would not otherwise be readily printed. Its publications are not distributed gratis, except to a limited list of the greater libraries of the world. Other copies are offered for sale at prices only sufficient to cover the cost of publication and transportation to purchasers. Lists are furnished on application.

George Iles, in his "Inventors at Work," describes and characterizes the aims and guiding principles of the Institution as follows: "In its grants for widely varied purposes the policy of the Institution is clear: only those inquiries are aided which give promise of fruit, and in every case the grantee requires to be a man of proved ability, care being taken not to duplicate work already in hand elsewhere, or to essay tasks of an industrial character. Experience has already shown it better to confine research to a few large projects rather than to aid many minor investigations with grants comparatively small.

"One branch of work reminds us of Mr. Carnegie's method in establishing public libraries—the supplementing of local public spirit by a generous gift. In many cases a university or an observatory launches an inquiry which soon broadens out beyond the range of its own small funds; then it is that aid from the Carnegie Institution brings to port a ship that otherwise might remain at sea indefinitely. Let a few typical examples of this kind be mentioned:—Dudley Observatory, Albany, New York, and Lick Observatory, California, have received aid toward their observations and computations; Yerkes Observatory, Wisconsin, has been helped in measuring the distance of fixed stars. Among other investigations promoted have been the study of the rare earths and the heat-treatment of some high-carbon steels. The adjacent field of engineering has not been neglected; funds have been granted for experiments on ship resistance and propulsion, for determining the value of high pressure steam in locomotive service. In geology an investigation of fundamental principles has been furthered, as also the specific problem of the flow of rocks under severe pressure. In his remarkable inquiry into the economy of foods, Professor W. O. Atwater, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Connecticut, has had liberal help. In the allied science of preventive medicine a grant is advancing the study of snake venoms and defeating inoculations.

"At a later day the Institution may possibly adopt plans recommended by eminent advisers of the rank of Professor Simon Newcomb, who points out that analysis and generalization are to-day much more needed than further observations of a routine kind. He has also had a weighty word to say regarding the desirability of bringing together

for mutual attrition and discussion men in contiguous fields of work, who take the bearings of a great problem from different points of view."—G. Iles, *Inventors at work*, p. 276.

"The different departments of research have been supplied . . . quarters of their own to enhance the efficiency of their work. The department of botanical research has established a laboratory at Tucson, Arizona, equipped for the special work of botanical research in desert areas. The plant consists of two laboratories, two shops, and two stone reservoirs located in a land reservation of about eight hundred acres. There is also a laboratory at Carmel, California. There are various reservations of land for plantations in the mountains of Arizona and in the desert areas of the southwestern states and adjacent areas of Mexico. The department of experimental evolution has a tract of land of about thirty acres at Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, with an equipment of fourteen buildings, besides a naphtha launch for marine collecting. In addition, the department has recently secured a small island in Long Island Sound, where it conducts investigations of plants and animals in a state of isolation. The department of geophysics has a beautiful laboratory in the city of Washington on a site of five acres. The department of marine biology has a plant at Loggerhead Key, Dry Tortugas, Florida, in a region remarkable for its abundance of marine life. . . . For the purposes of studies in meridian astrometry it was decided in 1903 to establish an observatory in the southern hemisphere. The project was carried out with the approval of the government of Argentina, and the observatory located in 1909 on national land at San Luis, Argentine Republic. . . . The equipment of the solar observatory consists of two separate but closely-related parts. These are an observatory with telescopic equipment and physical laboratory on Mount Wilson, California, and an office, shops, and physical laboratory in Pasadena, twelve miles away. . . . A novel feature of the equipment of the observatory consists of a tower telescope sixty feet in height. An additional tower telescope one hundred and fifty feet high is now [1910] in the course of construction. In 1907 work was begun on the nutrition laboratory, which is situated near the Harvard Medical School in Boston. Through the courtesy of the authorities of Harvard College, heat, light, power, compressed air, vacuum and refrigeration are obtained from the near-by plant of the Harvard Medical School. The last of the departments having special equipment is that of terrestrial magnetism, which is conducting a general magnetic survey of the earth. To aid in this work the brigantine *Galilee* of San Francisco was chartered from 1904 until 1908. In the latter part of 1908 the construction of the non-magnetic ship *Carnegie* was begun, and she was launched in June, 1900, beginning her first voyage in August of the same year. Her novel equipment and freedom from magnetism permit making precise magnetic observations at sea, a feat which heretofore has been attended with the greatest difficulty."—L. P. Ayres, *Seven great foundations*, pp. 34-37.—See also FOUNDATIONS: Carnegie Institution.

CARNEIAN FESTIVAL, a Spartan festival, said to have been instituted 676 B. C. "The Carneian festival fell in the Spartan month Carneius, the Athenian Metageitnon, corresponding nearly to our August. It was held in honour of Apollo Carneius, a deity worshipped from very ancient times in the Peloponnese, especially at Amyclæ. . . . It was of a warlike character, like the Athe-

nian Boedrömia."—G. Rawlinson, *Note to Herodotus*, bk. 7.

ALSO IN: E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 1.

CARNIANS, Alpine tribe. See RHÆTIA.

CARNIFEX FERRY, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1861 (August-December: West Virginia).

CARNIOLA, formerly a crown-land of Austria, north-east of Trieste and Istria. During the Roman empire, it was a part of Noricum and Pannonia, and was colonized by the Slovenes at the end of the sixth century. After 1282 it belonged to the house of Hapsburg (see AUSTRIA: 1240-1282; Map showing Hapsburg possessions), except during the period (1809-1813) when it formed part of the Illyrian provinces under Napoleon (see GERMANY: 1809; July-September). By the Treaty of St. Germain Austria was obliged to relinquish this territory, whose population is predominantly Slovene, and it now forms a part of Jugo-Slavia.—See also BALKAN STATES: Map showing distribution of nationalities; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1918.

CARNOT, Lazare Nicholas Marguerite (1753-1823), French statesman, strategist and geometer. In 1791 deputy to the legislative assembly; 1792 deputy to the Convention, voting for the execution of Louis XVI; 1793 member of the committee of public safety; 1793-1795, in charge of the organization and direction of the armies, called the "organizer of victory"; 1795, president of the Convention; 1795, member of the directory and twice its president. On account of the *coup d'état* of Fructidor, 1797, fled to Switzerland, then to Germany; 1800-1801, minister of war; 1802-1807, tribune. Too ardent a republican to fight in the Napoleonic wars of aggression, he won distinction in the defense of Antwerp, 1814; Napoleon's minister of interior during the Hundred Days; proscribed by Louis XVIII, he lived in Magdeburg. He was author of treatises on mathematics and military strategy.—See also FRANCE: 1793 (June-October); 1793 (July-December); 1793 (October): Battle of Wattignies; 1794 (March-July); 1794 (June-July): French victory at Fleurus; 1794-1795 (July-April); 1795 (June-December); 1795 (October-December); 1797 (September); MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 26.

CARNOT, Marie François Sadi (1837-1894), fourth president of the third French republic. In 1871, member of National Assembly; 1876, member of Chamber of Deputies; 1878, secretary to minister of public works; 1880, minister of public works; 1883-1884, vice-president of the chamber; 1885, minister of finance; following the resignation of Jules Grévy, became president for seven critical years, 1887-1894; assassinated at Lyons by Santo Césario, an Italian anarchist. See ANARCHISM: 1894 (June 24); FRANCE: 1875-1889; 1894-1895.

CARNOT DOCK. See CALAIS: 1875-1911.

CARNUTES, a tribe who occupied a region supposed to be the center of Gaul. The modern city of Chartres stands in the midst of it.—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 3, ch. 22.—See also VENETI of WESTERN GAUL.

CAROL I, king of Rumania. See CHARLES I, king of Rumania.

Carol, crown prince of Rumania. See CHARLES, crown prince of Rumania.

CAROLINA, Founding of. See U. S. A.: 1607-1752.

1669-1693.—Government.—Fundamental constitutions. See NORTH CAROLINA: 1660-1693.

Grants. See AMERICA: 1629; NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

CAROLINAS. See NORTH CAROLINA; SOUTH CAROLINA.

CAROLINE, Amelia Elizabeth (1768-1821), queen of George IV of England. Her trial and death. See ENGLAND: 1820-1827.

CAROLINE, a small American vessel destroyed by the Canadians in December, 1837, off Grand Island, almost causing serious trouble between Great Britain and the United States. See CANADA: 1837-1838; 1840-1841.

CAROLINE, Fort: Captured by the Spaniards. See FLORIDA: 1565.

CAROLINE BOOKS, a work put forth by Charlemagne against image-worship.

CAROLINE ISLANDS, an extensive group of small islands in the Pacific, lying southeastwardly from the Philippines, were first called the New Philippines, but afterwards named the Carolines, in honor of Charles II of Spain. The islets are some 500 in number, but their total population is only 20,000 or 30,000, mostly contained in the three larger islands, Ruk, or Rouk, Ponape, and Yap, or Guap. That some of them were once inhabited by a race capable of great works is shown by the existence of ruins, constructed of enormous basalt blocks. The existing natives are Polynesian. The Carolines were discovered by the Portuguese, in 1527. Their possession was long in dispute between Spain and Germany, but settled, by papal arbitration, in favor of the former, in 1885.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Map of the World.

1899-1920.—Sale by Spain to Germany.—By a treaty concluded in February, 1890, the Caroline Islands, the Western Carolines or Pelew Islands, and the Marianne or Ladrone Islands (excepting Guam), were sold by Spain to Germany for 25,000,000 pesetas—the peseta being equivalent to a fraction less than twenty cents. Spain reserved the right to establish and maintain naval and mercantile stations in the islands, and to retain them in case of war. Spanish trade and privileges for the Spanish religious orders are guaranteed against interference. As a result of the World War these groups of islands were placed under the control of Japan as "mandatory."—See also WORLD WAR: 1914; VII. German Pacific islands; YAP.

CAROLINGIANS, or Carolingians, dynasty of Frankish kings. See FRANCE: 9th century, and 877-987; FRANKS: 768-814; GERMANY: 481-768; SWITZERLAND: 536-843.

CARP, Petrahe (1837-), Rumanian statesman. Took part in the overthrow of Cuza; after ascent of Prince Charles, entered diplomatic service; 1870-1876, minister of foreign affairs; 1892-1895, minister of commerce, agriculture, and domains; 1900-1901, premier and minister of finance; 1911-1912, premier. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 3.

CARPATHIANS, a great mountain mass, in Central Europe. "Though they curve far away round the Hungarian plain, the Carpathians return to the river [Danube] again, below its final turn eastwards."—H. B. George, *Relations of history and geography*, p. 251.—The mountains and their passes have had a strong influence on European history. "The wall of the Carpathians, bulwark of the Central Europe, split the westward moving Slav hordes in the 6th century, diverting one southward up the Danube Valley to the Eastern Alps, and turning one northward along the German lowlands."—E. C. Semple, *Influences of geographic environment*, p. 532.—In the last years of the ninth century the Magyars made their way through the Vereczka pass into the country drained by the Upper Theiss, and founded the kingdom of

Hungary. In 1914 the Russian armies invaded Hungary through the Carpathian passes. Those in the eastern Carpathians leading from Galicia and Bukovina, such as the Dukia, Rostoki, Uszok, Jablonitza, Borgo and other passes were seized and temporarily held by the Russians in the World War. The Rumanians invading Transylvania used the passes farther south, such as the Roterturm. The Germans, in turn, attacking Rumania, used the Vulcan, Roterturm and other passes.—See also WORLD WAR: 1915: III. Eastern front: a, 1; c, e.

CARPENTER, Alfred Francis Blakeney, British captain, commander on cruiser *Vindictive* in attack on Zeebrugge. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IX. Naval operations: a, 1.

CARPENTER, Daniel (1815-1866), American police inspector, active in New York draft riots. See NEW YORK CITY: 1863.

CARPET-BAGGERS, term applied to those northerners who went to exploit the South after the Civil War, particularly political adventurers who used the Negro vote for personal gain. See BLACK AND TAN CONVENTION; KU KLUX KLAN; LOUISIANA: 1865-1867; 1874-1877; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: United States: 1864-1921.

CARPINI, Giovanni Piano (c. 1200), Franciscan monk. See HUNGARY: Origin of Hungarians.

CARPOCRATIANS, a sect combining Platonic principles with Christian ideals; founded by Carpocrates, an Alexandrian Gnostic in the second century.

ALSO IN: *New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia*, v. 2, p. 423.

CARR, Sir Robert (d. 1667), commissioner sent from England to settle disputes in America. See DELAWARE: 1664.

CARR DIKE, a Roman work in Britain, formed for the draining of the Lincolnshire Fens, and used, also, as a road.—H. M. Scarth, *Roman Britain*, ch. 16.

CARRACKS, or Caracs, "a large species of merchant vessel, principally used in coasting trade," among the Spaniards of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries.—W. Irving, *Life and voyages of Christopher Columbus*, v. 1, bk. 6, ch. 1, foot-note.—See also CARAVELS.

CARRANZA, Venustiano (1850-1920), Mexican revolutionist and president. Took part in a local revolt in Coahuila in 1893; served as member of state legislature, federal senator, and governor of state; supported the Madero revolution; secretary of war in Madero's provisional cabinet; after the death of the latter in 1913 became the leader of the Constitutionalists; in 1915 his government was recognized as the *de facto* government of Mexico; his election as president took place in 1917; he was treacherously murdered in 1920, by followers of General Herrera, while in flight from Mexico City.—See also MEXICO: 1913-1914; 1914-1915; 1916-1917; 1918; 1920 (April-May); 1920 (May); U. S. A.: 1914 (April): Mexican situation; 1914 (April): Occupation of Vera Cruz; 1915 (August-October); 1916 (March); ABC CONFERENCE: Mediation.

CARRARA FAMILY: Rise to sovereignty at Padua and struggle with the Visconti of Milan. See VERONA: 1260-1338, and MILAN: 1277-1447.

CARREL, Alexis (1873-), American surgeon. In 1905 came from France and at once attracted attention by his research work; in 1909 became attached to the Rockefeller Institution; in 1912 received Nobel prize for medicine; wrote many works on the details of advanced surgery, especially that of blood vessels and the transplantation of organs and tissues (see MEDICAL

SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Advance in surgical method); accomplished remarkable feats in treating wounded in the World War.—See also NOBEL PRIZES: Medicine: 1912.

CARREL-DAKIN TREATMENT OF WOUNDS. See SCIENCE: 20th century: Medicine; MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 1914-1918: War medicine and surgery.

CARRERA, Martin, Mexican general elected acting president August 15, 1855. See MEXICO: 1848-1861.

CARRERA, Rafael (1815-1865), Guatemalan revolutionist. Joined revolt against Federal party of Central America (1837); became commander of Guatemalan insurgents; president of Guatemala, 1844-1848, and 1852; made president for life and practically dictator (1854-1865).—See also CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871.

CARRHÆ, town in Mesopotamia. See HARAN. B. C. 53.—Battle of. See ROME: B. C. 57-52.

A. D. 297.—Defeat of Galerius. See PERSIA: 226-627.

CARRICK'S FORD, Battle of. See U. S. A. 1861 (June-July).

CARRIER, Jean Baptiste (1756-1794), a leader in the French Revolution, one of the most noted of the terrorists; in 1792, elected to the National Convention; sent into Flanders as a commissioner. The next year he became a member of the Revolutionary Tribunal, which he was influential in establishing, and was one of the judges who voted for the death of Louis XVI, and of the Duke of Orleans, "Philippe Egalité." In 1793, after the overthrow of the Girondins, in which he was especially active, was sent to Nantes where he established the Reign of Terror, and made himself notorious by resort to "fusillades" and "noyades," to clear the prisons. It is not known how many died by these means. In 1794 he was arrested by order of the Revolutionary Tribunal in Paris, and sent to the Guillotine.

ALSO IN: H. M. Stephens, *History of the French Revolution*, v. 2, pp. 386-391.—Comte Fleury, *Carrier à Nantes*.

CARRINGTON, Henry Beebe (1824-1912), American colonel and military historian. See WYOMING: 1866 (June-December).

CARRIZAL, Battle of. See MEXICO: 1916-1917; U. S. A.: 1916 (March).

CARRIZO INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America; Southeastern area.

CARROCCIO.—"The militia of every city [in Lombardy, or northern Italy, eleventh and twelfth centuries] was divided into separate bodies, according to local partitions, each led by a Gonfaloniere, or standard-bearer. They fought on foot, and assembled round the carroccio, a heavy car drawn by oxen, and covered with the flags and armorial bearings of the city. A high pole rose in the middle of this car, bearing the colours and a Christ, which seemed to bless the army, with both arms extended. A priest said daily mass at an altar placed in the front of the car. The trumpeters of the community, seated on the back part, sounded the charge and the retreat. It was Heribert, archbishop of Milan, contemporary of Conrad the Salic, who invented this car in imitation of the ark of alliance, and caused it to be adopted at Milan. All the free cities of Italy followed the example: this sacred car, intrusted to the guardianship of the militia, gave them weight and confidence."—J. C. L. de Sismondi, *History of the Italian republics*, ch. 1.

CARROLL, Charles, of Carrollton, (1737-1832), American patriot. Member of Colonial Commis-

sion to persuade Canadians to join in war against England 1776; member of Congress 1776; signed Declaration of Independence August 2, 1776; member of commission which drafted Maryland constitution 1776; member of state senate 1777-1800; returned to Congress 1777; United States senator 1789-1792; member of Maryland-Virginia boundary commission 1799; last survivor of the fifty-six signers of the Declaration of Independence.—See also U. S. A.: 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence.

CARSO or Karst plateau, a large mountainous formation near the head of the Adriatic sea; the scene of an offensive which the Italians started in May, 1917, but which was stemmed by the superior Austro-German drive of October, 1917.—See WORLD WAR: 1916; IV. Austro-Italian front: c; 1917: IV. Austro-Italian front: a, 3; a, 4.

CARSON, Christopher, known as "Kit Carson" (1809-1868), American hunter, trapper, and scout. In 1826-1830, took part in hunting and trapping expeditions to New Mexico, California, and the Rocky Mountains; 1832-1840, hunter for garrison at Fort Bent; 1842-1844, 1846-1847; accompanied Fremont on western expeditions; 1854, appointed Indian agent at Taos, New Mexico; 1861-1865, served the government in the Civil War, especially against the Confederates in Texas and the Navajo Indians (see INDIANS: AMERICAN: 1860-1865); 1865, brevetted brigadier general.

CARSON, Edward Henry, 1st Baron (b. 1854), British statesman, Ulster leader. In 1892 he was solicitor-general for Ireland; 1900-1906, solicitor-general for England; active in parliament on the side of the crown during the land troubles; 1912-1913, leader of Ulster resistance to the home rule bill for Ireland; 1913, head of executive committee of the provisional government for Ulster; 1915, attorney-general; 1917, first lord of the admiralty; 1917-1918, member of war cabinet without portfolio. See IRELAND: 1918 (March 6).

CARSTENS, Asmus (1754-1798), German painter and engraver. See PAINTING: Europe: 19th century.

CART WAR (1857). See TEXAS: 1850-1861: Troubles with Indians and Mexicans.

CARTAGENA, Carthage or New Carthage, city of southeastern Spain, province of Murcia. Cartagena was a prosperous city under the Romans, who made it a colony and called it Colonia Viatrix Julia Nova Carthago. "It stands about half-way down the coast of Iberia in a gulf which faces south-west, running about twenty stades [stade, or furlong, equals about 220 yards] inland, and about 10 stades broad at its entrance. The whole gulf is made a harbour by the fact that an island lies at its mouth and thus makes the entrance channels on each side of it exceedingly narrow. . . . In the recess of the gulf a mountain juts out in the form of a chersonese [peninsula], and it is on this mountain that the city stands, surrounded by the sea on the east and south, and on the west by a lagoon extending so far northward that the remaining space to the sea on the other side, to connect it with the continent, is not more than two stades. The city itself has a deep depression in its centre, presenting on its south side a level approach from the sea; while the rest of it is hemmed in by hills, two of them mountainous and rough, three others much lower, but rocky and difficult of ascent; the largest of which lies on the east of the town running out into the sea, on which stands a temple of Asclepius. Exactly opposite this lies the western mountain in a closely corresponding position, on which a palace had been erected at great cost,

which it is said was built by Hasdrubal when he was aiming at establishing royal power. . . . The lagoon has been connected with the adjoining sea artificially for the sake of the maritime folk; and over the channel thus cut between it and the coast a bridge has been built, for beasts of burden and carts to bring in provisions from the country."—*Histories of Polybius, bk. x, ch. 10.*

Commercial and naval importance.—Population.—"The naval port of Cartagena owes its importance primarily to its splendid harbour, but recently mining has added to its prosperity."—H. R. Mill, *International geography, p. 377.*—"The discovery of the rich lead and silver mines near the town contributed much towards its prosperity. Successive Spanish governments have attempted to restore to Cartagena its ancient strategical importance. They have constructed docks and arsenals, and erected impregnable fortifications, but, in spite of this, the population of the town is hardly a third of what it was in the middle of the eighteenth century. The character of its commerce is almost local, notwithstanding its excellent post, and esparto grass, mats, fruits, and ore constitute the leading articles of export."—E. Reclus, *Universal geography, v. 1, p. 422.*—Cartagena's population was stated by the 1910 census to be 102,542. It has a fortress, repair docks and works, and a wireless telegraphic station.

B. C. 299-221.—Founding of the city by the Carthaginians.—"Hasdrubal, son-in-law and successor of Hamilcar Barca in Spain, founded New Carthage—modern Cartagena—sometime between 299 and 221 B. C. to be the capital of the Carthaginian dominion in the Spanish peninsula."—R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians, ch. 9.*

Also IX: U. R. Burke, *History of Spain, v. 1, p. 10.*

B. C.—210.—City stormed and taken by Publius Scipio.—Roman rule.—"The Romans, meanwhile, renewed the war in Spain where the youthful Publius Cornelius Scipio . . . had been placed in command. By reckless daring and good fortune rather than by military skill, Scipio won several battles and captured the great city of Cartagena."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain, p. 13.*—See also PUNIC WARS: Second.

Also IX: U. R. Burke, *History of Spain, v. 1, pp. 12-13.*—*Histories of Polybius, bk. x, ch. 11-15.*

409-713.—Taken by the Vandals and Alans.—Occupation of the Visigoths.—"In the opening years of the fifth century the Vandals, who had been in more or less hostile contact with the Romans during more than two centuries, left their homes within modern Hungary. . . . With them went the Alans, and a little later a group of the Suevians joined them. They invaded the region of what is now France, and after devastating it for several years, passed into Spain in the year 400. There seems to have been no effective resistance, whereupon the conquerors divided the land giving the southern country from Portugal to Cartagena to the Alans and another group of Vandals."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain, pp. 26-27.*—The Visigoths of later invasions conquered the Alans and so reduced the power of the Vandals that they migrated anew in 420. See SPAIN: 409-414.

711-1276.—Captured by the Saracens.—Became an independent kingdom.—Destroyed by Ferdinand II of Castile.—Returned to the Moors.—Conquered by James I of Aragon.—Early in the eighth century Cartagena was taken by the Saracens, under whom it became an independent principality. It was destroyed by Ferdi-

nand II of Castile (1243) and restored to the Moors, who retained it until 1276 when it was finally conquered by James I of Aragon.

1873-1874.—Cartagena proclaimed an independent cantonal government.—Besieged and taken by the Spanish.—In the political struggles of the nineteenth century Cartagena played an unimportant part until 1873 when it proclaimed an independent cantonal government. "Cartagena, one of the most violent, proved the most stubborn of the revolting cities. The soldiers fraternized with the mob; a deputy and a general, Contreras, led them. The forts and artillery depôt fell into their hands, with several hundred cannon. The armour-clad squadron joined them, increasing their power for harm and making them safe on the seaside. Closely watched by British ships of war, the ironclads, manned by undisciplined desperadoes, steamed up and down the coast spreading the doctrines of the Revolution. . . . When Castelar took office (Sept. 8, 1873), the history of the Republic was already a long and bloody one. . . . In Cartagena the powers of disorder had run a wilder riot even than in Málaga [Málaga and Cartagena were the two chief centres of agitation.] The convicts released by the mob were more reckless and fiercer than their liberators. Their resistance, too, was more determined, for to them defeat meant exile or return to gaol. Before Castelar became President, their means of doing harm had been curtailed by the loss of the greater part of the squadron. After terrorizing the neighbouring coast towns, bombarding and levying blackmail under the eyes of the commanders of the foreign squadrons, the Federal ships had been declared pirates by the Republican government. Thereupon the British fleet, acting as police of the seas, took possession of them and brought them to Gibraltar after turning their crews of desperadoes ashore. Still Cartagena remained obstinate, trusting to the great strength of her fortifications and the abundance of cannon and warlike stores. Contreras, general of the canton, actually ventured as far as the bridge of Chinchilla and defeated the feeble force sent against him by Pi y Margall. Salmeron sent General Martinez Campos, who early in August had delivered Valencia from the mob. But with only two thousand troops and a few mortars he was unable to undertake anything more than preliminary siege works. These had no effect, for the rebels had the open sea behind them and still retained some frigates. Castelar collected a stronger body of troops, properly equipped and provided with cannon. General Lopez Dominquez, its commander, was greatly favoured by chance. The rebel ship *Tetuan* was accidentally burned; the artillery posts blew up; the ironclads restored by the British Government took part in the blockade; and Cartagena surrendered (Jan. 13, 1874) after a tremendous bombardment."—H. B. Clarke, *Modern Spain (1815-1808), pp. 342, 347, 348.*

CARTAGENA, South America, the capital of Bolivar, Colombia, founded by Pedro de Heredia in 1533. Eleven years later the town suffered severely from an attack by pirates, and in 1585 it was forced to pay a large ransom to Sir Francis Drake.

1697.—Taken and sacked by the French.—One of the last enterprises of the French in the war which was closed by the Peace of Ryswick—undertaken, in fact, while the negotiations at Ryswick were in progress—was the storming and sacking of Cartagena by a privateer squadron, from Brest, commanded by Rear Admiral Pointis, April, 1697. "The inhabitants were allowed to carry

away their effects; but all the gold, silver, and precious stones were the prey of the conqueror. Pointis . . . reëntered Brest safe and sound, bringing back to his ship-owners more than ten millions. The officers of the squadron and the privateers had well provided for themselves besides, and the Spaniards had probably lost more than twenty millions."—H. Martin, *History of France: Age of Louis XIV.* (tr. by M. L. Booth), v. 2, ch. 2.

1741.—Attack and repulse of the English. See ENGLAND: 1739-1741.

1815.—Siege and capture by the Spaniards. See COLOMBIA: 1810-1819.

CARTAGO, a town about fourteen miles southeast of San José, in Costa Rica, Central America. Its estimated population in 1918 was 48,080.

Institution of the Central American court of justice.—Gift of a building by Andrew Carnegie. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1908.

CARTELS.—"German captains of industry did not build up trusts in the American sense, but by a system of 'cartels' and syndicates nearly the whole of German industry was organized for the purpose of fixing prices, limiting production, dividing the field of sale and distributing goods, so that the results were practically the same as if the capital of the various concerns were pooled. Especially in coal and iron mining and in the steel industry the process of syndicating went to the point where the trade was absolutely controlled and the middle-man practically eliminated. The great generation of organizers who built up this system of cartels and syndicates is still in the saddle. The history of German industry is as yet too brief for the first group of creative spirits to have passed away,—the men who to a considerable extent resemble in energy and will power and executive ability the generation of Americans who after the war between the states laid the foundation of our steel and iron industries and built the railways from coast to coast. More and more industrial power became centered in the hands of a small group of men.

"At the beginning of the new century three banks had become practically supreme in German financial affairs. It was estimated in 1906 by conservative economists that the threads of the big business of the entire empire passed through the fingers of not more than fifty men. The whole Rhine-Westphalian system of collieries by 1907 was under the control of six capitalists. It is perfectly patent that even a government in which the monarchical principle plays so large a part could not escape the influence of business men like these. Business and politics find themselves as necessarily allied in Germany as in other lands. . . . The influence of such men [self-made capitalists] on politics has been exerted independently of party. Large capitalists organize political influence, not political parties; and big business in Germany as in America has found it possible to remain on good terms with nearly all the political factions. Indeed its direct influence on government has made it to a certain extent independent of the political game. Its restraining hand has not been used with the brutal openness with which the feudal agrarian interests are accustomed to exert pressure, but it has made itself felt sharply enough. The results of this restraint on government have shown themselves in many ways: in the repeated refusal of the Prussian ministry to bring in a measure fixing a ten-hour day of labor on government work, although on certain kinds of public works an eight-hour day was already in operation; in the refusal of the imperial ministry to lower the age limit for invalidity in the revision of the old age pen-

sion bill in 1911, and a similar refusal to extend the period of enforced rest for lying-in women.

"In these and similar cases the ministers recognize the justice of the demands of labor, but as Count Posadowsky, the able Prussian Minister of the Interior, declared in 1906, they were 'unwilling to add to the burdens of industry.' There is no doubt that the gifted Silesian aristocrat spoke in perfectly good faith, for he more fully perhaps than any of his colleagues understood the demands of labor; nevertheless, it may safely be said that the need which the government felt of the full support of the great industrialists in the struggle against the Social Democracy was the chief reason why it did not find it expedient to grant these reasonable demands."—R. H. Fife, Jr., *German Empire between two wars*, pp. 162-164.—See also CAPITALISM: 19th-20th centuries; GERMANY: 1919-1920; Question of socialization of industries.

CARTERET, Sir George (c. 1610-1680), English Royalist and proprietor of New Jersey, who received also grant of land in Carolina. See NEW JERSEY: 1664-1667; NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

CARTERET, John, Earl Granville. See GRANVILLE, JOHN CARTERET.

CARTHAGE, Founding of.—Ethbaal, or Ithobaal, a priest of Astarte, acquired possession of the throne of Tyre 917 B. C., deposing and putting to death the legitimate prince, a descendant of Hiram, Solomon's ally and friend. The Jezebel of Jewish history, who married Ahab, king of Israel, was the daughter of this king Ethbaal. "Ethbaal was succeeded by his son Balezor (885-877 B. C.). After eight years Balezor left two sons, Mutton and Sicharbaal, both under age. . . . Mutton died in the year 853 B. C. and again left a son nine years old, Pygmalion, and a daughter, Elissa, a few years older, whom he had married to his brother Sicharbaal, the priest of the temple of Melkarth. Mutton had intended that Elissa and Pygmalion should reign together, and thus the power really passed into the hands of Sicharbaal, the husband of Elissa. When Pygmalion reached his sixteenth year the people transferred to him the sovereignty of Tyre, and he put Sicharbaal, his uncle, to death . . . (846 B. C.). Elissa [or Dido, as she was also called] fled from Tyre before her brother, as we are told, with others who would not submit to the tyranny of Pygmalion. The exiles . . . are said . . . to have landed on the coast of Africa, in the neighbourhood of Ityke, the old colony of the Phenicians, and there to have bought as much land of the Libyans as could be covered by the skin of an ox. By dividing this into very thin strips they obtained a piece of land sufficient to enable them to build a fortress. This new dwelling-place, or the city which grew up round this fortress, the wanderers called, in reference to their old home, Karthada (Karta badasha), i. e., 'the new city,' the Karchedon of the Greeks, the Carthage of the Romans. The legend of the purchase of the soil may have arisen from the fact that the settlers for a long time paid tribute to the ancient population, the Maxyans, for their soil."—M. Duncker, *History of antiquity*, bk. 3, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: J. Kenrick, *Phoenicia: History*, ch. 1.

Divisions, size and population.—"The city proper, at the time at which it is best known to us, the period of the Punic wars, consisted of the Byrsa or Citadel quarter, a Greek word corrupted from the Canaanitish Bozra, or Bostra, that is, a fort, and of the Cothon or harbour quarter, so important in the history of the final siege. To the north and west of these, and occupying all

the vast space between them and the isthmus behind, were the Megara (Hebrew, Magurim), that is, the suburbs and gardens of Carthage, which, with the city proper, covered an area of 23 miles in circumference. Its population must have been fully proportioned to its size. Just before the third Punic war, when its strength had been drained . . . it contained 700,000 inhabitants."—R. B. Smith. *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 1.—See also TUNIS.

Industries and resources. See COMMERCE: Ancient: Phoenicians and Carthaginians.

Dominions.—"All our positive information, scanty as it is, about Carthage and her institutions, relates to the fourth, third, or second centuries B. C.; yet it may be held to justify presumptive conclusions as to the fifth century B. C., especially in reference to the general system pursued. The maximum of her power was attained before her first war with Rome, which began in 264 B. C.; the first and second Punic wars both of them greatly reduced her strength and dominion. Yet in spite of such reduction we learn that about 150 B. C. shortly before the third Punic war, which ended in the capture and depopulation of the city, not less than 700,000 souls were computed in it, as occupants of a fortified circumference of above twenty miles, covering a peninsula with its isthmus. Upon this isthmus its citadel Byrsa was situated, surrounded by a triple wall of its own, and crowned at its summit by a magnificent temple of Æsculapius. The numerous population is the more remarkable, since Utica (a considerable city, colonized from Phœnicia more anciently than even Carthage itself, and always independent of the Carthaginians, though in the condition of an inferior and discontented ally) was within the distance of seven miles from Carthage on the one side, and Tunis seemingly not much further off on the other. Even at that time, too, the Carthaginians are said to have possessed 300 tributary cities in Libya. [See COLONIZATION: Greek, Roman and Phœnician.] Yet this was but a small fraction of the prodigious empire which had belonged to them certainly in the fourth century B. C. and in all probability also between 480-410 B. C. That empire extended eastward as far as the Altars of the Philæni, near the Great Syrtis,—westward, all along the coast to the Pillars of Herakles and the western coast of Morocco. The line of coast southeast of Carthage, as far as the bay called the Lesser Syrtis, was proverbial (under the name of Byzacium and the Emporia) for its fertility. Along this extensive line were distributed indigenous Libyan tribes, living by agriculture; and a mixed population called Liby-Phœnician. . . . Of the Liby-Phœnician towns the number is not known to us, but it must have been prodigiously great. . . . A few of the towns along the coast,—Hippo, Utica, Adrumetum, Thapsus, Leptis, &c.—were colonies from Tyre, like Carthage itself. . . . Yet the Carthaginians contrived in time to render every town tributary, with the exception of Utica. . . . At one time, immediately after the first Punic war, they took from the rural cultivators as much as one-half of their produce, and doubled at one stroke the tribute levied upon the towns. . . . The native Carthaginians, though encouraged by honorary marks to undertake . . . military service were generally averse to it, and sparingly employed. . . . A chosen division of 2,500 citizens, men of wealth and family, formed what was called the Sacred Band of Carthage distinguished for their bravery in the field as well as for the splendour of their arms, and the gold and silver plate which formed part of their baggage.

We shall find these citizen troops occasionally employed on service in Sicily: but most part of the Carthaginian army consists of Gauls, Iberians, Libyans, &c., a mingled host got together for the occasion, discordant in language as well as in customs."—G. Grote, *History of Greece*, pt. 2, ch. 81.—See also AFRICA: Ancient and medieval civilization: Carthaginian empire, Roman occupation; COMMERCE: Ancient: B. C. 1000-600.

B. C. 6th century.—Relation to Cadiz. See CADIZ: B. C. 6th century.

B. C. 480.—Invasion of Sicily.—Great defeat at Himera. See SICILY: B. C. 480.

B. C. 409-405.—Invasions of Sicily.—Destruction of Selinus, Himera and Agrigentum. See SICILY: B. C. 409-405.

B. C. 405-375.—Epidemics. See PLAGUE: B. C. 405-375.

B. C. 396.—Siege of Syracuse. See SYRACUSE: B. C. 397-396.

B. C. 393-391.—War against Syracuse. See SYRACUSE: B. C. 394-384.

B. C. 383.—War with Syracuse. See SICILY: B. C. 383.

B. C. 310-306.—Invasion by Agathocles. See SYRACUSE: B. C. 317-289.

B. C. 264-241.—First war with Rome.—Expulsion from Sicily.—Loss of maritime supremacy. See PUNIC WARS: First; ROME: Republic: B. C. 264-241.

B. C. 241-238.—Revolt of the mercenaries.—"At the close of the First Punic War, the veteran army of mercenaries with which Hamilcar Barca had maintained himself so long in Sicily—a motley gathering of Greeks, Ligurians, Gauls, Iberians, Libyans and others—was sent over to Carthage for the long arrears of pay due them and for their discharge. The party in power in Carthage, being both incapable and mean, and being also embarrassed by an empty treasury, exasperated this dangerous body of men by delays and by attempts at bargaining with them for a reduction of their claims, until a general mutiny was provoked. The mercenaries, 20,000 strong, with Spendius, a runaway Campanian slave, Matho, an African, and Autaritus, a Gaul, for their leaders, marched from the town of Sicca, where they were quartered, and camped near Tunis, threatening Carthage. The government became panic-stricken and took no measures which did not embolden the mutineers and increase their demands. All the oppressed African peoples in the Carthaginian domain rose to join the revolt, and poured into the hands of the mercenaries the tribute money which Carthage would have wrung from them. The latter was soon brought to a state of sore distress, without an army, without ships, and with its supplies of food mostly cut off. The neighboring cities of Utica and Hippo Zarytus were besieged. At length the Carthaginian government, controlled by a party hostile to Hamilcar, was obliged to call him to the command, but associated with him Hanno, his bitterest personal enemy and the most incompetent leader of the ruling faction. Hamilcar succeeded, after a desperate and long struggle, in destroying the mutineers to almost the last man, and in saving Carthage. But the war, which lasted more than three years (241-238 B. C.), was merciless and horrible beyond description. It was known to the ancients as the "Truceless War" and the "Inexpiable War." The scenes and circumstances of it have been extraordinarily pictured in Flaubert's "Salamambo," which is one of the most revolting but most powerful of historical romances.—R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 8.

ALSO IN: W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 4. B. C. 237-202.—Hamilcar in Spain.—Second war with Rome.—Hannibal in Italy and Sicily.—Scipio in Africa.—Great defeat at Zama.—Loss of naval dominion and of Spain. See PUNIC WARS: SECOND; ROME: 218-202.

B. C. 2nd century.—Military organization and development. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 7.

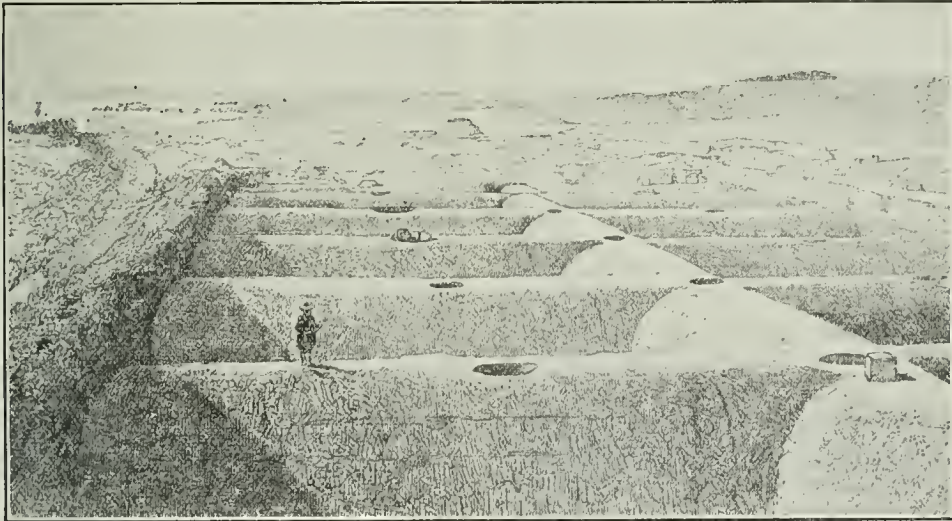
B. C. 149-146.—Siege of Carthage. See ROME: Republic: B. C. 149-146.

B. C. 146.—Destruction by Scipio.—“Carthage existed by Roman sufferance for fifty years after the ending of the Second Punic War, and even recovered some considerable prosperity in trade, though Rome took care that her chances for recovery should be slight. When Hannibal gave signs of being able to reform the government of the city and to distinguish himself in statesmanship as he had immortalized himself in war, Rome demanded him, and he escaped her chains only by flight. When, even without Hannibal, Carthage slowly repaired the broken fortunes of her mer-

ons, or engines or ships, until they made them anew, they shut their gates and kept the Roman armies out for more than two years. It was another Scipio, adopted grandson and namesake of the conqueror of Hannibal, who finally entered Carthage (146 B. C.), fought his way to its citadel, street by street, and, against his own wish, by command of the implacable senate at Rome, levelled its last building to the earth, after sending the inhabitants who survived to be sold as slaves.”—R. B. Smith, *Carthage and the Carthaginians*, ch. 20.

ALSO IN: H. G. Liddell, *History of Rome*, ch. 46

B. C. 44.—Restoration by Cæsar.—“A settlement named Junonia, had been made at Carthage by C. Gracchus [which furnished his enemies one of their weapons against him, because, they said, he had drawn on himself the curse of Scipio] and it appears that the city of Gracchus still existed. Cæsar restored the old name, and, as Strabo says, rebuilt the place: many Romans who preferred Carthage to Rome were sent there, and some sol-



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chants, there was an enemy at her door always ready, at the bidding of Rome, to plunder them afresh. This was Massinissa, the Numidian prince, client and obedient servant of the Roman state. Again and again the helpless Carthaginians appealed to Rome to protect them from his depredations, and finally they ventured to attempt the protection of themselves. Then the patient perfidy of Roman statecraft grasped its reward. It had waited many years for the provocations of Massinissa to work their effect; the maddened Carthaginians had broken, at last, the hard letter of the treaty of 201 by assailing the friend and ally of Rome. The pretext sufficed for a new declaration of war, with the fixed purpose of pressing it to the last extreme. Old Cato, who had been crying in the ears of the senate, ‘Carthago delenda est,’ should have his will. The doomed Carthaginians were kept in ignorance of the fate decreed, until they had been foully tricked into the surrender of their arms and the whole armament of their city. But when they knew the dreadful truth, they threw off all cowardice and rose to such a majesty of spirit as had never been exhibited in their history before. Without weap-

diars; and it is now, adds Strabo [reign of Augustus] more populous than any town in Libya.”—G. Long, *Decline of the Roman republic*, v. 5, ch. 32.

A. D. 2d-4th centuries.—Christian church. See CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church in Carthage.

439.—Taken by the Vandals.—Carthage was surprised and captured by the Vandals on October 9, 439,—nine years after the conquest and destruction of the African provinces by Genseric began;—585 years after the ancient Carthage was destroyed by Scipio. “A new city had risen from its ruins, with the title of a colony; and though Carthage might yield to the royal prerogatives of Constantinople, and perhaps to the trade of Alexandria or the splendour of Antioch, she still maintained the second rank in the West—as the Rome (if we may use the style of contemporaries) of the African world. . . . The buildings of Carthage were uniform and magnificent. A shady grove was planted in the midst of the capital; the new port, a secure and capacious harbour, was subservient to the commercial industry of citizens and strangers; and the splendid games of the circus and theatre were exhibited almost in the presence

of the barbarians. The reputation of the Carthaginians was not equal to that of their country, and the reproach of Punic faith still adhered to their subtle and faithless character. The habits of trade and the abuse of luxury had corrupted their manners. . . . The King of the Vandals severely reformed the vices of a voluptuous people. . . . The lands of the proconsular province, which formed the immediate district of Carthage, were accurately measured and divided among the barbarians."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 33.—See also VANDALS: 429-439.

533.—Taken by Belisarius. See VANDALS, 533-534.

534-558.—Province of Africa after Justinian's conquest.—"Successive inroads [of the Moorish tribes] had reduced the province of Africa to one-third of the measure of Italy; yet the Roman emperors continued to reign above a century over Carthage and the fruitful coast of the Mediterranean. But the victories and the losses of Justinian were alike pernicious to mankind; and such was the desolation of Africa that a stranger might wander whole days without meeting the face either of a friend or an enemy. The nation of the Vandals had disappeared. . . . Their numbers were infinitely surpassed by the number of the Moorish families extirpated in a relentless war; and the same destruction was retaliated on the Romans and their allies, who perished by the climate, their mutual quarrels, and the rage of the barbarians. When Procopius first landed [with Belisarius, 533] he admired the populousness of the cities and country, strenuously exercised in the labours of commerce and agriculture. In less than twenty years that busy scene was converted into a silent solitude; the wealthy citizens escaped to Sicily and Constantinople; and the secret historian has confidently affirmed that five millions of Africans were consumed by the wars and government of the Emperor Justinian."—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 43.

698.—Destruction by the Arabs.—"In the 77th year of the Hegira [698] . . . Abd'almalec [the caliph] sent Hossan Ibn Anno'man, at the head of 40,000 choice troops, to carry out the scheme of African conquest [which had languished for some years, during the civil wars among the Moslems]. That general pressed forward at once with his troops against the city of Carthage, which, though declined from its ancient might and glory, was still an important seaport, fortified with lofty walls, haughty towers and powerful bulwarks, and had a numerous garrison of Greeks and other Christians. Hossan proceeded according to the old Arab mode; beleaguering and reducing it by a long siege; he then assailed it by storm, scaled its lofty walls with ladders, and made himself master of the place. Many of the inhabitants fell by the edge of the sword; many escaped by sea to Sicily and Spain. The walls were then demolished; the city was given up to be plundered by the soldiery, the meanest of whom was enriched by booty. . . . The triumph of the Moslem host was suddenly interrupted. While they were reveling in the ravaged palaces of Carthage, a fleet appeared before the port; snapped the strong chain which guarded the entrance, and sailed into the harbor. It was a combined force of ships and troops from Constantinople and Sicily; reinforced by Goths from Spain; all under the command of the prefect John, a patrician general of great valor and experience. Hossan felt himself unable to cope with such a force; he withdrew, however, in good order, and conducted his troops

laden with spoils to Tripoli and Caerwan, and, having strongly posted them, he awaited reinforcements from the Caliph. These arrived in course of time by sea and land. Hossan again took the field; encountered the prefect John, not far from Utica, defeated him in a pitched battle and drove him to embark the wrecks of his army and make all sail for Constantinople. Carthage was again assailed by the victors, and now its desolation was complete, for the vengeance of the Moslems gave that majestic city to the flames. A heap of ruins and the remains of a noble aqueduct are all the relics of a metropolis that once valiantly contended for dominion with Rome."—W. Irving, *Mahomet and his successors*, v. 2, ch. 54.—See also CALIPHATE: 647-709.

ALSO IN: N. Davis, *Carthage and her remains*.
CARTHAGE, Mo., Battle of (1861). See U. S. A.: 1861 (July-September: Missouri).

CARTHAGENA (New Carthage). See CARTAGENA.

CARTHUSIAN ORDER: La Grande Chartreuse.—"St. Bruno, once a canon of St. Cuthbert's, at Cologne, and afterward chancellor of the metropolitan church of Rheims, followed by six companions, founded a monastery near Grenoble, amid the bleak and rugged mountains of the desert of Chartreuse (A.D. 1084). The rule given by St. Bruno to his disciples was founded upon that of St. Benedict, but with such modifications as almost to make of it a new and particular one. The Carthusians were very nearly akin to the monks of Vallis-Umbrosa and Camaldoli; they led the same kind of life—the cremital joined to the cenobitic. Each religious had his own cell, where he spent the week in solitude, and met the community only on Sunday. . . . Never, perhaps, had the monastic life surrounded itself with such rigors and holy austerities. . . . The religious were bound to a life-long silence, having renounced the world to hold converse with Heaven alone. Like the solitaries of Thebais they never eat meat, and their dress, as an additional penance, consisted only of a sack-cloth garment. Manual labors, broken only by the exercise of common prayer; a board on the bare earth for a couch; a narrow cell, where the religious twice a day receives his slight allowance of boiled herbs;—such is the life of pious austerities of which the world knows not the heavenly sweetness. For 800 years has this order continued to edify and to serve the Church by the practice of the most sublime virtue; and its very rigor seems to hold out a mysterious attraction to pious souls. A congregation of women has embraced the primitive rule."—J. E. Darras, *History of the Catholic church*, v. 3, ch. 4, par. 26, and ch. 10, par. 11.—From the account of a visit to the Grande Chartreuse, the parent monastery, near Grenoble, made in 1667, by Dom Claude Lancelot, of Port Royal, the following is taken: "All I had heard of this astonishing seclusion falls infinitely short of the reality. No adequate description can be given of the awful magnificence of this dreary solitude. . . . The desert of the Chartreuse is wholly inaccessible but by one exceedingly narrow defile. This pass, which is only a few feet wide, is indeed truly tremendous. It winds between stupendous granite rocks, which overhang above. . . . The monastery itself is as striking as the approach. . . . On the west . . . there is a little space which . . . is occupied by a dark grove of pine trees; on every other side the rocks, which are as steep as so many walls, are not more than ten yards from the convent. By this means a dim and gloomy twilight perpetually reigns within."—M. A.

Schimmelpenninck, *Tour to Alet and La Grande Chartreuse*, v. 1, pp. 6-13.—See also **ABBEY**: Architectural features; **MONASTERY**; **MONASTICISM**: 9th-13th centuries.

CARTIER, Jacques (1491-1557), French navigator. Explorer of the St. Lawrence. See **AMERICA**: 1534-1535; 1541-1603; and Map showing voyages of discovery.

CARTOUCHE.—"It is impossible to travel in Upper Egypt without knowing what is meant by a cartouche. A cartouche is that elongated oval terminated by a straight line which is to be seen on every wall of the Egyptian temples, and of which other monuments also afford us numerous examples. The cartouche always contains the name of a king or of a queen, or in some cases the names of royal princesses. To designate a king there are most frequently two cartouches side by side. The first is called the prænomen, the second the nomen."—A. Mariette-Bey, *Monuments of upper Egypt*, p. 43.

CARTWRIGHT, Edmund (1743-1823), English inventor of the power loom. See **COTTON**, INTRODUCTION OF; U. S. A.: 1793; Whitney's cotton gin.

CARTWRIGHT, Peter (1785-1872), American Methodist preacher and circuit-rider. He began to preach in 1804, and, as circuit rider and presiding elder, became known as a powerful and original preacher and a fearless pioneer. He was a member of the Illinois legislature, and an opponent of Lincoln in the Congressional election of 1846.

CARTWRIGHT, Sir Richard John (1835-1912), Canadian statesman. Originally a Conservative, in 1873 he became a Liberal, and a strong opponent of protection. He did much in behalf of improved commercial relations between the United States and Canada.

CARTWRIGHT, Thomas (c. 1535-1603), English divine, who strongly upheld Puritan doctrines, and did much to systematize the Puritan tenets.—See also **DISCIPLINARIANS**.

CARUCATE. See **BOVATE**; **HIDE OF LAND**.

CARUS, Roman emperor, 282-283. See **ROME**: Empire: 192-284; **PERSIA**: 226-627.

CARVER, John (1575-1621), first governor of Plymouth colony. See **INDEPENDENTS**: 1617-1620; **MASSACHUSETTS**: 1620.

CARVILIUS, school of, Rome. See **EDUCATION**: Ancient: B. C. 6th-A. D. 5th centuries.

CARVING, art of, Japan. See **EDUCATION, ART**: Modern period; Japan.

CARY, Lucius, Viscount Falkland. See **FALKLAND, LUCIUS CARY**.

CASA DE CONTRATACION DE LAS INDIAS or Council of Seville, an office established at Seville for the regulation of commerce with the Indies. The strict monopoly of American commerce maintained by it was one of the principal causes of complaint in the colonies. "By an ordinance dated at Alcalá, January 20th, 1503, it was provided that a board should be established, consisting of three functionaries, with the titles of treasurer, factor and comptroller. Their permanent residence was assigned in the old alcazar of Seville, where they were to meet every day for the despatch of business. The board was expected to make itself thoroughly acquainted with whatever concerned the colonies, and to afford the government all information that could be obtained affecting their interests and commercial prosperity. It was empowered to grant licenses under the regular conditions, to provide for the equipment of fleets, to determine their destination, and to furnish them with instructions on

sailing. All merchandise for exportation was to be deposited in the alcazar, where the return cargoes were to be received and contracts made for their sale. Similar authority was given to it over the trade with the Barbary coast and the Canary Islands. Its supervision was to extend in like manner over all vessels which might take their departure from the port of Cadiz, as well as from Seville. With these powers were combined others of a purely judicial character, authorizing it to take cognizance of questions arising out of particular voyages, and of the colonial trade in general. In this latter capacity it was to be assisted by the advice of two jurists, maintained by a regular salary from the government. Such were the extensive powers intrusted to the famous *Casa de Contratación*, or House of Trade, on this its first definite organization; and, although its authority was subsequently somewhat circumscribed by the appellate jurisdiction of the Council of the Indies, it has always continued the great organ by which the commercial transactions with the colonies have been conducted and controlled."—W. H. Prescott, *History of the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella*, v. 2, pp. 490-491.—"The school of nautical science of the *Casa de Contratación* of Seville merits special attention. Among the manifold functions of the *Casa* in its relation to the Americas was that of the pursuit of scientific studies to facilitate over-seas communication, and this was carried out to such an extent that the *Casa* was a veritable maritime university. Mathematics, cosmography, geography, cartography, navigation, the construction and use of nautical instruments, and military science (in so far as it related to artillery) were taught at the *Casa*, and in nearly all of these respects that institution not only outranked the others in Spain but was able also to add materially to the sum total of world knowledge."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 341.—See also **CADIZ**: 1718-1791.

CASA MATA, Battle of. See **MEXICO**: 1847 (March-September).

CASABLANCA or Dar el Baida, a seaport of Morocco founded by the Portuguese in 1468.

Bombardment by French and Spanish fleets.—Casablanca incident (September 15, 1908). See **MOROCCO**: 1907-1909.

French claims. See **MOROCCO**: 1909; **FRANCE**: 1906-1909; Presidency of Armand Fallières.

CASALE MONFERRATO, a fortress town of Piedmont, Italy.

1628-1631.—Siege by the Imperialists.—Final acquisition by France. See **ITALY**: 1627-1631.

1640.—Unsuccessful siege by the Spaniards. See **ITALY**: 1635-1659.

1697.—Ceded to the Duke of Savoy. See **SAVOY AND PIEDMONT**: 1580-1713.

CASALE TRIAL, Italy. See **CAMORRA**: 1860-1900.

CASALSECCO, Battle of (1427). See **ITALY**: 1412-1447.

CASAS, Bartolomé de las (1474-1566), Spanish missionary to America. See **MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN**: Latin America; **SLAVERY**: 1493-1542.

"CASE DEL SOLDATO," soldiers' clubs in Italy carrying on general welfare work among the soldiers during the World War. See **Y. M. C. A.**: World War activities: 1914-1919; Work in France.

CASEMENT, Sir Roger (1864-1916), Irish revolutionist leader. He was engaged in the British consular service from 1895 until 1913, when he was placed on the retired list, pensioned, and rewarded with a knighthood for meritorious service. He exposed the cruel treatment of the natives in the Congo State (see **BELGIAN CONGO**: 1903-1905)

and, as British consul at Rio de Janeiro, the Putumayo rubber atrocities in Peru (see PERU: 1912-1913). In April, 1916, he was captured in Ireland shortly after landing from a German submarine; charged with treason, he was found guilty, deprived of his honors and hanged.—See also IRELAND: 1913-1916; 1916; 1916 (June-August).

CASEY, James P., San Francisco politician who murdered James King. See CALIFORNIA: 1856.

CASH COINAGE, China. See MONEY AND BANKING: 20th century: China.

CASHEL, a city of Tipperary County, Ireland, southwest of Dublin. It is exceedingly unpretentious, and lies at the base of the Rock of Cashel, which is the chief object of interest. It is "a kind of natural citadel in the first place, commanding one of the richest districts in Ireland. Picture a rock, some three hundred feet high, with a couple of acres of surface on its flat top approached by the steepest ascents; and this rock dropped down among the pastures at the north of the Golden Vale. As soon as men conceived the ideal of fortification at all, it was inevitable that the strongest of them should possess themselves of this vantage-ground and secure their possession by encircling the summit with a girdle of roughly piled wall. Any fort so enclosed was a cashel; but this was the Cashel *par excellence*, and as early as we have any history, kings of Munster ruled here."—S. Gwynn, *Fair hills of Ireland*, p. 367.—But in 1101 the kingly power gave Cashel to the church for a religious center; there were archbishops of Cashel until 1839, when it was reduced to a bishopric. Here in 1172 Henry II received the homage of the Irish princes, including O'Brien, and called a synod. (See IRELAND: 1169-1175.) Cashel was stormed in the wars of 1647; it returned one member to parliament until 1870, when it was disfranchised for corrupt practices.

CASHEL, Psalter of. See TARA.

CASHGAR. See KASHGAR.

CASHMERE. See KASHMIR.

CASIMIR I, king of Poland, 1040-1058.

Casimir II, duke of Poland, 1177-1194.

Casimir III (called the Great), king of Poland, 1333-1370. See POLAND: 14th century.

Casimir IV, king of Poland, 1447-1492. See POLAND: 1333-1572.

CASIMIR, John, king of Poland, 1648-1668.

CASIMIR-PERIER, Jean Paul Pierre (1847-1907), fifth president of the third French republic. 1876, 1885, 1889, 1893; member of Chamber of Deputies; December, 1893-May, 1894, president of the council (premier); July 1, 1894, became president of France after the assassination of Carnot, resigning January 14, 1895.—See also FRANCE: 1894-1895.

CASKET GIRLS. See LOUISIANA: 1728.

CASKET LETTERS, a series of eight letters and a number of sonnets said to have been written by Mary Queen of Scots to the Earl of Bothwell. See SCOTLAND: 1561-1568.

CASPIAN GATES, or *Pylæ Caspiæ*, an important pass in the Elburz mountains, so called by the Greeks. It is identified with the pass known to the modern Persians as the Girduni Surdurrah, some fifty miles or more eastward, or northeastward, from Teheran. "Through this pass alone can armies proceed from Armenia, Media, or Persia eastward, or from Turkestan, Khorasan and Afghanistan into the more western parts of Asia. The position is therefore one of primary importance. It was to guard it that Rhages was built so near to the eastern end of its territory."—G. Rawlinson, *Sixth great oriental monarchy*, ch. 4.

ALSO IN: G. Rawlinson, *Five great monarchies: Media*, ch. 1.

CASPIAN REPUBLIC: Established 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b. 1.

CASPIAN SEA, the largest inland salt sea in the world, on the boundary between Europe and Asia. From north to south its length is about 680 miles; its breadth varies between 130 and 270 miles; total estimated area, 170,000 square miles. While the Caspian has no tides, it is frequently the scene of very violent storms. It is very shallow in the north—only 14 feet at a distance of ten miles from the shore, and 72 feet at a distance of 130 miles from the mouth of the Volga. Its greatest depth is, in the northern basin, where it reaches 2526 feet, and in the southern region it attains to over 3000 feet. The sea receives the waters of the Volga, Ural, Emba, Terek, Kura and Atrek. In ancient times the Oxus (Amu Daria) also flowed into it. Though salty, the water is by no means as briny as the ocean, and it contains a mass of fresh water (river) fish, principally the sturgeon and salmon, besides seals and tortoises. The Caspian is connected with the Baltic and White Sea by canals uniting the upper tributaries of the Volga with those of Lake Ladoga and the Duna. The chief towns on its shores are Astrakhan, Derbend, Baku and Krasnovodsk, besides Astrabad in Persia. The surrounding shores are nearly all within Russian territory, while the southern is Persian. Strabo refers to it as the "Hyrcanian Sea, which we also call the Caspian Sea." According to the same authority, "Eratosthenes says that the navigation of this sea was known to the [ancient] Greeks." "From the lower course of the Don to the Lake of Aral, all these low steppes that lie on both sides of the Volga and the Ural River form a peculiar region, the dried up bed of an ancient sea, of which the shores are quite distinguishable, and of which the vast salt lakes known as the Caspian and Aral Seas are the remnants. By a hydrographical freak which has exercised a considerable influence on the destinies of the Russian people, it is into one of these locked-up seas, decidedly Asiatic as they are, that the great artery of Russia, the Volga, debouches, after turning her back on Europe nearly from her very source."—A. Leroy-Beaulieu, *Empire of the tsars and the Russians*, v. 1, pp. 8-9.—The Caspian was first surveyed by order of Peter the Great. In 1715 he sent Artemius Volynsky as envoy to Persia, with special instructions to investigate from what quarters rivers ran into the Caspian, and whether there was not some river falling into it which came from India. Peter also began the canal system referred to above; about twenty miles were cut before his death; the rest was not completed till early in the nineteenth century, making a total length of communicating canals of only 455 miles. In 1711 it took Peter a week to sail the 200 miles from Astrakhan to the little bay of Agrakhan.

CASQUETS, a group of rocks in the English Channel. See CHANNEL ISLANDS.

CASS, Lewis (1782-1866), American statesman. Served in the War of 1812, rising to rank of brigadier-general; governor of Michigan territory 1813-1831; secretary of war 1831-1836, sided with Jackson in the nullification controversy with South Carolina, objected to the removal of the government deposits from the United States bank; minister to France 1836-1842; member of the United States Senate 1845-1848, 1849-1857, opposed the Wilmot Proviso, favored the Compromise of 1850, believed in "popular sovereignty" for slave territories; secretary of state 1857-1860; nominated for president, 1848, defeated by Zachary Taylor.

CASSANDER (c. B. C. 354-297), king of Macedonia. See GREECE: B. C. 321-312; MACEDONIA: B. C. 297-280.

CASSANDRA, a mythical personage, said to be the daughter of Hecuba and Priam, king of Troy. She obtained the spirit of prophecy from Apollo, but, on her refusal to carry out her promise to give herself to him, he made her power of no effect by discrediting her predictions. Therefore, her prophecy that Troy would fall was not believed and she, herself, was involved in its ruin. After the capture of the city, she fell to the lot of Agamemnon, and was murdered by Clytemnestra, his wife.

CASSANO, Battles of (1250 and 1705). See VERONA: 1236-1259; ITALY: 1701-1713.

1799.—French disaster. See FRANCE: 1799 (April-September).

CASSATION. Courts of. See COURTS: FRANCE: Modern courts; JAPAN: LAW COURTS.

CASSEL, or Kassel, city of Germany and capital of the province of Hesse-Nassau. Previous to its annexation by Prussia in 1866, it was capital of the electorate of Hesse-Cassel. During the Seven Years' War it was taken and held by the French.—See also GERMANY: 1758 (April-August), 1760.

CASSEL, Battles of (1328 and 1677). See FLANDERS: 1328; NETHERLANDS: 1674-1678.

CASSIAN ROAD, one of the great Roman roads of antiquity, which ran from Rome, by way of Sutrium and Clusium to Arretium and Florentia.—T. Mommsen, *History of Rome*, bk. 4, ch. 11.

CASSII, a tribe of ancient Britons whose territory was near the Thames. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CASSIN, United States destroyer torpedoed by a German submarine. See WORLD WAR: 1917: IX. Naval operations: c, 1.

CASSINI CONVENTION, alleged secret agreement between Russia and China, negotiated (1805) by Arthur Pavlovitch Cassini (1835-), a Russian diplomat, minister at Peking. It granted to Russia railway privileges and other rights in Manchuria. See CHINA: 1805.

CASSIODORUS, Flavius Magnus Aurelius (c. 490-585), Latin statesman and historian. See HISTORY: 19.

CASSITERIDES, the "tin islands," from which the Phœnicians and Carthaginians obtained their supply of tin. Some archæologists identify them with the British islands, some with the Scilly islands, and some with the islands in Vigo bay, on the coast of Spain.—C. Elton, *Origins of English history*.

ALSO IN: J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain*.

CASSIUS LONGINUS, Gaius (d. B. C. 42), Roman soldier and politician, a leader in the conspiracy against Cæsar. After Cæsar's assassination he left Italy for Syria and there raised an army of considerable size. In an engagement near Philippi he was defeated by Mark Antony.—See also ROME: Republic: B. C. 44: Assassination of Cæsar; B. C. 44-42.

CASSIVELAUNUS (c. B. C. 50), king in Britain.

B. C. 54.—Submits to Cæsar. See BRITAIN: B. C. 55-54.

CASTANOS, Francisco Xavier de (d. 1852), Spanish general. See SPAIN: 1808 (May-September).

CASTALIAN SPRING, a spring which issued from between two peaks or cliffs of Mount Parnassus and flowed downward in a cool stream past the temple of Apollo at Delphi.

CASTE SYSTEM: India.—"The institution of caste, to which the world cannot offer any close parallel, was of slow growth. The word is Portuguese; the thing is so peculiarly Indian that it separates India from the rest of the globe by a barrier far more impassable than deserts, seas, or mountains. More than two hundred millions of Hindus are now broken up into thousands of distinct communities, each of which is kept apart from its neighbours by strict rules regulating marriage, diet, and every detail of life. Nothing like this state of things exists, or is known ever to have existed elsewhere. The Rîgveda refers to the system only in one of the latest hymns, the *Parushasukta* . . . ; and even at the time of the rise of Buddhism, in the fifth century B. C., caste was 'still in the making.' But in the fourth century B. C. the Greek accounts show that the existing system was already established in parts of Northern India, although for many centuries afterwards inter-marriages between different castes were permitted which could not be thought of in these days. . . . The later Vedic literature and the Hindu law-books composed by Brahman authors teach that there are only four 'pure' castes: (1) Brahmans, the guardians and teachers of the sacred traditions; (2) Kshatriyas, the fighting and ruling classes; (3) Vaisyas, tradespeople and agriculturists; and (4) Sudras, all the common folk, who were not recognized as Aryans. The Brahmans are supposed to proceed from the mouth, the Kshatriyas from the arms, the Vaisyas from the thighs, and the Sudras from the feet of Brahma. [See RELIGION: B. C. 1000.] All castes which would not fit into this framework were described as 'mixed,' fanciful origins being assigned to them. This theoretical scheme certainly does not apply to the complex facts of caste at the present day, and apparently never agreed with the reality of things at any time. . . . The ascetic orders, whether orthodox Hindu, Jain, or Buddhist, usually have been and still are willing to admit to membership persons of almost any caste, and to ignore distinctions of birth among the brethren. Some writers erroneously have supposed Buddhism to have been a revolt against caste, but as a matter of fact the lay Buddhist retained his caste, just as the Jain layman does now. It is, however, true that the free offer of the way of salvation, made to all comers by both Buddhism and Jainism, clashed with the Brahman doctrine that the teaching of the highest truths should be reserved for the highest castes, and so far diminished the importance of caste distinctions. The origin of this peculiar Indian institution, so beneficial in some respects and so hurtful in others, has given rise to much discussion. The result of all the writing is not satisfactory, and Sir Herbert Risley, a leading authority on the subject, confesses that he finds the question an 'insoluble problem.'—V. A. Smith, *Oxford student's history of India*, pp. 34-36.—"The caste of each individual was determined by his birth; and he could not, during his lifetime, by any means whatever rise into one higher than the one into which he was born. For a Sudra to represent himself as of a higher caste was a mortal sin, meriting capital punishment. The legal status of each caste was absolutely different in every circumstance of life. The laws were indeed mainly framed for the protection of the three upper castes. The fourth caste and the out-castes appear to be considered only in so far as they contribute to the advantage of the superior castes; and the gulf which divided the legal status of the Brahmin from that of the Sudra was prodigious and monstrous. The life,

person, property, and women of the Brahmin were protected by the severest laws in this world, and the most tremendous denunciations for the next. He was exempt from corporal or capital punishment, even for the most enormous crimes. Indeed, if a Brahmin fulfilled his proper functions and was learned in the Veda, or assiduous in muttering to himself those sacred syllables whose mystical value equalled that of the whole of the Veda, he might commit any crime, even murder, with complete impunity. He was exempt from all taxation, and it was incumbent on all classes to maintain and enrich him, by large and liberal gifts on those ceremonial and sacrificial occasions which were of daily occurrence. The Sudra, on the other hand, was completely at the mercy of the higher castes. A mere shadow of legal protection, it is true, was afforded him so long as he remained virtuous; but as he lost every claim to virtue the moment that anything in or about him excited the anger, greed, or lust of a Brahmin, the protection was very ephemeral. He could amass no wealth, even if he had the power, lest he should become proud and give pain to Brahmins; and whatever he had could be taken from him by fraud or force on certain occasions. He was compelled to serve the upper castes without payment or reward. . . . But this prodigious inequality in the legal status of the castes was not all. I have said that a Brahmin might commit any crime against humanity, in his relations with Sudras, with impunity. But there were certain things he could *not* do to them without being very severely punished. He could not treat a Sudra as his equal; he could not do him any kindness or service—this is repeated and emphasized in several passages in the sacred books—even though the service were not menial in character; he could not tend or succour him if he were lying by the wayside sick or wounded unto death; he could not in any way interfere with the operation of caste law, and mitigate the evil which it might inflict on him; he could not sacrifice for him, or initiate him in the way of expiating offences, or teach him the sacred Vedas which absolved other men from their sins, and assured them happiness in the next world. All these acts of common humanity were the greatest crimes that the Brahmin could commit; and the punishment they entailed was the greatest that could be inflicted on him. If he behaved to a Sudra in this humane manner, or made him some return for his services by performing on his behalf those offices which were his own peculiar function in the economy of Hindoo society, he lost his caste in the present life, and was sent to hell in the next.”—E. N. Reichardt, *Significance of ancient religions*, pp. 51-54.—“The caste system of India is not based upon an exclusive descent as involving a difference of rank and culture, but upon an exclusive descent as involving purity of blood. In the old materialistic religion which prevailed so largely in the ancient world, and was closely associated with sexual ideas, the maintenance of purity of blood was regarded as a sacred duty. The individual had no existence independent of the family. Male or female, the individual was but a ‘ink in the life of the family; and any intermixture would be followed by the separation of the impure branch from the parent stem. In a word, caste was the religion of the sexes, and as such exists in India to this day. . . . The three first castes of priests, soldiers, and merchants, are distinguished from the fourth caste of Sudras by the thread, or paita, which is worn depending from the left shoulder and resting on the right side below the loins. The

investiture usually takes place between the eighth and twelfth year, and is known as the second birth, and those who are invested are termed the ‘twice born.’ It is difficult to say whether the thread indicates a separation between the conquerors and the conquered; or whether it originated in a religious investiture from which the Sudras were excluded.”—J. T. Wheeler, *History of India*, v. 3, pp. 114, 64.—“Among the delusions about modern India which it seems impossible to kill, the belief still survives that, although there have been many changes in the system of caste, it remains true that the Hindu population is divided into the four great classes described by Manu: Brahmans, Kshatriyas, Vaisyas, and Sudras. In India itself this notion is fostered by the more learned among the Brahmans, who love to make themselves and others believe in the continuous existence of a divinely constituted organization. To what extent the religious and social systems shadowed forth in the ancient Brahmanical literature had an actual existence it is difficult to say, but it is certain that little remains of them now. The Brahmans maintain their exceptional position; but no one can discern the other great castes which Manu described. Excluding the Brahmans, caste means for the most part hereditary occupation, but it also often signifies a common origin of tribe or race. India, in the words of Sir Henry Maine, is divided into a vast number of independent, self-acting, organised social groups—trading, manufacturing, cultivating. ‘In the enormous majority of instances, caste is only the name for a number of practices which are followed by each one of a multitude of groups of men, whether such a group be ancient and natural or modern and artificial. As a rule, every trade, every profession, every guild, every tribe, every class, is also a caste; and the members of a caste not only have their special objects of worship, selected from the Hindu Pantheon, or adopted into it, but they exclusively eat together, and exclusively intermarry.’ Mr. Kitts, in his interesting ‘Compendium of the Castes and Tribes of India,’ compiled from the Indian Census reports of 1881, enumerates 1929, different castes. Forty-seven of these have each more than 1,000,000 members; twenty-one have 2,000,000 and upwards. The Brahmans, Kunbis (agriculturists), and Chumars (workers in leather), are the only three castes each of which has more than 10,000,000; nearly 15 per cent. of the inhabitants of India are included in these three castes. The distinctions and subdivisions of caste are innumerable, and even the Brahmans, who have this in common, that they are revered by the members of all other castes, are as much divided among themselves as the rest. There are nearly 14,000,000 Brahmans; according to Mr. Sherring, in his work on ‘Hindu Tribes and Castes,’ there are more than 1,800 Brahmanical subdivisions; and it constantly happens that to a Brahman of some particular class or district the pollution of eating with other Brahmans would be ruinous. . . . The Brahmans have become so numerous that only a small proportion can be employed in sacerdotal functions, and the charity which it is a duty to bestow upon them could not, however profuse, be sufficient for their support. They are found in almost every occupation. They are soldiers, cultivators, traders, and servants; they were very numerous in the old Sepoy army, and the name of one of their subdivisions, Pande, became the generic term by which the mutineers of 1857 were commonly known by the English in India. . . . Mr. Ibbetson, in his report on the census in the Punjab, shows how completely it is true that caste is a

social and not a religious institution. Conversion to Mobammedanism, for instance, does not necessarily affect the caste of the convert."—J. Strachey, *India, lecture 8*.—See also ASIA: European influence on education, etc.; BRAHMANISM: Essential features; EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 15th-5th centuries: India; ETHICS: India; INDIA: People; LEISURE CLASS; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 4; RELIGION: B. C. 1000.

ALSO IN: M. Williams, *Religious thought and life in India, ch. 18*.—A. C. Lyall, *Asiatic studies, ch. 7*.—H. S. Maine, *Village communities, ch. 2*.

Japan. See JAPAN: Inhabitants and their origin.

Rome. See ROME: Ancient kingdom: Early character and civilization of Romans.

CASTEL, a town on the Rhine, opposite Mainz and linked with it by a magnificent bridge of five arches. See MOGONTIACUM.

CASTELAR Y RIPOLL, Emilio (1832-1890), Spanish statesman. Arrested for participating in revolutionary activity, tried and condemned to be hanged, but escaped to France (1866); returned to Spain and became republican leader (1868); on establishment of republic (1873) became minister of state; president of the executive (1873-1874); elected to Cortes (1876); finally became reconciled to monarchical form of government.—See also SPAIN: 1873-1874.

CASTELFIDARDO, Battle of (1860). See ITALY: 1850-1861.

CASTELLANO. See SPANISH COINS.

CASTELLORIZZO, an islet east of Rhodes and close to the shore of Asia Minor. With Rhodes it was assigned to Italy after the World War. See SEVRES, TREATY OF (1920): Part III: Political clauses: Libya.

CASTELNAU, Edouard de Curières de (1851-), French general. Invaded German Lorraine August 18, 1914, but was soon driven out; later defended Nancy and took the offensive in the battle of the Marne; commanded the 2d (see WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: g, 1) and then the 7th army in the period following; attended war council of March 27-28, 1916; a prominent leader in the World War.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: 8, 4; 1916: II. Western front: b, 13.

CASTIGLIONE, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1796 (April-October).

CASTILE, formerly a kingdom of Spain, situated in the central part of the Iberian peninsula and divided into Old and New Castile. Old Castile occupying the northern part of the kingdom was early freed from Moorish rule and divided into eight provinces: Ávila, Burgos, Logroño, Palencia, Santander, Segovia, Soria and Valladolid. New Castile embraces the provinces of Ciudad Real, Cuenca, Guadalajara, Madrid and Toledo. The history of Castile runs parallel with the struggle to reconquer the Iberian peninsula from the Mohammedans.

713-1230.—Origin and rise of the kingdom. See SPAIN: 713-950; and 1026-1230.

1085.—Annexation of New Castile. See NEW CASTILE.

1140.—Separation of Portugal as an independent kingdom. See PORTUGAL: 1095-1325.

1169.—First Cortes.—Old monarchical constitution. See CORTES, Early Spanish.

1179.—Union with Aragon. See ARAGON.

1212-1238.—Progress of arms.—Permanent union of the crown with that of Leon.—Conquest of Córdoba.—Vassalage imposed on Granada and Murcia. See SPAIN: 1212-1238.

1248-1350.—Reigns of St. Ferdinand, Alfonso

the Learned, and their three successors. See SPAIN: 1248-1350.

1262.—Rebuilding of Cadiz by Alfonso X. See CADIZ: 1262.

1366-1369.—Pedro the Cruel and the invasion of the English Black Prince. See SPAIN: 1366-1369.

1368-1476.—Under the house of Trastamare.—Discord and civil war.—Triumph of Queen Isabella and her marriage to Ferdinand of Aragon. See SPAIN: 1368-1479.

1515.—Incorporation of Navarre with the kingdom. See NAVARRE: 1442-1521.

1516.—Crown united with that of Aragon, by Joanna, mother of Charles V. See SPAIN: 1496-1517.

CASTILE, House of: Genealogical table. See SPAIN: 1366-1369.

CASTILLA, Ramon (1796-1867), president of Peru. See PERU: 1826-1876.

CASTILLA DEL ORO or Castilia del Oro, the Spanish for "Golden Castile." The name was applied by Columbus to the northern coast of the Isthmus of Panama. See AMERICA: 1509-1511; COLOMBIA: 1499-1536.

CASTILLO, Pedro Lopez de: Letter to the soldiers of the American army. See U. S. A.: 1808 (August 21).

CASTILLON, Battle of (1453). See FRANCE: 1431-1453.

CASTLE GOVERNMENT, the name given to the administration of Ireland, having its seat at Dublin castle; regarded by the Sinn Féin as an oppressive bureaucracy of Bourbon character.

CASTLE PINCKNEY, Fort. See U. S. A.: 1860 (December): Major Anderson at Fort Sumter.

CASTLE ST. ANGELO.—The mausoleum of Hadrian, begun by the emperor Hadrian, 135, and probably completed by Antoninus Pius, "owes its preservation entirely to the peculiar fitness of its site and shape for the purposes of a fortress, which it has served since the time of Belisarius. . . . After the burial of Marcus Aurelius, the tomb was closed until the sack of Rome by Alaric in 410, when his barbarian soldiers probably broke it open in search of treasure, and scattered the ashes of the Antonines to the winds. From this time, for a hundred years, the tomb was turned into a fortress, the possession of which became the object of many struggles in the wars of the Goths under Vitiges (537) and Totilas (killed 552). From the end of the sixth century, when Gregory the Great saw on its summit a vision of St. Michael sheathing his sword, in token that the prayers of the Romans for preservation from the plague were heard, the Mausoleum of Hadrian was considered as a consecrated building, under the name of 'S. Angelus inter Nubes,' 'Usque ad Cælos,' or 'Inter Cælos,' until it was seized in 923 by Alberic, Count of Tusculum, and the infamous Marozia, and again became the scene of the fierce struggles between Popes, Emperors, and reckless adventurers which marked those miserable times. The last injuries appear to have been inflicted upon the building in the contest between the French Pope Clemens VII. and the Italian Pope Urban VIII. [see PAPACY: 1377-1417]. The exterior was then finally dismantled and stripped. Partial additions and restorations soon began to take place. Boniface IX., in the beginning of the fifteenth century, erected new battlements and fortifications on and around the building; and since his time it has remained in the possession of the Papal government. The strange medley of Papal reception rooms, dungeons and military

magazines which now encumbers the top, was chiefly built by Paul III. The corridor connecting it with the Vatican dates from the time of Alexander Borgia (1494), and the bronze statue of St. Michael on the summit, which replaced an older marble statue, from the reign of Benedict XIV.—R. Burn, *Rome and the Campagna*, ch. 11.

ALSO IN: W. W. Story, *Castle St. Angelo*.

CASTLENAUDARI, Battle of (1632). See FRANCE: 1630-1632.

CASTLEREAGH, Viscount. See LONDON-DERRY, ROBERT STEWART, 2ND MARQUESS OF.

CASTOR WARE.—"Durobrivian or Castor ware, as it is variously called, is the production of the extensive Romano-British potteries on the River Nen in Northamptonshire and Huntingdonshire, which, with settlements [see DUROBRIVÆ], are computed to have covered a district of some twenty square miles in extent. . . . There are several varieties. . . . and two especially have been remarked; the first, blue, or slate-coloured, the other reddish-brown, or of a dark copper colour."—L. Jewett, *Grave mounds*, p. 152.

CASTRÀ, Roman.—"When a Roman army was in the field it never halted, even for a single night, without throwing up an entrenchment capable of containing the whole of the troops and their baggage. This field-work was termed *Castra*. . . . The form of the camp was a square, each side of which was 2,017 Roman feet in length. The defences consisted of a ditch (*fossa*), the earth dug out, being thrown inwards so as to form a rampart (*agger*), upon the summit of which a palisade (*vallum*) was erected of wooden stakes (*valli*—*sudes*), a certain number of which were carried by each soldier, along with his entrenching tools."—W. Ramsay, *Manual of Roman antiquities*, ch. 12.

CASTRICUM, Battle of. See FRANCE: 1799 (September-October).

CASTRICOT, George (1403-1467), Albanian chieftain and popular national hero. Better known as Scanderbeg or Iskander Bey, the name given him by the Turks on account of his valor, in complimentary reference to Alexander the Great.—See also ALBANIA: 1443-1467.

CASTRO, Cipriano (1861-), Venezuelan military leader. Became prominent in politics at an early age, largely through military methods; was forced to withdraw to Colombia, by Crespo's successful revolt in 1802; in 1899 began the revolt which resulted in his election as president (1902). During his presidency Castro involved Venezuela in quarrels with European nations, with Colombia, and in 1904 with the United States through the confiscation of the New York and Bermuda Company's property. In December, 1908, he went to Europe for his health. A revolution against him broke out in 1900, which made Juan Vicente Gómez president. The latter adjusted the Venezuelan troubles with the United States and other countries. Castro continued to live in Spain and France, being excluded from his own country, but in 1916 came to the United States.—See also COLUMBIA: 1808-1902; VENEZUELA: 1898-1900, 1905-1906, 1907-1908.

CASTRO, José, governor of California, 1835-1836. See CALIFORNIA: 1846-1847.

CASTRO, Vaca de, governor of Peru. See PERU: 1533-1548.

CASTRUCCIO CASTRACANI (c. 1280-1328), Italian soldier and member of the Ghibelline family. See ITALY: 1313-1330.

CASTRUM DIVIONENSE, a strong Roman camp-city. See DIJON, ORIGIN OF.

CASUALTIES, World War. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XIV. Cost of War: b, 3.

CASWELL, Richard (1729-1789), American revolutionary soldier and first governor of North Carolina. See U. S. A.: 1780 (February-August).

CAT NATION. See HURONS; IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY: Their conquests and wide dominion.

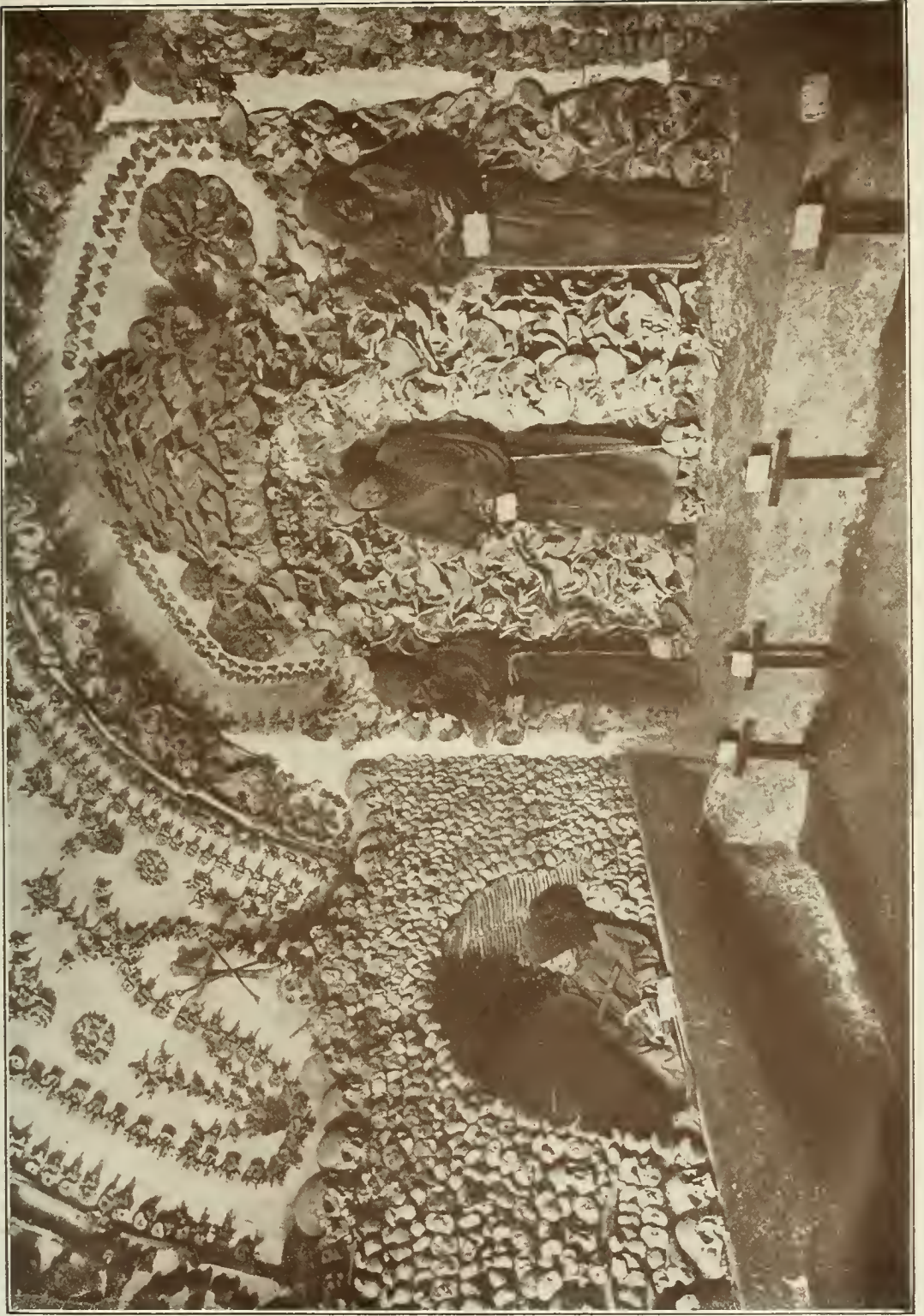
CATABAPTISTS, opposing baptism, especially of infants. See BAPTISMS: Origin of name.

CATACOMBS OF ROME.—"The Roman Catacombs—a name consecrated by long usage, but having no etymological meaning, and not a very determinate geographical one—are a vast labyrinth of galleries excavated in the bowels of the earth in the hills around the Eternal City; not in the hills on which the city itself was built, but in those beyond the walls. Their extent is enormous, not as to the amount of superficial soil which they underlie, for they rarely, if ever, pass beyond the third milestone from the city, but in the actual length of their galleries; for these are often excavated on various levels, or *piani*, three, four, or even five, one above the other, and they cross and recross one another, some times at short intervals, on each of these levels; so that, on the whole, there are certainly not less than 350 miles of them; that is to say, if stretched out in one continuous line, they would extend the whole length of Italy itself. The galleries are from two to four feet in width, and vary in height according to the nature of the rock in which they are dug. The walls on both sides are pierced with horizontal niches, like shelves in a book-case, or berths in a steamer, and every niche once contained one or more dead bodies. At various intervals this succession of shelves is interrupted for a moment, that room may be made for a doorway opening into a small chamber; and the walls of these chambers are generally pierced with graves in the same way as the galleries. These vast excavations once formed the ancient Christian cemeteries of Rome; they were begun in apostolic times, and continued to be used as burial-places of the faithful until the capture of the city by Alaric in the year 410. In the third century, the Roman Church numbered twenty-five or twenty-six of them, corresponding to the number of her titles or parishes within the city; and besides these, there are about twenty others, of smaller dimensions, isolated monuments of special martyrs, or belonging to this or that private family. Originally they all belonged to private families or individuals, the villas or gardens in which they were dug being the property of wealthy citizens who had embraced the faith of Christ, and devoted of their substance to His service. Hence their most ancient titles were taken merely from the names of their lawful owners, many of which still survive. . . . It has always been agreed among men of learning who have had an opportunity of examining these excavations, that they were used exclusively by the Christians as places of burial and of holding religious assemblies. Modern research has placed it beyond a doubt, that they were also originally designed for this purpose and for no other."—J. S. Northcote and W. R. Brownlow, *Roma sotterranea*, bk. 1, ch. 1.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: Church in Carthage.

ALSO IN: A. P. Stanley, *Christian institutions*, ch. 13.

CATALAN FORGE: Blacksmithing in the Middle Ages. See INVENTIONS: Ancient and medieval: Early industrial processes.

CATALAN GRAND COMPANY.—The Catalan Grand Company was a formidable body of



CATACOMBS, ROME

military adventurers—mercenary soldiers—formed in Sicily during the twenty years of war that followed the Sicilian Vespers. "High pay and great license drew the best sinews in Catalonia and Aragon into the mercenary battalions of Sicily and induced them to submit to the severest discipline." The conclusion of peace in 1302 threw this trained army out of employment, and the greater part of its members were enlisted in the service of Andronicus I, of the restored Greek empire at Constantinople. They were under the command of one Roger de Flor, who had been a Templar, degraded from his knighthood for desertion, and afterwards a pirate; but whose military talents were undoubted. The Grand Company soon quarrelled with the Greek emperor; its leader was assassinated, and open war declared. The Greek army was terribly defeated in a battle at Apros, 1307, and the Catalans plundered Thrace for two years without resistance. Gallipoli, their headquarters, to which they brought their captives, became one of the great slave marts of Europe. In 1310 they marched into the heart of Greece, and were engaged in the service of Walter de Brienne, duke of Athens. He, too, found them dangerous servants. Quarrels were followed by war; the duke perished in a battle (1311) with his Catalan mercenaries on the banks of the Cephissus; his dukedom, embracing Attica and Bœotia, was the prize of their victory. The widows and daughters of the Greek nobles who had fallen were forced to marry the officers of the Catalans, who thus settled themselves in family as well as estate. They elected a duke of Athens; but proceeded afterwards to make the duchy an appanage of the house of Aragon. The title was held by sons of the Aragonese kings of Sicily until 1377, when it passed to Alphonso V, king of Aragon, and was retained by the kings of Spain after the union of the crowns of Aragon and Castile. The titular dukes were represented at Athens by regents. "During the period the duchy of Athens was possessed by the Sicilian branch of the house of Aragon, the Catalans were incessantly engaged in wars with all their neighbours." But, gradually, their military vigor and discipline were lost, and their name and power in Greece disappeared about 1386, when Athens and most of the territory of its duchy was conquered by Nero Acciainoli, a rich and powerful Florentine, who had become governor of Corinth, but acted as an independent prince, and who founded a new ducal family.—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine and Greek empires*, bk. 4, ch. 2, sect. 2.

ALSO IN: G. Finlay, *History of Greece from its conquest by the Crusaders*, ch. 7, sect. 3.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 62.

CATALOG OF ERRORS OF PIUS IX. See PAPACY: 1864.

CATALONIA: Geographical and racial description.—Catalonia (in Spanish Cataluña), a captaincy-general of the Spanish kingdom, "occupies the extreme north-east corner of the peninsula. It is a mountainous region, being built up of the outlying spurs of the eastern Pyrenees which are disposed generally parallel to the coast that is from north-east to south-west."—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel, Europe (Chisholm) v. 1, p. 308.*—The principal rivers are the Ebro, the Ter, and the Llobregat, all of which flow into the Mediterranean and none of which is navigable. "Catalonia . . . possesses an admirable seacoast. Its natural wealth, joined to favourable geographical position, has developed commerce with neighboring countries, and more

especially with Roussillon and Languedoc. Indeed, seven or eight centuries ago, the Catalans were Provençals rather than Spaniards, and in their language and customs they were closely related to the people to the north of the Pyrenees."—*Universal geography*, VI., *Southern Europe*, p. 429.—"In remote centuries Phœnician, Carthaginian and Greek colonies contributed to the peopling of the littoral, while Iberian tribes [among them the Suesetanos, Sedetanos, Cosetanos, Ceretanos, Rus-sinos, Indigentes, Lacetanos, Laletanos, Acetanos, Ausetanos, Ilergentes and Ilercanos] occupied the interior; but the present province and its inhabitants derive their names from the invaders of the fifth century—first the Alani, who early in the century joined the Vandals in disturbing the long repose which Spain enjoyed under Roman rule [Catalonia was one of the first of the Roman possessions in Spain, and formed the northeastern portion of Hispania Tarraconensis] and afterwards the western Goths. Hence arose the name of Gothallonia or Gotholunia, from which the modern Catalonia, in Spanish Cataluña, is formed."—*Stanford's compendium of geography and travel, Europe (Chisholm) v. 1, p. 309.*

Character of the Catalans.—"Of all the peninsular peoples the Catalans were—and are—most unlike the Castilians. A population of almost pure Romance origin, sharing with their neighbors in the south of France the language, traditions, and literature of their race—a series of accidents rather than obvious fate had brought them under the rule of a Castilian King, instead of their forming the nucleus of the great Romance empire projected by James the Conqueror, their sovereign in the thirteenth century. [See SPAIN: 1035-1258.] Their character is rough and independent; they are tenacious, industrious, and thrifty, without any of the Portuguese peasant's servility or the Castilian's haughty contempt of manual labour; fully conscious of their superiority over their neighbours in many respects, they repay their disdain with disdain still deeper."—M. Hume, *Spain*, 1470-1788, p. 256.

712-1196.—Earlier history.—"Catalonia had been overrun by the Moslems when they entered Spain [712], but between 785 and 811 the Frankish kings were able to reconquer that region, establishing a province there which they called the Spanish Mark. This section was at first ruled by a number of counts, independent of each other, but subject to the kings of the Franks. Catalan submission to the latter did not endure through the ninth century. Wilfredo, count of Barcelona, is believed to have established his independence as early as 874, although that event is doubtful; at any rate the separation from the Frankish kingdom was not much longer delayed. Each count was lord unto himself, although in the entire breadth of northern Spain each unit labored for its own selfish ends. Christians fought Moslems, but also fought other Christians. Owing to the disorder of the Moslem realm, however, the Catalan counts, like the other Christian rulers, were able to make some territorial gains."—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 56.—"The little county . . . of Catalonia, which came into existence . . . after the victories of Louis of Aquitaine in the early years of the ninth century, has no history, certain, or worthy of our attention, until the days of Ramon Berenguer I, *el riego* (1035-1076), whose victories over the Arabs were even less remarkable than the vigour and success of his domestic policy. The first undisputed master of all Catalonia, he introduced a modified form of the feudal system among the barons and knights

and as a supplement or complement to the old Gothic laws of the *Fuero Juzgo* he formulated the celebrated *Usages* of Catalonia, which were promulgated at the Council of Gerona, and confirmed, in 1068, by the *Cortes* of Barcelona, one of the earliest Councils at which no bishop was present, and which was a true popular and political assembly. This Ramon Berenguer acquired, moreover, by marriage and treaty, considerable possessions beyond the Pyrenees, and, at the instance of Pope Alexander II., he restored or rebuilt the cathedral at Barcelona. The wisdom of Ramon Berenguer the elder was not perpetuated in his children, nor did he himself display it in the disposition of his dominions at his death; for he divided his kingdom between his two sons, Ramon Berenguer II., . . . and his younger brother Berenguer Ramon; and the succession was only settled, after five years of domestic strife, by the assassination of the elder of those princes by the younger in 1081. The fratricide found no favour with the Catalons, and after a brief period of sovereignty he fled to the Holy Land, and was succeeded by his infant nephew, . . . who ruled for nearly fifty years as Ramon Berenguer III (1082-1131). By his marriage with Douce, Countess of Provence, by treaty, and by inheritance, this prudent sovereign extended his dominions on either side of the Pyrenees, and making head against the Arabs on his southern frontier, he actually carried his victorious arms across the Sea to Majorca, which was taken and occupied by the Catalons in 1100. This Ramon Berenguer III is known in history by the honourable title of the *Consolidator of the Realm*. He reigned over both Barcelona and Aragon with infinite advantage to the Commonwealth; and was succeeded by his son, Ramon Berenguer IV.—U. R. Burke, *History of Spain*, v. 1, pp. 201-202.—“Ramon Berenguer IV (1131-1162) inherited only the Spanish portions of his father's domain, but extended his authority over Tortosa, Lerida, and other Moslem regions, being a notable warrior. In 1150 he married the daughter of the king of Aragon, and in 1164 his son by this marriage [Ramon, who assumed, in 1161, the name of Alfonso—surnamed the *Chaste*] united Aragon [see ARAGON] and Catalonia under a single rule.”—C. E. Chapman, *History of Spain*, p. 78.—Alfonso, “dying in 1106, was succeeded by his son Peter, who played a more conspicuous part, not only in Aragon and in Southern Spain, but in Languedoc, and even in Italy.”—U. R. Burke, *History of Spain*, v. 1, p. 202. See SPAIN: 1035-1258.

12th-15th centuries.—Commercial importance and municipal freedom of Barcelona. See BARCELONA: 12th-16th centuries.

1461-1472.—Long but unsuccessful revolt against John II of Aragon. See SPAIN: 1368-1470.

1639-1652.—Causes of disaffection.—Revolt.—Renunciation of allegiance to the Spanish crown.—Annexation to France offered and accepted.—Resubjection to Spain. See SPAIN: 1637-1640; 1640-1642; 1644-1646; 1648-1652.

1705.—Adhesion to Allies in the War of Spanish Succession.—Capture of Barcelona. See SPAIN: 1705.

1713-1714.—Betrayed and deserted by the Allies.—Barcelona besieged and captured.—“Alone among the Spaniards the Catalans had real reason to regret the peace. They had clung to the cause of Charles with a desperate fidelity, and the Peace of Utrecht rang the death-knell of provincial liberties to which they were passion-

ately attached. From the beginning of 1705 they had been steady and faithful allies of England; they had again and again done eminent service in her cause; they had again and again received from her ministers and generals the most solemn assurances that they would never be abandoned. When England first opened a separate negotiation for peace she might easily have secured the Catalonian liberties by making their recognition an indispensable preliminary of peace; but, instead of this, the English ministers began by recognizing the title of Philip, and contented themselves with a simple prayer that a general amnesty might be granted. When the Convention was signed for the evacuation of Catalonia by the Imperial troops, the question of the provincial liberties were referred to the definite peace, the Queen and the French King promising at that time to interpose their good offices to secure them. The Emperor, who was bound to the Catalans by the strongest ties of gratitude and honour, could have easily obtained a guarantee of their *fueros* at the price of an acknowledgment of the title of Philip; but he was too proud and too selfish for such a sacrifice. The English, it is true, repeatedly urged the Spanish King to guarantee these privileges, . . . but these were mere representations, supported by no action, and were therefore peremptorily refused. The English peace with Spain contained a clause granting the Catalans a general armistice, and also a promise that they should be placed in the same position as the Castilians, which gave them the right of holding employments and carrying on a direct trade with the Indies, but it made no mention of their provincial privileges. The Peace of Rastadt was equally silent, for the dignity of the Emperor would not suffer him to enter into any negotiations with Philip. The unhappy people, abandoned by those whom they had so faithfully served, refused to accept the position offered them by treaty, and, much to the indignation of the English Government, they still continued in arms, struggling with a desperate courage against overwhelming odds. The King of Spain then called upon the Queen, as a guarantee of the treaty of evacuation, ‘to order a squadron of her ships to reduce her subjects to their obedience, and thereby complete the tranquillity of Spain and of the Mediterranean commerce.’ A fleet was actually dispatched, which would probably have been employed against Barcelona, but for an urgent address of the House of Lords, and the whole moral weight of England was thrown into the scale against the insurgents. The conduct of the French was more decided. Though the French King had engaged himself with the Queen by the treaty of evacuation to use his good offices in the most effectual manner in favour of the Catalan liberties, he now sent an army to hasten the capture of Barcelona. The blockade . . . lasted more than a year. The insurgents hung up over the high altar the Queen's solemn declaration to protect them. They continued the hopeless struggle till 14,000 bombs had been thrown into the city; till a great part of it had been reduced to ashes; till seven breaches had been made; till 10,000 of the besieging army had been killed or wounded; and till famine had been added to the horrors of war. At last, on September 11, 1714, Barcelona was taken by storm. A frightful massacre took place in the streets. Many of the inhabitants were afterwards imprisoned or transported, and the old privileges of Catalonia were finally abolished.”—W. E. H. Lecky, *History of England, 18th century*, ch. i, v. 7.—See also SPAIN: 1713-1714.

ALSO IN: Lord Mahon (Earl) Stanhope, *History of England, 1713-1783, ch. 3, v. i.*—C. T. Wilson, *Duke of Berwick, ch. 21.*

1808-1809.—Part played in the Peninsular war. See SPAIN: 1808-1809 (August-January); 1809 (February-July).

1833-1846.—Carlist strongholds. See SPAIN: 1833-1846.

1900-1909.—Home rule agitation.—Catalonia has never become reconciled to her place as a dependency under the government at Madrid, and her spirit of fierce local patriotism has never died out. In 1900 the arrogance of the military party stirred afresh the desire of the Catalonians for separation, or at least for self-government. This half-rebellious state continued to harass the Spanish authorities during the early years of the twentieth century, and was one of the causes in 1905 for the downfall of the Rios ministry which was in office scarcely a month. Bomb explosions and anarchist outrages continued to increase despite the efforts of the various ministries who attempted to cope with the situation.—See also SPAIN: 1900-1909; 1909.

1909-1921.—Labor agitation.—Economic conditions.—Radicalism. See SPAIN: 1909; 1919-1920; 1921; BARCELONA: 1903-1919; 1915-1919.

1917-1919.—Attempts to gain self-government.—During 1917 the Catalanian desire for independence found expression in various forms of restlessness and hostility toward the government at Madrid. The demand of the Catalanian representatives that the Chambers be called together as a constituent assembly was refused by the government July 3, 1917. In December, 1918, a Catalanian delegation presented to the government at Madrid a fourfold demand for local autonomy, calling for the organization of a local government with two chambers. The Catalanian nationalists were, however, opposed by the army and in 1919 the movement for independence was overshadowed by the contest between the employing classes and the trade unions. The fear of a commercial boycott by the rest of Spain also aided in weakening Catalanian nationalist activities.

ALSO IN: A. F. Calvert, *Catalonia and the Balearic Isles.*—A. Boriy Fostestá, *Historia de Cataluña.*

Coöperative Movement. See COÖPERATION: Spain.

CATALUNA. See CATALONIA.

CATANA, or Katana, Battle of (B. C. 396). See SYRACUSE: B. C. 397-396.

CATANIA, a seaport and third largest city of Sicily, the capital of the province of Catania. The ancient town was founded by the Greeks in 729 B. C. and called Catana or Catina. It was sacked by Dionysius in 403 B. C., and recaptured by the Carthaginians in 396 B. C. (See SYRACUSE: B. C. 397-396.) The town enjoyed considerable prosperity under Roman rule which was instituted in 263 B. C., suffering, however, on several occasions, from earthquakes and eruptions from Mount Etna. In 1849 it was stormed and captured by King Ferdinand II, of the Two Sicilies, in the suppression of the popular uprising in Sicily. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

CATAPAN, the title given to the supreme governor of Bari, the metropolis of the new Theme of Lombardy in the ninth century. See ITALY (Southern): 800-1016.

CATARACTS OF THE NILE RIVER. See EGYPT: Position and nature of the country.

CATAWBAS, a tribe of North American Indians. See SIOUAN FAMILY; TIMUQUANAN FAMILY.

CATEAU-CAMBRESIS, Treaty of (1559). See FRANCE: 1547-1559.

CATECHETICAL SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Ancient: 1st-2nd centuries.

CATECHUMENAL SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Ancient: 1st-2nd centuries.

CATEL, Charles Simon (1773-1830), French composer; author of "Traité d'harmonie," a standard text book. See MUSIC: Modern: 1800-1908.

CATERANS.—"In 1384 an act was passed [by the Scottish parliament] for the suppression of masterful plunderers, who get in the statute their Highland name of 'cateran.' . . . This is the first of a long succession of penal and denunciatory laws against the Highlanders."—J. H. Burton, *History of Scotland, v. 3, ch. 27.*

CATERPILLAR TRACTOR: Origin of tank in warfare. See TANKS: Invention.

CATHARI, Catharists, or Patarenes.—"Among all the sects of the Middle Ages, very far the most important in numbers and in radical antagonism to the Church, were the Cathari, or the Pure, as with characteristic sectarian assumption they styled themselves. Albigenes they were called in Languedoc; Paterenes in North Italy; Good Men by themselves. Stretching through central Europe to Thrace and Bulgaria, they joined hands with the Paulicians of the East and shared their errors. Whether these Cathari stood in lineal historical descent from the old Manichæans, or had generated a dualistic scheme of their own, is a question hard to answer, and which has been answered in very different ways. This much, however, is certain, that in all essentials they agreed with them."—R. C. Trench, *Lectures of mediæval church history, lecture 15.*—"In Italy, men supposed to hold the same belief [as that of the Paulicians, Albigenes, etc.] went by the name of the Paterini, a word of uncertain derivation, perhaps arising from their willingness meekly to submit to all sufferings for Christ's sake (pati), perhaps from a quarter in the city of Milan named 'Pataria'; and more lately by that of Cathari (the Pure, Puritans), which was soon corrupted into Gazari, whence the German 'Ketzer,' the general word for a heretic."—L. Mariotti, *Frà Dolcino and his times, ch. 1.*—See also PAULICIANS; ALBIGENSES; CHRISTIANITY: 11th-16th centuries.

CATHAY, the name applied to China by Marco Polo and subsequently by mediæval Europe. It was later regarded as a rich country north of China, and as such was the great object with which Columbus set out on his westward journey, which resulted in the discovery of the New World. The name is derived from Khitai, the kingdom of a race which invaded and conquered northern China about 907. It is still common in poetry. See CHINA: Names of the country.

CATHEDRA. See EX CATHEDRA.

CATHEDRAL, "the chief church in every diocese, so called because it contains the cathedra or chair, the seat or throne of the bishop. The cathedral church is the parish church of the whole diocese. . . . It was not called the cathedral church till the tenth century, before which the term *ecclesia matrix*, to distinguish it from the ordinary churches, or *ecclesie diocesanae*, was used. In cathedrals the bishop is formally enthroned, and in them he holds his ordinations and visitations."—J. S. Bumpus, *Dictionary of ecclesiastical terms, p. 57.*—"The cathedral itself is not necessarily large nor splendid, nor is there any architectural style or character which can be said to belong to it in a peculiar sense. . . . The cathedral of that part of Venetia in which is situated the city of Venice was for many years a small

and unimportant church, S. Pietro in Castello, situated on a remote island, and the church of S. Marco, built and used as the chapel of the Doge, was made the cathedral after the destruction of the Venetian Republic. . . . The largest church in Christendom, S. Peter's, at Rome, is not a cathedral; the cathedral of the Bishop of Rome is the ancient Lateran Basilica. . . . There is, however, a cause for the rapid building of cathedrals in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, and of the great size and splendor given especially to these churches. . . . It is the communal or social character of the movement which united people of the towns with their bishop, and which resulted in the free using of large parts of the cathedrals, when finished, as places of popular resort."—R. Sturgis, *Dictionary of architecture and building*, v. 1, p. 475.—Early Christian churches were modelled after the Roman basilicas in which the first meetings were held after Christianity was accepted in the Empire. "The basilica plan became gradually modified. The nave and aisles were retained, but the chancel, with or without an apse, was carried farther back and the length of the transepts prolonged, so that in time the cruciform plan prevailed and acquired a symbolic significance. A special feature, gradually introduced, was the *chevet* which formed an *ambulatory* around the sides of the choir and the semicircle of the apse, and could be divided up into chapels dedicated to individual saints."—C. H. Caffin, *How to study architecture*, pp. 241-242.

Historical importance.—Chief architectural features.—"The construction of these buildings, many of which were founded in the eleventh and twelfth centuries, was carried on from generation to generation. The place in the national life which the mediæval cathedrals occupied was an important one, and must be realized in order to understand how they were regarded. Cathedrals were erected and decorated partly as a means of popular education, and they were the history books of the period, taking the place in the social state since occupied, to a large extent, by such modern institutions as the Board School, Free Library, Museum, Picture Gallery and Concert Hall. The sculpture and the painted glass reflected the incidents of Bible History from the creation to the redemption of mankind, the sculptured forms and brilliant coloring being easily understood by the people. The virtues and vices, with their symbols, were there displayed, either in glass or statuary, along with their reward or punishment; saints and angels told of the better life, and the various handicrafts, both of peace and war, were mirrored in imperishable stone or colored glass. Architecture then as now was also the grand chronicle of secular history, past and present, in which Kings, Nobles and Knights were represented. The plans in all parts of Europe, as may be seen on referring to those of England, France, Belgium, Germany, and Italy, are generally in the form of a Latin cross, the short arms, north and south, forming the transepts. The cruciform ground plan is considered by some as a development from the early Christian basilicas, such as Old S. Peter, Rome, and by others, as evolved from the cruciform buildings erected for sepulchral purposes as early as the period of Constantine. A tower, sometimes crowned with a spire, was generally erected over the crossing or at the west end. As a rule the nave is the portion to the westward, and the choir, containing the bishop and clergy, is that to the eastward of the crossing. Each of these divisions is further di-

vided into a central nave and side aisles, separated by columns or piers. The principal entrance, often richly ornamented, is at the west end, or by a porch on the south or north sides. The columns or piers support arches (the nave arcade), which carry the main walls, rising above the aisle roof. Above this arcade are a series of small arches, opening into a dark space caused by the height of the sloping roof of the aisle; this is called the *triforium*, or 'blind story.' Above the triforium is a range of windows in the main wall, admitting light into the upper part of the nave; this division is called the *clerestory*, or 'clear story,' probably derived from the French word *clair*, light being admitted by the windows in this portion of the nave wall. The head of these windows is generally the level of the ridge of the stone vault of the nave, which is covered by a high pitched wooden roof. The east ends or choirs, usually square-ended in England, are generally richer than the remainder of the church, and the floor is raised above the nave level by steps. The east ends of Norwich, Gloucester, Peterborough, Lichfield, and Canterbury, all of Norman origin, were circular, while Westminster Abbey has a ring of chapels or *chevet*. The lady-chapel is placed beyond the choir at the extreme east end, as at Norwich, Peterborough, and Salisbury, or on one side, as at Ely. The cloisters attached to so many of the English cathedrals, forming part of the original monastic buildings, were probably derived from the atrium of the Early Christian period. They are generally, but not invariably, south and west of the transept, in the warmest and most sheltered position, forming the centre of the secular affairs of the monastery, and a means of communication between different parts of the Abbey. Such is the general distribution of the parts of a cathedral or large church, from which, naturally, there are many deviations, such as, for instance, the position and number of transepts. Great length, and central towers, are features of English cathedrals; western towers also occur in many examples, as at Lichfield (with spires), Durham, Canterbury, York, Wells, Lincoln and Ripon. Compared with such long, low, and highly grouped examples, Continental cathedrals seem short, high, and often shapeless, owing to the intricacy and profusion of their buttressing. In churches, a single western tower is an English characteristic."—B. Fletcher and B. F. Fletcher, *History of architecture*, pp. 273, 275-276.

English, Scottish, and Irish cathedrals.—"The English Cathedrals, as a general rule, owe much of their beauty to the fact that they are generally placed in a large open space called the Close, as at Canterbury, Lincoln and Salisbury, . . . or are situated picturesquely on the banks of a river, as at Worcester, or Durham. . . . The French Cathedrals, on the other hand, are often completely surrounded by houses and shops, which in many cases were actually built against the wall of the church itself. . . . The constitution and foundation of English Cathedrals is important and is largely responsible for their monastic character and general arrangement. They may be divided into three classes:—(a) Cathedrals of the Old Foundation. (b) Cathedrals of the Monastic Foundation. (c) Cathedrals of the New Foundation. (a) The Cathedrals of the old foundation are those which, being served by *secular* clergy, were not affected by the reforms of Henry VIII. The following is a list:—The Cathedrals of York, Lichfield, Wells, Exeter, Salisbury, Chichester, Lincoln, Hereford, S. Paul, London, and the Welsh Cathedrals of Llandaff, Bangor S. David's, and

S. Asaph. (b) The Cathedrals of the monastic foundation are those which were originally served by *regular* clergy or *monks*, and which were reconstituted at the dissolution of the monasteries as chapters of secular canons. The following is a list:—The Cathedrals of Canterbury, Durham, Rochester, Winchester, Worcester, Norwich, Ely, Carlisle, Peterborough, Gloucester, Chester, Oxford, and Bristol. Westminster Abbey was a Cathedral Church from A. D. 1540-1545. When the change in these monastic establishments was made the abbot became the bishop, the prior the dean, and the monks became canons and choristers; the *personnel* generally remaining the same. (c) The Cathedrals of the new foundation are those to which bishops have been appointed, viz., Ripon and Southwell, which are old Collegiate Churches, and the following Parochial Churches:—S. Albans, Newcastle, Wakefield, Manchester, and Truro. Diversity of style in each building was caused by the fact that with the single exception of Salisbury many were erected in all periods, thus presenting a complete history of the evolution of Gothic Architecture. Most of the English Cathedrals were founded or remodelled after the Conquest, including many which formerly served as churches of the great monastic institutions of the period. The character which each Cathedral possesses generally indicates its original purpose. Monastic Cathedrals are almost peculiar to England and Germany. In these countries a large proportion of the Cathedral Churches formed part of monastic establishments in which are found cloisters, refectories, dormitories, chapter houses, scriptorium, library, guest hall, infirmary, prison, wine cellars, mills, workshops and gardens. Cloisters were required in monastic establishments from necessity, as they formed a covered way for the use of monks, round which the various buildings enumerated above were grouped. They were also frequently planned as an ornamental adjunct to cathedrals of the old foundation which were not part of monastic establishments, but were served by secular clergy, as at Salisbury and Wells. The Collegiate Churches of Lichfield, Ripon, Southwell, York and Manchester, and the Irish, Scotch and Welsh Cathedrals (S. David's excepted) have no cloisters. . . . Architecture in Scotland followed on much the same lines as in England, until the middle of the fifteenth century, when it took a more national turn. . . . The most important Cathedrals are those of Edinburgh (S. Giles), Glasgow (having no transepts but a famous crypt), S. Andrew, Kirkwall, Dunblane, Aberdeen and Elgin, and the Abbeys of Kelso, Melrose, Dunfermline, Holyrood and Dryburgh are the best known. In these the lancet window, either singly or in groups, was used long after it had been discontinued in England, while in the later period the Flamboyant tracery of French Gothic was followed in preference to the Perpendicular style of English Gothic. . . . Within the English domain the influence of Continental art was felt during the Middle Ages, but few monuments of importance were erected. The Cathedrals of Dublin, Kildare and Cashel, were the most important, but the absence of parish churches is remarkable."—*Ibid.*, pp. 276, 294, 298, 359, 360.

Continental cathedrals.—"The development and consolidation of the French kingdom . . . corresponds with the great cathedral-building epoch of the thirteenth century. . . . All the great cathedrals, numbering about 150, were erected in the first half of the thirteenth century, principally by funds provided by the laity, and not as parts of monastic establishments, and in consequence vary

considerably in plan and arrangement from English cathedrals. The French cathedrals, in situation and surroundings, are also in marked contrast with English examples. . . . The churches are especially noticeable externally for (a) the flatness of the roofs; (b) the tendency to mask the aisle roofs by a mere screen wall forming the west façade, without reference to the slope of the roofs behind; (c) the great central circular window in the west front lighting the nave; (d) the flatness and comparative unimportance of the mouldings, their place being more than taken by the beautiful colored marbles with which the façades were faced, and the broad surfaces covered with fresco decorations. . . . [The general plan of the great cathedrals of western Germany, namely, Cologne, Strassburg, Freiburg, Ratisbon, Ulm, etc., were borrowed directly from France.] Milan Cathedral [Italy] (A. D. 1385-1418), erected by the first Duke of Milan, is the most important work [in Italy] of this period, and there is a marked German influence, both in character and details. It is the largest mediæval cathedral, with the exception of Seville, and is built entirely of white marble. . . . [In Spain] the Gothic style was best developed in Catalonia, where, though on French lines, as in most parts of Spain, it has a special character, owing to the grand scale of the single-span vaulted interiors. Leon Cathedral goes beyond its French original at Amiens, in the expanse of window opening and tenuity of its supports. The exteriors usually are flat in appearance, owing to the space between buttresses being utilized internally for chapels, and generally, it may be said that a liking for excessive ornamentation without any regard to its constructive character is apparent. Contrary to Northern Gothic, broad wall surfaces and horizontal lines are special features of the style. The cloisters of many of the cathedrals, as Barcelona, Toledo, and Lérida, are characteristic. . . . Seville Cathedral (1401-1520), erected on the site of a mosque of the same size, is the largest mediæval cathedral in any country. It bears a considerable resemblance to Milan Cathedral, but is less fanciful in detail, or, as some would prefer to say, of a purer Gothic style. . . . It is typically Spanish in having a rectangular outline, but it differs from most of the great Continental churches in having a square east end, and small apse. As showing the extraordinary size of this cathedral it may be pointed out that each of the four side aisles of Seville is practically equal both in height and width to the nave of Westminster Abbey, while the nave arcades have twice the span, although the total length of Seville is little more than that of the Abbey. Thus one aisle of Seville represents the size of the nave and choir of the abbey, and is repeated four times; in addition to which there is the great nave, 55 feet wide from centre to centre of piers, and 130 feet high surrounding the church, and of the same depth as the aisles, are the chapels. From these comparisons an idea can be obtained of the immense size of this Spanish cathedral."—*Ibid.*, pp. 363, 368, 405, 407, 408, 426, 430.

Among the more important cathedrals and churches are the following:

Austria.—S. Stephen's (Vienna); Prague (Bohemia).

Belgium.—Antwerp; Brussels; Ghent, Louvain; Malines; Tournai.

England.—Canterbury; Durham; Ely; Exeter; Gloucester; Lichfield; Lincoln; Norwich; Peterborough; S. Albans; Salisbury; Wells; Westminster Abbey; York; S. Paul (London); Rochester; Winchester.

France.—Amiens; Chartres; Metz; Notre Dame (Paris); Rheims; Rouen; Strassburg; Tours; Laon; Beauvais; Noyon; Bourges; Orléans.

Germany.—Cologne; Freiburg; Mainz; Ratisbon; Spire; Ulm; Trèves.

Italy.—Florence; Milan; Monreale; Pisa; Siena; S. Mark's (Venice); S. John Lateran (Rome); S. Peter's; S. Miniato; S. Croce, Florence; Orvieto; Lucca; Bologna; Bari; Piacenza; Palermo.

Mexico.—Mexico City; Puebla; Valladolid.

Russia.—S. Isaac of Dalmatia; S. Peter; S. Paul (Petrograd); Kremlin (Moscow).

Spain.—Burgos; Barcelona; Salamanca; Seville; Santiago de Compostella; Toledo; Granada; Tarragona; Segovia; Leon; Oviedo.

United States.—S. Patrick (New York); S. John the Divine (New York); St. Louis (Missouri).

Also in: H. Bowman and J. S. Crowther, *Churches of the Middle Ages*.—G. B. Brown, *Arts in early England*.—E. S. Prior, *History of Gothic art in England*.—G. G. Scott, *Essay on the history of English church architecture*.—H. H. Stratham, *Cathedrals of England and Wales*.—W. Burges, *Cathédrales de la France*.—H. G. Knight, *Ecclesiastical architecture of Italy*.

CATHERINE I (1683-1727), empress of Russia. See RUSSIA: 1725-1739.

Catherine II (1729-1796), empress of Russia.

Reign.—Attempted reforms. See RUSSIA: 1761-1762; 1762-1796.

Partition of Poland. See POLAND: 1763-1790; 1701-1792.

Refusal to colonize Alaska. See ALASKA: 1741-1787.

Encouragement to literature. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1752-1816.

CATHERINE OF ARAGON (1485-1536), queen of England.

Influence on education of women. See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1500-1600.

CATHERINE DE FOIX, ruler of Navarre. See NAVARRE: 1528-1563.

CATHERINE HARBOR, a name sometimes given to Kola Bay on the Murman coast of Russia. Although it is on the Arctic ocean, the Gulf stream renders this coast practically ice-free. A railroad passing through Kola on the Kola river has its terminus at Novo Alexandrovsk, on the bay. Another town, across the bay, is Murmansk.

CATHLAMAHs. See FLATHEADS.

CATHODE RAYS, Theory of. See CHEMISTRY: Radio-activity.

CATHOLIC APOSTOLIC CHURCH.—"In 1830 and 1831 several Presbyterians in Scotland and London prayed for a restoration of the 'gifts of the Spirit.' . . . In response, gifts of 'tongues and prophesyings' came, it is said, upon a number of people . . . and in 1832, after the 'reality of the prophetic gift had been fully established by the experience of almost three years' the office of apostle was revived, a layman of the Church of England being the first person designated by the Holy Ghost to fill it. Others were designated from time to time until the number was completed and there were twelve. Several congregations were organized and in time the movement extended to other countries."—H. K. Carroll, *Religious forces of the United States*, pp. 84-85.—"The first church in the United States was organized at Potsdam, N. Y., and the second in New York City in 1851. In England the adherents of this communion are frequently called 'Irvingites' from the fact that the celebrated preacher Edward Irving

was prominent in the movement which resulted in its formation. . . . As the work of the church has been directed exclusively toward the awakening of the Christian Church to the hope of the Lord's coming and preparation therefor, it has included no foreign missionary, educational, or so-called institutional work, although the different churches care for the poor in their respective localities."—United States Census, *Religious bodies* 1916, pt. 2, p. 187.—Statistics available January 1, 1920, reported thirteen churches and 2,768 members of the denomination in the United States.—Federal council of the churches of Christ in America, *Year book of the churches* 1920, p. 198.—There are above eighty churches in the British Isles.—*Whitaker's almanack*, 1920, p. 260.—"Probably more numerous are the followers of the German and Dutch branch, which has increased in strength, though its separation from the English body has favored a tendency to fanatical extravagance and to the abandonment of the likeness to Roman Catholicism in externals."—*New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia*, v. 2, p. 450.

Also in: T. Kolde, *E. Irving*.—E. Miller, *History and doctrines of Irvingism*.—United States Census, *Religious bodies*, 1916, pt. 2, pp. 186-187.

CATHOLIC DEFENDERS, a political religious organization in Ireland in the eighteenth century. See IRELAND: 1760-1798.

CATHOLIC LEAGUE, a league formed in 1609 by Maximilian of Bavaria with the ecclesiastical princes and electors opposed to the Protestant union formed in 1608. See GERMANY: 1608-1610.

CATHOLIC LEAGUES, France. See HOLY LEAGUE.

CATHOLIC PARTY: Austria. See AUSTRIA: 1890-1901; AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1903-1905.

Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1830-1884; 1886-1909; 1894-1895; 1899-1900; 1902; 1904; 1910-1912; PAPACY: 1911-1914; SUFFRAGE, MANHOOD: Belgium: 1830-1921.

Central America. See CENTRAL AMERICA: 1821-1871.

France. See FRANCE: 1875-1889; 1900-1904; 1904-1908; PAPACY: 1911-1914.

Germany. See GERMANY: 1906-1907; 1908-1909.

Italy. See ITALY: 1898; 1899-1900; 1914; 1919; Internal affairs during post-bellum unrest; 1919; Significance of post-bellum elections; 1920; PAPACY: 1911-1914.

Rome. See ROME: Modern city: Political parties in Rome.

Spain. See SPAIN: 1885-1896; 1900-1909.

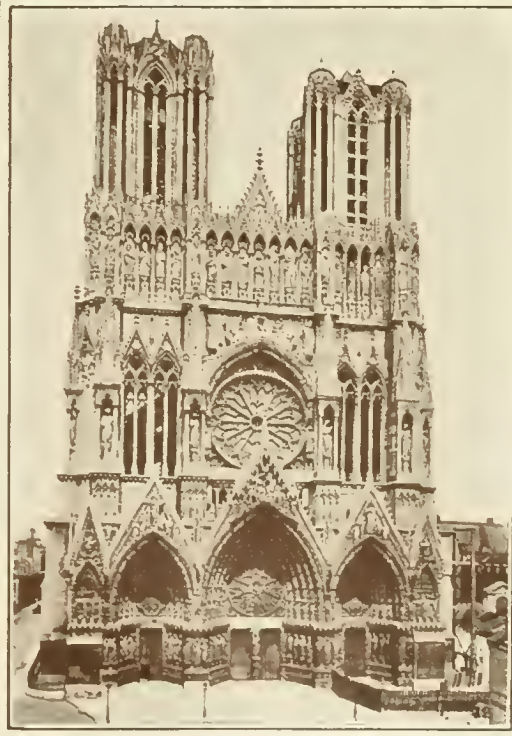
CATHOLIC RELIEF BILL (1793). See IRELAND: 1793.

CATHOLIC RENT. See IRELAND: 1811-1829.

CATHOLIC SCHOOLS, United States. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Religious bodies, etc.

CATHOLICISM. See PAPACY; CHRISTIANITY; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation, Map of Central Europe: 1618; also ABBEYS; BIBLE, ENGLISH: Bible used in Roman Catholic churches; BULLS, PAPAL; CHURCH AND STATE; COLLEGE OF CARDINALS; CONCORDAT; CONFESSION; CRUSADES; ECCLESIASTICAL LAW; JESUITS; MASS; MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: Statistics of Roman Catholic missions; MONASTICISM; PRIESTHOOD; UNIATE CHURCHES; VATICAN.

CATILINE, or Catilina, Lucius Sergius (c. 108-62 B. C.), Roman conspirator against whom Cicero directed four of his famous orations. See ROME REPUBLIC: B. C. 63.



FAMOUS CATHEDRALS

York Cathedral, England.

Rheims Cathedral, France.

Burgos Cathedral, Spain.



FAMOUS CATHEDRALS

Cathedral of Canterbury, England.

Milan Cathedral, Italy.

CATILLON, a town in France, southeast of Cambrai. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: w, 1.

CATO, Marcus Porcius (234-149 B. C.), Roman statesman. In 195 B. C., elected consul; 184, became censor, tireless advocate of the destruction of Carthage and author of various works on agriculture and history. See **HISTORY**: 17; **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Ancient: 1st century; **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 184-149.

CATO, Marcus Porcius (95-46 B. C.), Roman prætor; introduced reforms upon being elected quæstor 65 B. C.; became tribune 63 and prætor 56 B. C.; opponent of Cæsar; killed himself rather than surrender to him at Utica. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 63-58.

CATO STREET CONSPIRACY, a plot, conceived by Arthur Thistlewood, to murder the cabinet members while attending a dinner at Lord Harrowby's in London, on Feb. 23, 1820. See **ENGLAND**: 1820-1827.

CATRAIL, an ancient rampart, the remains of which are found in southern Scotland, running from the southeast corner of Peeblesshire to the south side of Liddesdale. It is supposed to have marked the boundary between the old Anglian kingdom of Bernicia and the territory of the British kings of Alcluth (Dumbarton).—W. F. Skene, *Celtic Scotland*, v. 1.

CATSKILL AQUEDUCT. See **AQUEDUCTS**: American: Catskill; **NEW YORK CITY**: 1905-1910.

CATTANI, VASSALI, MASNADA, SERVI.—The feudal barons of northern Italy were called Cattani. In the Florentine territory, "many of these Cattani, after having been subdued and made citizens of Florence, still maintained their feudal following, and were usually attended by troops of retainers, half slaves, half freedmen, called 'Uomini di Masnada,' who held certain possessions of them by the tenure of military service, took oaths of fidelity, and appear to have included every rank of person in the different Italian states according to the quality of the chief; but without any degradation of character being attached to such employment. . . . Some slight, perhaps unnecessary distinction is made between the 'Vassi,' who are supposed to have been vassals of the crown, and the 'Vassali,' who were the vassals of great lords. The 'Vavasours' were the vassals of great vassals. . . . Besides these military Villains, who were also called 'Fedeli,' there were two other kinds of slaves amongst the early Italians, namely prisoners of war and the labourers attached to the soil, who were considered as cattle in every respect except that of their superior utility and value. The former species of slavery disappeared much earlier than the latter."—H. E. Napier, *Florentine history*, v. 1, p. 624.

CATTARAUGUS RESERVATION. See **IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY**: Iroquoian family.

CATTARO (Serb, Kotor), the chief town and seaport of Dalmatia situated on a narrow strip between the Montenegro mountains and the Bocche di Cattaro. It is first mentioned under its ancient name, Ascrivium, about 168 B. C. After being held by Serbia, it passed to the possession of Venice in 1420. In 1797 it was given to Austria by the Treaty of Campo-Formio; in 1805 was given to Italy and in 1810 to France; restored to Austria at the Congress of Vienna (1814). In 1914 was used by the Austrians as a base in their Montenegrin campaign; ceded to Jugo-Slavia in 1919. See **LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF**; **WORLD WAR**: 1917: IX. Naval operations: b.

CATTI. See **CHATTI**.

CATULLUS, Gaius Valerius (c. 87-54 B. C.),

the greatest of Roman lyric poets. See **LATIN LITERATURE**: B. C. 82-43.

CATULUS, Quintus Lutatius (c. 120-61 B. C.), Roman consul. See **ROME**: Republic: B. C. 78-68.

CATUVELLANI, or Catuvellauni. See **BRITAIN**: Celtic Tribes.

CATYEUCHLANI. See **BRITAIN**: Celtic tribes.

CAUCASUS: Territory.—**Physical features**.—Mountaineers.—"Russia's far south-eastern province of Caucasia may be said roughly to occupy all the territory between the Black and Caspian Seas. Its northern boundaries are the Sea of Azof and the provinces of the Don and Astrakhan, its southern Persia and Turkey. It is separated by the Russians, and most effectively also by nature, into two parts, Ciscaucasia or European Caucasia and Trans- or Asiatic Caucasia. The natural separation is a strip of elevated country. . . . Beginning at each end in hills of moderate elevation, the height of the land soon rises as we progress towards the centre."—*Scottish Geographical Magazine*, May, 1917.—"The Caucasus is essentially a mountain country; its inhabitants, with the exception of the Christian population occupying the river valleys of the Rion and Koura, essentially mountaineers; for, just as, thanks to its mass and elevation, the great central range has largely influenced all other physical features, so together with them has it been the determining factor in the matter of population. The people of the Caucasus owe to it not only their salient characteristics, but their only existence. It may be said without exaggeration that the mountains made the men."—J. F. Baddeley, *Russian conquest of the Caucasus*, p. 1.—The estimated population in 1915 was 13,229,100 to an area of 181,173 English square miles.—See also **RUSSIA**: Map of Russia and the new border states.

Ethnology.—"One of the most remarkable characteristics of the Caucasus is that, while it has acted as a barrier between the north and the south, stopping and turning aside the movements of population, it has also preserved within its sheltered recesses fragments of the different peoples who from time to time have passed by it, or who have been driven by conquest into it from the lower country. Thus it is a kind of ethnological museum, where specimens may be found of countless races and languages, some of which probably belong to the early ages of the world; races that seem to have little affinity with their present neighbours, and of whose history we know nothing except what comparative philology can reveal. Even before the Christian era it was famous for the variety of its peoples. . . . No more inappropriate ethnological name was ever propounded than that of Caucasian for a fancied division of the human family, the cream of mankind, from which the civilized peoples of Europe are supposed to have sprung. For the Caucasus is to-day, as it was in Strabo's time, full of races differing in religion, language, aspect, manners, character."—J. Bryce, *Transcaucasia and Ararat*, ch. 2.

"In the middle ages the Caucasus was the route by which the wild Asiatic hordes, the Goths, Kharsars, Huns, Avars, Mongols, Tartars, and Arabs crossed from Asia into Europe; and consequently its secluded valleys contain a population composed of more different and distinct races than any other district in the world."—H. M. Chester, *Russia*, ch. 18.—"Taking Caucasia as a whole, numerically the most important element is the Russian, but the Russians are of course very much intermingled with native elements. . . . The most important nation included within the Caucasian limits is that of the Georgians. [See **GEORGIA**,

REPUBLIC OF: Geographical position.] . . . The third most numerous element is provided by the Armenian."—*Scottish Geographical Magazine*, May, 1917.—Among the other innumerable tribes, septa and clans of the Caucasus mountains are the Ossiets, the Imeritians, the Suans, the Tauli (Mountain Turks), and other Turkish tribes.

Culture.—Languages.—Public education.—"A well-known passage in Strabo states that Dioscurias, on or near the site of the present Soukhoun-Kalé, was frequented by people speaking seventy different languages. Pliny quotes Timosthenes to the effect that the number was 300, and says 'afterwards we Romans conducted our affairs there with the aid of 130 interpreters.' And Al-Azizi called the eastern Caucasus 'the Mountain of Languages' (Djebel-el Alsini) because, according to him, the people inhabiting it spoke 300 different tongues. Allowance must be made for Oriental exuberance of imagination, but even quite recently the number was given by sober Europeans as not less than forty for Daghestan alone, and it was supposed that many if not most of these were totally unconnected one with another. But recent researches have thrown quite a new light on this branch of comparative philology, and, according to F. Müller, the greater part of the languages of the Caucasus form one independent family consisting of three groups, namely, the Kartvel, the western and the eastern Caucasian, all originating in one parent language, and differentiated from it in the course of time in much the same way as the languages of the Hamite-Semitic family from a like common original."—J. F. Baddeley, *Russian conquest of the Caucasus*, p. xxiv.—Up to the time of the Russian conquest none of these mountain languages had ever been written, but the early introduction of Arabic supplied to some extent this deficiency. Following the conquest the Russian philologist, General Usler, invented alphabets and compiled grammars for several of the more important Caucasian languages, and these are now taught in the government schools which have been established under the auspices of the mountain administration at Vladikavkaz, Timour Khan Shoura, and Groznoi. [See also PHILLOGY: 23.]

"Public education was in the hands of the State, or was directly controlled by it. The number of persons able to read or write in the Caucasus in 1912 was only 17 per cent., and the percentage of schools to the population was very low. Some progress was made in the provision of instruction during 1912 and 1913, but the outbreak of war hindered the completion of the various schemes put forward. . . . Movable summer schools for the education of the nomad tribes were attempted for the first time in 1913 in the Governments of Erivan and Kutais. The industrial schools included . . . secondary and lower-grade technical schools, . . . trade schools, . . . lower-grade trade schools, and . . . charitable trade schools."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*, pp. 33-34.

Lack of sanitation.—"The science of hygiene is unknown in Caucasian villages, and medical aid is absent or inaccessible in country districts. Malaria is the characteristic disease of Caucasia, but small-pox, scarlet fever, measles, dysentery, typhus, and pneumonia are prevalent and cause many deaths. . . . Goitre and epilepsy are common among the natives of Svanetia. Leprosy occurs among the poorer classes of the Persian population. Elisavetopol is notorious for the so-called Sartin sickness, a kind of skin eruption. . . . Only in the fashionable health resorts, such as Kislovodsk, Jeliznovodsk and Pyatigorsk, there are

very up-to-date sanatoria established on the latest German lines, to which people come from all parts of Russia to take the waters and the cure."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*, pp. 8, 17.

Natural wealth.—Economic resources.—Industries.—Agriculture.—Land tenure.—River electricity.—Financial conditions.—Railways.—"The Caucasus is one of the richest regions of the globe. The land to which Jason and the Argonauts came in search of the Golden Fleece has proved a modern El Dorado. The Fountains of Eternal Fire that the Zoroastrians used to worship have been the making of the Moslem millionaire. A single tract ten miles square at Baku produced for some years half the world's supply of petroleum and even yet keeps Russia next to the United States in output."—E. E. Slosson, *From Baluchistan to Baku (Independent, Aug. 31, 1918)*.—"The fact remains that Caucasia contains great natural wealth, little exploited as yet. There are openings for development in the use of its forests and water power; in the exploitation of minerals and mineral springs; in the cultivation of fruit, vines, tea, and with the help of scientific irrigation of cotton; and in the production of silk. . . . The total area of forest land in Caucasia cannot be stated with certainty; the extent of the forests under the control of the Ministry of Forests was . . . more than half of its cultivated area. . . . Ciscaucasia and Transcaucasia have each their own characteristic industries, which, in the former case, are those proper to a region predominantly agricultural, and in the latter are dependent on the output of the oil-fields. Agriculture forms the occupation of the majority of the inhabitants of the Caucasus, though in many cases it is pursued in combination with other activities. . . . Ciscaucasia is far in advance of Transcaucasia in respect of agricultural methods, a fact due in part to the more enterprising character of the Cossack population and in part to the less isolated geographical position of the northern provinces. In both divisions of the country, however, there has in recent years been a notable advance in agricultural science, evidenced by the rapid development of co-operation. . . . The Caucasus as a whole has no fixed system of land tenure, nor are any of the characteristic Russian features of land-holding found there. The various kinds of landowner may be divided into six classes: the old nobility of Georgia; Tatar and Armenian peasant holders; nomad pastoral tribes, who occupy large areas of steppe land, especially in Stavropol Province; Russian settlers, placed on land vacated after the conquest; the Russian State, which owned large areas, mainly forest; and the Imperial family, which had acquired valuable appanages in the Caucasus. No figures are available to show the proportions in which the land is held by these various owners. . . . Moreover, recent events have to a great extent obliterated the old divisions, and new claims to ownership of much valuable land will have to be settled in the course of time."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*.—"The water-power offered by the rapid streams of the Caucasus has hitherto been almost entirely neglected, but in 1914 an important scheme was set on foot for the erection of two large power-stations, one on the Terek . . . and the other at Elenoffka, in Erivan, utilizing the waters of Lake Gokoba. . . . Electric power was steadily replacing steampower on the oil-fields in 1914."—*Ibid.*, pp. 48-91.—"The paper money and coinage current in Caucasia is that of the Russian Empire, but certain silver coins of the old Georgian currency are still in circulation."—*Ibid.*, p. 89.—"The practical devaluation of this

paper, and the lack of any manufacturing or immediately available resources in the country affected all forms of commerce until trade became a mere matter of petty bartering. The peasants were swamped with more money than they could use, until they refused to exchange their crops for it. Due to arrangements with the Government, a certain amount of manufactured goods was imported, but, in spite of the enormous per capita figures in rubles, toward the end of the year practically all imports ceased, owing to the small purchasing power of the population. . . . The three republics composing . . . the Caucasus are practically stripped of all manufactured articles. Five years of war . . . have depleted the country and forced 75 per cent of the reputable firms to close their doors."—*Supplement to commerce reports, Nov. 10, 1920*.—"The banks operating in the Caucasus are with few exceptions branches of Moscow or Petrograd establishments long ago nationalized and looted."—*Ibid.*—"Road communication between the Caucasus and Russia are very few, the only ones of importance being the road along the Caspian littoral and one from Stavropol to Rostov-on-Don."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*.—"The Transcaucasia Railway before the Russian revolution was a single system comprising a direct line from Batum, on the Black Sea, to Baku, the port of the Caspian Sea, and a branch extending from Tiflis southward through Alexandropol to Kars and Erivan, but it has since been split up among the three Caucasian States. At the time of the dissolution of the Transcaucasian cabinet each new government seized such rolling stock and railway materials as were within its borders and claimed them for its own."—*Commerce reports, Nov. 10, 1920, p. 4*.

Historical tradition.—"The Caucasus has always possessed a certain fascination not for the Russians only, but also for western nations, and is peculiarly rich in historical traditions, and in memories of ancient times and ancient nations. Here, to the rocks of Elbruz, Prometheus lay chained; and to Colchis, where the Phasis flowed towards the sea, through ever green woods, came the Argonauts. The present Kutais is the old capital of King Æetes, near which, in the sacred grove of Ares, hung the golden fleece. The gold mines which the Russians discovered in 1864 were apparently known to the Greeks, whose colony, Dioscurias, was an assemblage of 300 diverse nationalities. . . . Here on the coasts of the stormy and dangerous Black Sea arose the famous Pontine kingdom which in spite of its valiant resistance under Mithridates, fell a victim to Roman aggression. Along the rivers Kura and Rion ran the old commercial road from Europe to Asia, which enriched the Venetians and the Genoese in the middle ages. Up to recent times this trade consisted not only of all sorts of other merchandise, but of slaves; numberless girls and women were conveyed to Turkish harems and there exercised an important influence on the character of the Tartar and Mongol races."—H. M. Chester, *Russia, ch. 18*.

B. C. 323-A. D. 371.—Conquest by Alexander.—**First conflict with Persia.**—"To attempt to write the history of the Caucasus would not only be very difficult, but hardly profitable. Until the Russian occupation the Caucasus had no unity. Geographically it is divided into two distinct parts by the great range. Ethnographically it is but a collection of miscellaneous samples. Historically it has always been split up between a number of different foreign States, and more or less independent principalities and tribes. . . . Russia is the first Power which has succeeded in uniting these

scattered fragments."—L. Villari, *Fire and sword in the Caucasus, p. 26*.—"Recognized history begins with the conquest of the country by Alexander the Great in 323 B. C., and the subsequent expulsion of the Macedonian governors by Pharnawaz, son of a prince of the original dynasty and a Persian mother. The chronicles of the period that follows make constant mention of the Abkhassians, who held the Black Sea coast and range from the Phasis northwestwards; of the Asses or Ossets (Ossetes), a Median tribe whose territory lay in the hills from Mount Elbruz to the Dariel Pass; and of the incursions of Mongol Khazars and Alans from the steppes of the Caspian Sea, to meet which the fortress of Dariel was built at the northern end of the defile in 140 B. C. Persia, in war and peace, was the predominant factor, though her hold on the allegiance of Caucasia was insecure. At a later period the introduction of Christianity, about 318, reopened the conflict with Persia. Shapur II ravaged the country in 371, and the general left by him to hold the conquered lands built a fortress on the site of the present city of Tiflis."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54, p. 20*.

1080-1393.—Creation of greater Georgia.—Conflicts with Turks and Greeks.—Invasions of the Mongols.—"The only part of the Caucasus which had a more or less consecutive national history was the kingdom of Georgia. . . . David III. (1080), the Renovator, at last succeeded in expelling the Mohammedans and creating a new and greater Georgian kingdom, extending from the Black Sea to the Caspian, and from the Caucasus to Kars. He reorganized the country, suppressed brigandage and heresy, built churches, opened schools, and made Georgia a centre of culture and civilization. In 1184 the celebrated Queen Tamara came to the throne—a name still venerated as a glorious if half-legendary tradition wherever the Georgian tongue is spoken. Almost every church and every castle is attributed to her, and a whole host of legends has gathered about her personality. She does seem to have been a great woman, and to have raised her country to a high place among nations. She waged war successfully against both the Turks and the Greeks, and after the fall of the Byzantine Empire at the hands of the Crusaders she helped to form the Empire of Trebizond. But at her death in 1212 the edifice, laboriously raised, crumbled once more. Her incapable successors were unable to resist the ever-recurring onslaughts of the Moslems from the south and the highlanders from the north. First Genghis Khan's Mongol hordes, then the Persians, then again in 1236, the Mongols raided Georgia and made themselves for a time masters of the country. For the next three hundred years it is a prey to invasion, civil war, and Mongol oppression. In 1387 and 1393 it suffered at the hands of Timur the Tartar, who desolated the land with fire and sword."—L. Villari, *Fire and sword in the Caucasus, p. 28*.

1400-1737.—Turkish and Persian domination.—Russian relations established.—Both the Turks and the Persians at different periods held the nominal sovereignty of the entire Caucasus, but so far as the mountaineers were concerned it was only nominal. Army after army was sent out against them, only to return broken and defeated. In Georgia "the XV. and XVI. centuries are one long record of Turkish and Persian invasions and occupations, as a result of which several of the native princes became Moslems, and Oriental customs penetrated into the country. Massacre, bloodshed, treachery, and cruelty are the staple elements of Georgian history during this period, lit up at rare

intervals by flashes of heroism and sublime patriotism. The Persians were now the real rulers of Georgia, but they usually delegated their authority to native kings of proven fidelity. Some of these honestly tried to better the conditions of the people, and aspired to ultimate independence. One of them, Vakhtang VI. (1675-1737), although outwardly professing Islam—to which fact he owed his nomination as King of Georgia by the Persians—managed to re-establish a measure of order in the land, to unite the scattered provinces, and to promote an intellectual revival. It was in his reign that relations with Russia were first established, for with the help of the Muscovite Tsars he hoped to shake himself free of Persia and obtain protection from his various dangerous neighbours. The Moslem Powers, by their perpetual incursions and their savage oppression, threw the Christians of the Caucasus into the arms of Russia and led to their own eventual downfall.”—*Ibid.*, p. 28.

1736-1799.—Temporary friendship of Persia.—Tragic reign of Irakli.—Negotiation of Russo-Georgian treaty.—“In 1736 Nadir Shah had succeeded to the Persian throne, and was friendly to the Georgians. He freed the country from the Turks, and eventually placed Irakli II. on the throne. Irakli (1744-1798) was one of the most remarkable men of his time, and excited the admiration of all Europe; under him Georgia revived and prospered, and became for the last time a powerful and independent State. Culture and civilization spread, order and unity were achieved, and the neighbouring Tartar khanates reduced to vassalage; Imeretia, however, remained a separate kingdom under King Solomon. On the death of Nadir Shah Persia fell into a state of anarchy and civil war, and Irakli declared himself independent. But the Turkish danger became menacing once more, and the two Georgian missions to Joseph II. of Austria, asking for help against the Sultan, having failed, Irakli was persuaded to ally himself with Russia in 1769, as that Power was meditating a new Turkish campaign in which Austria promised to take part. War was declared, and the Russo-Georgian armies met the Turks near Akhaltzykh, but Irakli, like Vakhtang, was left in the lurch by his treacherous allies, who retired from the field of battle. By a superhuman effort he succeeded in defeating the Turks single-handed; but they soon returned in greater force, and Persian hordes, under the ferocious Aga Mohammed Khan, also poured into the unhappy land. Again Georgia was fearfully devastated, and in 1795 the capital Tiflis was burnt and captured by the Persians. Irakli managed to recapture the city a short time afterwards and expel the Persians from the country, but he was weakened and broken, and in 1798 he died. His son and successor, George XIII., entered into negotiations with Persia, but the Tzar Paul outbid the Shah, and in 1799 a Russo-Georgian treaty was concluded and confirmed in the following year.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 30-31.

1801-1877.—Russian conquest.—Capture of ShamyI.—Subjugation of the Circassians.—Penetration into Armezia.—“At the time of the Russian conquest Western Transcaucasia was divided into the kingdoms of Georgia, Imeretia, and Mingrelia, which had at an earlier period formed a single State. The Eastern provinces (Baku, Elizavetpol, and Erivan) were under Persian supremacy; Batum and Kars belonged to Turkey, who also had a nominal suzerainty over the Circassians. The mountain ranges were divided among a number of practically independent clans. This state of things had existed in a more or less modi-

fied form for several centuries, and in the wildly chaotic conditions of the country frontiers were uncertain and sovereign rights but vain things.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 26-27.—“So early as 1492 the king of Kakhelia had sought Russian assistance against the Turks and Persians. . . . Mingrelia in 1638, and Imeretia in 1650, swore allegiance to Russia in return for help against the Porte, which the Tsars were not able to furnish. . . . Giorgi XIII was utterly unable to cope with the situation, and, in their extremity, the Georgian nobles offered the country to the Tzar. The deed of surrender was signed by the king in 1799 and in 1801 Georgia, Mingrelia, Guria, and Imeretia were declared by the Tzar Alexander I to be Russian provinces.”—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54, pp. 22-23.*

“But it was not till 1859 that the defeat and capture of the famous SchamyI brought about the final subjugation of the country. . . . In 1785 the mountaineers had been incited to take arms by a so-called prophet Scheick Mansur, but he was seized and banished to Solovetsk, on the White Sea. In 1820 a Mollah, Kasi by name, made his appearance in Daghestan, and began to preach the ‘Kasawat,’ that is, holy war against the Russians. To him succeeded another equally fanatical adventurer, Hamset Beg. The work which they had begun was carried on by SchamyI, who far surpassed his predecessors in all the qualities which make up a successful guerilla chief, and who maintained the unequal conflict against the enemies of his country for 25 years with singular good fortune, undaunted courage, untiring energy, and conspicuous ability. . . . The capture of the mountain fastness of Achulgo in 1839 seemed to be the death-blow of SchamyI’s cause, for it brought about the loss of the whole of Daghestan, the very focus of the Murides’ activity. SchamyI barely escaped being made a prisoner, and was forced to yield up his son, Djammel-Edden, only nine years of age as a hostage. . . . In 1840 the Tchetchens, who had previously been pacified, rose in arms once more, and Daghestan and other parts of the country followed their example. . . . At last, by means of a great concentration of troops on all the threatened points, by fortifying the chief central stations, and by forming broad military roads throughout the district, the Russians succeeded in breaking down SchamyI’s resistance. He now suffered one reverse after another. His chief fastnesses, Dargo, Weden, and Guni, were successively stormed and destroyed. . . . In 1864 the pacification of the whole country was accomplished, and a few years later the abolition of serfdom was proclaimed at Tiflis. After the subjugation of the various mountain tribes, the Circassians had the choice given them by the Government of settling on the low country along the Kuban, or of emigrating to Turkey. The latter course was chosen by the bulk of the nation, urged, thereto, in great measure, by envoys from Turkey. As many as 400,000 are said to have come to the ports, where the Sultan had promised to send vessels to receive them; but delays took place, and a large number died of want and disease. Those who reached Turkey were settled on the west coasts of the Black Sea, in Bulgaria and near Varna, and proved themselves most troublesome and unruly subjects. Most of those who at first remained in Circassia followed their fellow-countrymen in 1874.”—H. M. Chester, *Russia, ch. 18.*—“In the period preceding the Russo-Turkish war of 1877, Russia had been engaged in consolidating the position in the Transcaucasus, which she had acquired by her voluntary union with the ancient kingdom of Georgia. This had given her a hold over the lowlands lying

immediately South of the main range of the Caucasus, and had established her upon the first step of the ladder leading on to the Central Asian plateau. But after 1877, by the occupation of Kars, Russia acquired a footing upon the next step of the ladder in Greater Armenia."—M. P. Price, *War and revolution in Asiatic Russia*, p. 51.

ALSO IN: F. Mayne, *Life of Nicholas I.*, pt. 1, ch. 11 and 14.—S. M. Schmucker, *Life and reign of Nicholas I.*, ch. 21.—J. F. Braddeley, *Russian conquest of the Caucasus*.

1801-1917.—Changes in administration after the Russian conquest.—Reaction under Nicholas I.—Report of the Viceroy in 1913.—The Caucasians acknowledged no general ruler before the Russian conquest, as each tribe or community had its own system of government according to its needs or desires, ranging from the absolute monarchies to simple republics. "By its provisions [the treaty of 1799 between Georgia and Russia] King George, the magnates, the clergy, and the people of Georgia declared that they wished to become Russian subjects; but the crown was to be vested in George and his heirs, who were to retain the chief authority in the country but without legislative powers; the people were to enjoy immunity from taxation for twelve years; the number of Russian troops in Georgia was not to exceed 6,000, and military service for the Georgians was to take the form of a national militia; the Georgian Church was to be independent; and Georgian was to remain the official and educational language. This is how the treaty was observed. On the death of George his son, Prince David, succeeded, and was waiting to be confirmed; but in the spring of 1802 General Knorring entered Tiflis with a Russian army. On May 8th he summoned the nobles to hear the Tzar's manifesto read in the Sion Cathedral. Every one expected merely that the treaty of 1800 would be confirmed; but the manifesto declared instead that the Russian administration was to be introduced 'for the good of the country,' and that an oath of allegiance was expected of the Georgian magnates. This they indignantly refused, and they were about to return to their homes when they found themselves surrounded by troops outside the church. A great uproar followed, and some rioting; David was deposed, and a number of prominent Georgians were arrested. The Russians treated Georgia like a conquered country, the officials and officers beat and ill-used the natives, and outraged their women.

"The result was that risings broke out in various districts, the people refused to pay taxes, and David was approached by a deputation of Georgians and Armenians who offered to organize a general revolution; but he refused, from fear of the Russians, and was eventually sent to live in Russia. The state of the country, however, became so alarming that the Government decided on a more conciliatory policy. Prince Tsitsiani, a Georgian noble of high rank related to the Royal house, was appointed Governor-General, and commissioned to introduce an aristocratic constitution on a national basis. This was done, and for some years Georgia enjoyed a more or less native and moderately liberal government. Freed from the danger of Mohammedan and highland raids, the people developed, commerce prospered, and literature and culture revived. It seemed as though the country would become one of the most loyal and peaceful as well as one of the most progressive provinces of the Empire. But under Nicholas I. reaction set in, the censorship became more severe, and the Government tended to curtail the

privileges of the people. This produced discontent, and led to the conspiracy of 1832, which was discovered before it had time to achieve anything, and numbers of Georgians of the best families were imprisoned or exiled. Gradually every vestige of constitutional government was suppressed, even the Church was placed under the control of the Russian Holy Synod and a Russian appointed Exarch, and the country reduced to the status of a conquered province once more. Universal military service was introduced, and although it was never applied in its full rigour throughout the Caucasus, Georgians were sent to serve in Russian regiments in Europe and Siberia, while Russian army corps were quartered in Georgia. Russian became the official language, everything was done to expel the Georgian tongue from the schools, and an attempt made to Russify the country still further by settling Russian colonies in Transcaucasia. To-day [1906] the Caucasus forms a Viceroyalty divided into twelve provinces (seven *gubernii*, or governments, and five *oblasti*, or military territories) governed like any other part of the Russian Empire, with the same type of administration and the same bureaucratic machinery. But as in certain other frontier regions, the Governor-General or Viceroy has authority over the provincial governors, and even wider powers than those of ordinary Russian governors, and the *zemstva*, or elective provincial councils, have not been introduced, although there are elective municipal councils. A further difference is that the personnel of the bureaucracy is even worse than that of European Russia. According to a secret document of the police department, which was shown to me, during the period 1894-1898 the following officials were convicted of robbery, peculation, murder, and other crimes, and punished: 10 district governors (*Uyezdneye Nachalniki*), 9 assistant governors, 83 *pristavi* (police commissioners), and two town chiefs of police! If these were actually punished one may be quite sure that a far larger number committed crimes which remained unpunished."—L. Villari *Fire and sword in the Caucasus*, pp. 32-34.—"The title and power of Viceroy of the Caucasus were revived in 1905; the Viceroyalty had been abolished in 1882 in favour of a Governor-Generalship, directed and controlled by a Caucasian Committee at Petersburg. . . . When the Revolution occurred in 1917, the Viceroy was recalled."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*, pp. 32-33.—"The Viceroy of the Caucasus, Prince Vorontsov-Dashkov, published a report . . . August [1913] upon the general condition of the province (which appeared in a *Times* supplement on Russia). He claims that the many racial and religious differences which exist do not prevent the populations from living and working harmoniously together, as Russian citizens. The Viceroy's own liberal and large-minded policy is to be credited with this happy result. Russian rule may not be so impartial as British rule in India, but on other scores it is superior. As Mr. James Bryce pointed out more than thirty years ago, Russian officials have none of that coldness and hauteur towards 'natives' such as our civil servants are inclined to show to the races under their rule. Partly apathy and partly good-nature in the Russian enables him to mix with his Asiatic subjects on terms of social equality. (See Bryce, 'Transcaucasia and Ararat,' p. 110.) Taking the whole province, the Moslem population is numerically preponderant, and is the more liable to fanaticism owing to the vicinity of the great Moslem states of the Sultan and the Shah. Yet in spite of these facts, the preaching of Pan-Islamism

nas been of no avail—Tartars, Persians, and the rest, all remain contented as subjects of Russia.”—R. H. Buxton, *Russian rule in the Caucasus* (*World's Work*, Jan., 1914).

1902-1917.—Independence movement.—Transcaucasian republic.—Union of the independent states of the mountaineers.—“For nearly a century this region, inhabited by small nationalities of pronounced racial feelings and varied religions, has been welded together by the constraining force of a single dominant power. The Mohammedan hill-tribes, conquered by superior force, unprogressive, brave, and violent by nature, valued their lost independence more than the peace which Russia's strong hand and impartial justice secured. The Christians, on the other hand, at first grateful for the protection afforded them, began, with increased education and a higher standard of living, to resent the effects of autocratic government and the cramping economic conditions. . . . It was among these elements (Armenians and Tartars) that trouble first broke out (1902-5) in the terrible riots at Baku at the time of general unrest in Russia which followed the war with Japan [see Russia: 1905 (April-November)]. Political agitation had its effect on the Western Georgians, awaking dreams of autonomy which the ill-judged government of the last few years had put them in a state to welcome. The disturbances of 1902-5, though they were sternly repressed, left seeds of unrest behind them; and the provinces were probably on the road to a serious effort to secure autonomy, when the European War, and later the Russian Revolution, shattered the existing system.”—*Ibid.*, pp. 29-35.—“Yet after a century of Russian rule, with more or less strongly accentuated Russifying tendencies, in spite of the spread of the Russian tongue and of Russian ideas and customs, and the supremacy of Russian bureaucratic methods, the Caucasus, or at least Transcaucasia, has certainly not become Russian. The Georgians, the Armenians, the Tartars, and many of the minor nationalities, civilized or barbarous, Christian or Mohammedan, peaceful or warlike, have preserved their languages and their racial characteristics intact, and in many cases are imbued with strong nationalist feelings. There is no hatred of the Russians such as there is in Poland, or such as there was in Italy against Austria, but there is a grim resolution to preserve language, nationality, and religion against all attacks, and at all events among the more civilized elements, a determination to put an end once and for all to Muscovite autocracy and bureaucracy.”—L. Villari, *Fire and sword in the Caucasus*, pp. 36.—“When the Revolution occurred in 1917, the various nationalities in the Caucasus arranged representative National Assemblies; but, as chaos in the Empire increased, relations were broken off with the Central Government. A separate Transcaucasian Republic was formed, in the Government of which Armenians, Tartars, and Georgians were equally represented.”—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54*, p. 33.—“The news of the fall of Bagdad reached Tiflis on March 12th, [1917] and created scarcely any interest whatever. People were thinking of other things. The Duma had just been dismissed, and news of disorders in Petrograd was secretly coming through. For the next two days there was the most intense suppressed excitement in the city. The Grand Duke Nicholas kept back all the telegrams from Petrograd, refusing to allow any to get out. Nevertheless the news was public property. One of the telegraph clerks knew the ciphers, and kept all the revolutionary societies informed. The revolutionary leaders of course decided to take the

signal from Petrograd, but it was too early to move in the Caucasus until it was certain that the revolution was secure in the capital. If it should fail, the Caucasus by itself could do nothing. On the night of the 14th, Kutchubiesky ordered the arrest of all the members of the Armenian Dashnaktsutun and of the Georgian Socialist-Revolutionary societies. But the gendarmes, instead of being able to effect the arrest, found on the morning of the 15th that they themselves were arrested by armed bodies of these same revolutionaries and locked up in their own quarters. On the same day came the news that Nicolas the Second had abdicated; and then the flood was let loose. On the 16th and 17th the whole fabric of the Russian imperial authority was in process of dissolution. First the police vanished off the streets; then the Government offices closed down; then bands of revolutionaries and students arrested the chief and his wife. . . . An executive committee was formed of the revolutionary societies, of the garrison, which had gone over wholesale to the Revolution, and of the principal middle-class members of the City Council. Sunday March 18th was the great day in the Caucasus. The Revolution was then known to be secure in the Asiatic provinces; the old government had collapsed, and the hour for rejoicing had arrived. On the morning of that day . . . the streets were full of silent and serious people walking in the same direction. They were all going to a great mass meeting of the Caucasian people on the Nahalofsky square to welcome this great day in the history of Russia. In a large open space six raised platforms had been built, and round them was assembled a vast multitude composed of almost every element in the multi-racial population of the Caucasus. There were wild mountain tribesmen, Lesgians, Avars, Cechens and Swanetians in their long black cloaks and sheepskin caps. . . . The scene was indeed a memorable one. First upon the platforms mounted the Social-Democrat leaders, who until now had held their meetings in secret places. They called upon the people to preserve order and to proceed immediately to elect deputies for the Council of Workers and Soldiers.”—M. P. Price, *War and revolution in Asiatic Russia*, pp. 279-282.—“The Mohammedan mountaineers at the outbreak of the revolution united with the Kuban Cossacks to the north in the formation of a joint republic, but the two parties soon quarreled over the land question and have been fighting ever since. The Mohammedans in December, 1917, set up a separate republic called the ‘Union of the Independent States of the Mountaineers of the Caucasus’ with Vladikavkas as its capital and Colonel Tchernoev, a liberal minded Lesgian, as its president. . . . The Kuban Cossacks, who also claim the territory north of the Caucasian range, have set up a republic with General Krasnov as its head and Ekaterinodar as its capital. Still farther north are the Don Cossacks with a capital at Rostov. Both the Don and Kuban Cossacks have called in German aid to maintain their ‘independence’ against Great Russia and the Ukraine.”—E. E. Slosson, *From Baluchistan to Baku* (*Independent*, Aug. 31, 1918).

1915.—Events in World War.—Turkish massacre of Armenians. See WORLD WAR: 1915: VI. Turkey: d.

1916.—Caucasus front. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: d, 1.

1917-1919.—War with Turkey.—British occupation.—By the Brest-Litovsk treaty Russia returned to Turkey not only the territory taken during the World War, which extended to Erzerum

and Trebizond, but also the districts of Batum, Ardahan and Kars, taken by it in the war of 1878. The Armenians and the Georgians, the main inhabitants of these regions, however, joined in an effort to prevent Turkey from annexing this territory, and in the resultant war Turkey succeeded not only in defending its acquisitions, but also in extending its possessions to the foot of the Caucasus mountains. Its further advances were halted by the British, who occupied the Caspian port Enzeli, and the Germans, who were reported to have occupied Poti, just north of Batum, and Tiflis. "At the beginning of 1919 the Caucasus was still occupied by British troops, with headquarters at Tiflis, a considerable force at Baku, and detachments at the larger points along the railway. The occupation lasted until August 15, 1919."—*Supplement to commerce reports, Nov. 10, 1920.*—See also WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: b; b, 1, 3.

1918-1920.—Formation of the three independent republics.—Azerbaijan, the Tatar republic.—"Since May 26, 1918, when the Transcaucasian Diet proclaimed its own dissolution, there have existed three independent republics in what used to be Russian Caucasia—the Armenian Republic, the Georgian Republic, and a Tatar Republic in the eastern Caucasus."—*Caucasia, Handbook No. 54, p. 35.*—"Georgia is Christian, and its Iberian population are in the majority; Azerbaijan is Tartar and Moslem; Armenia is made up of the former Provinces that composed Russian Armenia, less the part that went to Azerbaijan in the split, and the majority of its people are the blood brothers of the Armenians of Turkey in Asia."—*International conciliation, June, 1920, p. 288.*—Azerbaijan, the Tatar republic with Baku as its capital, "extends along the lower part of the western Caspian coast from the Caucasus range to the Persian province of Azerbaijan. Azerbaijan forms a state of about 30,000 square miles, including the Russian provinces of Baku, Elizavetpol and Daghestan, and some Persian territory to the south, with a population of more than 3,000,000. . . . Because the Transcaucasian Tartars first invaded the Persian province of Azerbaijan and later moved northward to their present location, they are described as Azerbaijan Tartars, and hence the name of their Republic. . . . The Tartars of the latter territory . . . represent a mixture of races and tribes, with Turkish blood predominating in their veins. . . . The Turks and Tartars occupied these regions in comparatively recent times. The Persians . . . were there before Ghengiz Khan. They still have there a considerable minority in the population. There are in fact nearly two hundred thousand people in Azerbaijan, in the province of Baku, who are of Iranian stock. These are the Tates, who speak a Persian dialect. But in religion they are one with the Tartars, being Shiah Mohammedans. Besides, they have identified themselves with Tartar nationalism, adopting even the latter's language and traditions.—I. D. Levine, *Resurrected nations, pp. 303-304.*—Azerbaijan was recognized by the Allies in December, 1919. Following a clash between its government and Soviet Russia, the Mussavat cabinet fell, and the Military Revolutionary Committee took over the control of the new republic. Apprehending the interference of the Allies, the committee appealed to Soviet Russia for assistance, and on April 28, 1920, Baku was occupied by Bolshevik forces. Soviets are reported to have been established in Zaku, on June 20, and in Karabagh and Zangezuron, the territory claimed both by the Tatars and Armenians, on July 20. The Azerbaijan mili-

tia has been disbanded and replaced by Russian workmen, and all property has been nationalized and requisitioned.

CAUCASUS, Indian.—"The real Caucasus was the most lofty range of mountains known to the Greeks before [Alexander's conquests], and they were generally regarded as the highest mountains in the world. Hence when the army of Alexander came in sight of the vast mountain barrier [of the Hindu-Kush] that rose before them as they advanced northward from Arachosia, they seem to have at once concluded that this could be no other than the Caucasus." Hence the name Caucasus given by the Greeks to those mountains; "for the name of Hindoo Koosh, by which they are still known, is nothing more than a corruption of the Indian Caucasus."—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography, ch. 12, note q.*

CAUCI. See IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants.

CAUCUS: Origin.—In 1634—the fourth year of the colony of Massachusetts Bay—the freemen of the colony chose Dudley instead of Winthrop for governor. The next year they "followed up the doctrine of rotation in office by choosing Haynes as governor, a choice agreed upon by deputies from the towns, who came together for that purpose previously to the meeting of the court—the first instance of 'the caucus system' on record."—R. Hildreth, *History of the United States, v. 1, p. 224.*—"Gordon, writing in 1774, says: 'More than fifty years ago Mr. Samuel Adams' father and twenty others, one or two from the north end of the town where all the ship business is carried on, used to meet, make a caucus, and lay their plan for introducing certain persons into places of trust and power. When they had settled it they separated, and each used their particular influence within his own circle. He and his friends would furnish themselves with ballots, including the names of the parties fixed upon, which they distributed on the days of election. By acting in concert, together with a careful and extensive distribution of ballots, they generally carried their elections to their own mind. In like manner it was that Mr. Samuel Adams first became a representative for Boston.' (History of the American Revolution, vol. 1., p. 365.) February, 1763, Adams writes in his diary: 'This day I learned that the caucus club meets at certain times in the garret of Tom Dawes, the adjutant of the Boston regiment. He has a large house and he has a movable partition in his garret which he takes down and the whole club meets in one room. There they smoke tobacco till you can not see from one end of the room to the other. There they drink flip, I suppose, and there they choose a moderator who puts questions to the vote regularly; and selectmen, assessors, collectors, wardens, fire wards and representatives are regularly chosen before they are chosen in the town. Uncle Fairfield, Story, Ruddock, Adams, Cooper, and a *rudis indigestoque melle* of others are members. They send committees to wait on the merchants' club, and to propose in the choice of men and measures. Captain Cunningham says, they have often solicited him to go to these caucuses; they have assured him benefit in his business, etc.' (Adams' Works, vol. ii., p. 144.) Under the title Caucus should be considered the congressional nominating caucus; the caucuses of legislative assemblies; primary elections, still known outside the larger cities as caucuses."—F. W. Whitridge, *Caucus system (Economic tracts, No. viii, No. 4 of series of 1882, pp. 5-6).*

Applications of term.—"The word caucus has . . . a variety of applications. It is often used as

a synonym for primary. . . . In States where the regular nominations are made by direct primary election, a much larger field is left for preliminary conference within the party with reference to the selection of candidates for nomination. To such a conference the name caucus is given. Strictly speaking, indeed, the caucus is a secret meeting of a few party members to discuss questions of political policy, to determine in what manner the more open and public assembly of the primary shall be guided in its action, and to select the candidates to be brought before it. This was an original use of the term in colonial days, and there was early associated with the caucus the idea of underhand political intrigue and secret machination for securing political control. For the sake of clearness it is well to distinguish by name the free, open course of action by party voters for setting the forces of government in motion and nominating candidates for office, from the secret conclave of a few party organizers who meet to lay plans for manipulating the party agencies in order to accomplish personal ends. The first is more properly called the primary, the second the caucus. The primary is never secret. If it is ever made so, it is no longer in any true sense a primary, but becomes a caucus in the evil sense of that term."—J. Macy, *Party organization and machinery*, pp. 59-60.—See also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: United States: Nomination by Congressional caucus.—"This expression [primary elections] is rapidly supplanting the use of the word caucus to designate the meetings of voters, for the direct nomination of candidates, or for the election of delegates to nominating conventions. In the country districts generally, and particularly in New England, the word caucus is still used. In the cities the increase of the safeguards which have been found necessary for the ascertainment of the results of a caucus have surrounded it with so many formalities that it is properly becoming known as a primary, or preliminary, election."—F. W. Whitridge, *Caucus System*, (*Economic Tracts*, No. viii, No. 4, of series of 1882, p. 13).—See also PRIMARIES IN THE UNITED STATES.—"There is, however, another use of the word caucus which is applied to a perfectly legitimate assembly of the party members of a legislative body. It is customary for the members of a party in each house of a state legislature to meet 'in caucus' to determine the course of party action in the house, to choose candidates for the offices to be filled by the house, or to agree upon the attitude which the party shall hold toward specific measures before the legislature. The state assembly has also its joint caucus of each party for the two houses taken together, and its most important business is perhaps the nomination of United States senators when party exigencies seem to demand it. In like manner, the party members in the House of the Federal legislature meet in caucus for similar purposes. Certain historical applications of the term caucus should also be mentioned. In the somewhat chaotic condition of political organization in early party history the legislative caucus, which was made up of the party members of the two houses of a state assembly, sometimes assumed the right to nominate candidates for state and even for Federal offices. The congressional caucus composed of the party members of the two Houses of Congress exercised for almost the whole of the first quarter of the last century the function of choosing presidential candidates. These secret gatherings, arrogating to themselves the guidance of party conduct, were never acceptable to the people, and in course of time gave place to the more popular

party agent, the nominating convention."—J. Macy, *Party organization and machinery*, pp. 60-61.—"Aspirants for . . . positions [chosen by the Caucuses of the state legislatures] not unfrequently attend at the place of meeting of the legislature in time to receive the members as they arrive, and to make personal supplication for their votes in caucus. Every sort of influence is brought to bear to obtain such votes, candidates often opening 'headquarters,' a sort of a club-room with free entertainment for all comers, and in one flagrant case a candidate for the senate was accompanied to the state capital by his wife, and his nomination and election were alleged to have been entirely due to the success of her personal appeals to members of the legislature for their votes in the party caucus. The whole of these influences are brought to bear to secure, not the votes of members in the legislature, but only the caucus nomination."—F. W. Whitridge, *Caucus system (Economic tracts, No. viii, No. 4, of series of 1882, p. 12)*.

United States: 1776-1800.—Growth.—Rise of congressional nominating caucus.—"Writers often, in referring to the caucus, quote John Adams as follows: 'Our revolution was effected by caucuses. The federal constitution was formed by caucuses, and the federal administrations, for twenty years, have been supported or subverted by caucuses. There is little more of the kind now than there was twenty years ago. Alexander Hamilton was the greatest organist that ever played upon this instrument.' After having recalled the intrigues to which Hamilton lent himself against him (Adams) and the cabals which took place over the presidential elections, he adds: 'This detail sufficiently shows that caucuses have been from the beginning. There is, no doubt, some regard to public good in the prosecution of these measures. They are considered as necessary. There is also ambition, avarice, envy, jealousy and revenge. As these causes, good and bad, have hitherto produced such combinations, and as these causes will continue to the end of the world, we may presume the combinations will continue too. . . . You cannot prevent them any more than you can prevent gentlemen from conversing at their lodgings.' These lines, written in 1808, when the nominating caucus was not yet fully developed, have, as a matter of fact, no bearing upon and no connection with it. Adams was only speaking of the secret understandings, the political meetings, often tainted with intrigue, the cabals. Used in this sense the caucus indeed presents nothing either novel or specific. . . . With the development of parties during Washington's administration, the system of formal nominations of the candidates of parties for elective offices also developed, but the integration, from within the parties, of permanent organizations which should serve as regular nominating bodies was somewhat slow. . . . In the first two presidential elections the choice of candidates was, one may say, a foregone conclusion. The contest did not begin until the retirement of Washington. Elected in 1706, in spite of some intrigues within the ranks of the Federalists themselves, John Adams saw, as the election of 1800 approached, a stronger opposition raise itself against him. The lack of unanimity within the Federalist camp, aggravated by the confusion which was caused by the death of Washington, seriously compromised the chances of the Federalist party. The imminent danger of the success of Jefferson and the triumph of radicalism in the government appeared to the Federalists of the Congress to demand their intervention in the presidential election, from which the Constitution had carefully banished them. For

some time past the Federalist members of the Congress, and the Senators in the first place, had been in the habit of holding semi-official meetings, to which the familiar name of caucus was applied, to settle their line of conduct beforehand on the most important questions coming before Congress. . . . In this way there grew up at an early stage, at the very seat of Congress, an extra-constitutional institution which prejudged and anticipated its acts. It was now about to reach out still further and lay hold of a matter which was entirely beyond the competence of Congress. It appears that this was done at the instigation of Hamilton, who, being anxious to push Adams on one side and to prevent the election of Jefferson, wanted to get the electoral manœuvre which he had hit upon for this purpose sanctioned by a formal decision of the members of the party in Congress. The latter took the decision, nominated in consequence the candidates for the presidency and vice-presidency of the Union, and agreed to try and get them accepted by the electors. This nomination became the precedent for a practice which completely destroyed the whole scheme of the provisions of the constitution for the election of the President."—M. Ostrogorski, *Rise and fall of the nominating caucus* (*American Historical Review*, Jan., 1900, pp. 253-254, 255, 259, 260-261).

United States: 1804-1828.—Fall of "King Caucus"—"At the next presidential election, in 1804, the Congressional Caucus reappeared, but on this occasion it no longer observed secrecy. The Republican members of Congress met publicly and settled the candidatures with all the formalities of deliberative assemblies, as if they were acting in pursuance of their mandate. The Federalists, who were almost annihilated as a party since Jefferson's victory in 1801, gave up holding caucuses altogether. Henceforth there met only a Republican congressional caucus, which appeared on the scene every four years at the approach of the presidential election. . . . Sometimes the state caucuses intervened in the nomination of candidates for the presidency of the republic; they proposed names, but in any event the Congressional Caucus always had the last word. . . . By way of meeting the reproaches which were levelled at the caucus of being a 'Jacobinical conclave,' its organizers decided that it should be held in public. It took place on the 14th of February 1824 in the hall of Congress. Directly the doors were opened an enormous crowd thronged into the galleries, but on the floor of the brilliantly lighted chamber the seats of the members of the caucus remained almost empty. At last it was ascertained that of two hundred and sixteen members summoned sixty-six had responded to the appeal."—*Ibid.*, pp. 261-262, 274.—"This uprising [against the congressional nominating caucus] came with the democratic movement that carried Jackson into the presidential office. The last congressional caucus was held in 1824, when a few friends of William H. Crawford gathered in the chamber of the House of Representatives and selected him as their candidate for the presidency. The subsequent election showed that Jackson was by far the most popular candidate, although his support in Congress was almost negligible. Jackson's friends, therefore, turned fiercely upon the caucus. The legislature of Jackson's state, Tennessee, had already sharply denounced it, and several other states followed this example. In the presidential election of 1828, no attempt was made to hold a congressional caucus. [The first nominating convention was called in 1832.] Jackson was nominated by 'spontaneous' legislative caucuses and conventions held by his fol-

lowers in the various states, and thus, to use a phrase then current, 'King Caucus met his death.'"—C. Beard, *American government and politics*, p. 130.—As in the case of the Congressional nominating caucus, the legislative nominating caucuses rapidly disappeared, Pennsylvania first, and the other states following suit. The collapse of the congressional nominating caucus meant the collapse of the whole system of nominations for elective offices by caucus. While the legislative caucus was declining the nominating convention was rising.

United States: 1881.—Senate deadlock.—"In 1881 the caucus nominees of one party for officers of the senate were generally alleged to be of worthless character. The opposite party, as a result of caucus deliberation, declined to permit these caucus nominations to be ratified by the election of the nominees. There ensued, in consequence of the unyielding adherence of senators to these caucus decisions, one of the most persistent 'dead-locks' on record, in the course of which, members of each party produced the most gory speeches about the 'revolutionary' tendencies of their opponents; and the members of the senate, by what was felt to be their obdurate fidelity to their respective caucuses, in a petty matter, brought their body for a time into public contempt."—F. W. Whitridge, *Caucus system* (*Economic tracts*, No. viii, No. 4, of series of 1882, pp. 11-12).

United States: 1895-1910.—Weakness of the Democratic caucus from 1895-1903.—Its usefulness.—"In the seven years from 1895 to 1903 an internal dispute or schism in the Democratic minority destroyed its ability to caucus in either House or Senate; as a consequence the party fell rapidly to such a position of weakness and helplessness that it lost all control over its own members and became a negligible quantity in national legislation. Meanwhile, the majority by its strict enforcement of caucus rules was enabled to run the government as it pleased. When in 1910 the Democrats secured a majority in the House they became a constructive party and were obliged to make frequent use of the caucus, aided by the President's active influence. The caucus is the simplest means of preserving party unanimity and discipline in favor of a positive program of legislation. A new bill comes before the House in the early part of a session and before the discussion progresses to any length it becomes apparent that large numbers of the people are interested in the measure and desire either its passage or its defeat or amendment. If the individual members of the majority party are left to themselves some will advocate it, some oppose and some insist on essential changes in the bill, and since the weight of inertia is against legislation, the bill must apparently fail for want of agreement. At this point the caucus machinery of each party is set in motion. The majority meets and perhaps decides that the bill should be made a party measure. This means that every member who attended the caucus must vote for the bill on its passage through the House. He may express what views he pleases in the caucus, he may use all his influence against the measure within the conference room but once the caucus has acted, he must support the common policy by his vote in the House. 'Must' means that if he refuses he is outlawed from his party, the measures in which he is interested are marked for an early grave, he may be denounced to the party executive committee in his State to be defeated in the next election and his usefulness to his constituents as a legislator is at an end until he repents, is forgiven and becomes once more an obedient member of the caucus. Severe as is this discipline it is impossible to see

how a party could otherwise secure the passage of legislation for which the country holds it responsible. Meanwhile the minority party may also hold its caucus and decide on an equally binding policy for its members. Formerly the minority would simply oppose the measure, but since the essential differences in principle between the parties have disappeared and they are now competing with each other on the same ground, the minority is apt to advocate either a more radical or a more conservative substitute for the measure endorsed by its rival. From this description it will be clear that the caucus is another influence towards the weakening of the individual member for the benefit of the party. It also strengthens greatly the position of the party leaders. By securing the adoption of a bill as a caucus measure they can crush out all effective opposition among the rank and file of the House membership. But we must also remember that it enables a scant majority of the majority to control the action of the entire House, although forming but a fraction of its membership. . . . The House may lose its head often, but the leader must never do so. It is this steadiness and breadth of view which offers the chief protection against abuses of the caucus system and of the party discipline. Those who criticize so harshly the emphasis placed on party organization and the practical elimination of the individual at times, must remember that the House has reached an almost unmanageable size and that although it cannot deliberate with 435 members, yet it must enact into law the principles to which the majority party is pledged. It is admitted that in so doing the free prerogatives and privileges of individual members are often limited to an undesirable, almost intolerable extent but this is necessary if the lower house is to be an acting rather than a mere debating body. The mass of bills and resolutions is so great that complete freedom of debate would be impossible and would block action on necessary measures, thereby placing the majority party at the mercy of the minority."—J. T. Young, *New American government and its work*, pp. 57-59.

United States: 1910-1915.—Methods employed in Congress.—"The caucus system used in the 62d and 63d congresses was adopted by the Democrats, upon their accession to control of the house in 1910, to replace Cannonism, which had become of ill repute among the voters, and which had been partly overthrown at the preceding session. The unwieldy size of the house, as well as the exigencies of party, required some extra-legal machinery to coordinate and direct the action of the members; the substitute chosen by the Democratic leaders was an adaptation of the senate caucus, formerly known as Aldrichism. The essence of Cannonism had been the control of the house by the speaker through his power of appointment of committees and his domination of the rules committee, backed by the power of the majority party caucus; the essence of the new system is direct control of legislative action by the caucus itself. As at present constituted, the Democratic caucus is composed of all members of the majority party in the house. For the election of caucus officers and for the nomination of candidates for house officers, a majority of those voting binds the entire caucus; on questions of policy Rule 7 of the Democratic caucus rules reads: 'In deciding upon action in the house involving party policy or principle, a two-thirds vote of those present and voting at a caucus meeting shall bind all members of the caucus; provided, the said two-thirds vote is a majority of the full Democratic membership of the house, and provided further, that no member

shall be bound upon questions involving a construction of the Constitution of the United States or upon which he made contrary pledges to his constituents prior to his election or received contrary instructions by resolution or platform from his nominating authority.' If a member decides not to be bound by the caucus on any question, he must notify the caucus in advance. . . . Among the actual instruments which the caucus uses to control the legislative action of the house the basis is of course the 'binding resolution,' through which a majority of two-thirds of those voting at the caucus binds the whole body of Democrats (except for Rule 7), and they in turn control the entire house. The control of the open voting of the house is, however, less important than the determination of what legislative material shall come before the house at all, for its consideration. The caucus controls the subjects upon which the house may legislate, in the first place, by controlling the house committees, and it controls the committees by controlling the selection of the majority members of the committees. As a matter of practice, the Democratic committee-assignments are really determined by a few leaders; since 1911 the nominations by the committee on committees have never been rejected by the caucus. This power of selection of the Democratic committee-majorities is of importance, first, because the majority members of committees may hold a miniature caucus in which a conclusion is reached which all are bound to support in the open committee. . . . As a matter of fact, however, the action of the committees in the house is often controlled by the caucus itself, in one of three ways. First, bills are often introduced into the house; their reference to a committee is then a mere formality. Second, the caucus may adopt a resolution forbidding reports on other than specified subjects, or by other than specified committees, without its express consent. And third, the house procedure is intentionally so inefficient that a special rule issued by the rules committee, under instructions from the caucus, is necessary to secure consideration for any bill not reported by one of the three privileged committees."—W. H. Haines, *Congressional caucus of today* (*American Political Science Review*, Nov., 1915, pp. 696-697, 697-698, 699).—See also CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES: Activities of the House and Senate: Caucus.

Also in: C. E. Merriam, *Primary elections*.—G. W. Lawton, *American caucus system*.—W. B. Munro, *Government of the United States*.—P. O. Ray, *Political parties and practical politics*.—E. Brown, *Dictionary of American politics*.—C. S. Thompson, *Rise and fall of the Congressional caucus*.—J. A. Woodburn, *Political parties and party problems*.

England: Development of caucus.—Birmingham "Four Hundred" under Chamberlain and Schnadhorst.—"An innovation carried through [the English parliament] in 1867 by those fearful of the approaching rule of numbers, was the so-called minority provision. In the three-member constituencies each elector was to have only two votes, so that by careful organization a two-fifths minority might gain one seat. . . . But the effect of the minority clause, as had been expected, was generally to provide a seat for the party hitherto unrepresented. The large Liberal minority in Liverpool was able to return a member, as did the Conservative minority in Manchester. But the most important result of the provision is to be found in the new electoral organizations which it forced. The Liberals of Birmingham realized that if they were to retain the third seat, their votes

must be divided economically between the three candidates. To prevent waste of votes, an organization must be built up which could control absolutely the choice of the elector; and each elector must vote invariably as he was told. The success of the Birmingham organization, which soon became known as the Caucus, was unbroken and no Conservative candidate was returned. It was copied in many other constituencies and inaugurated a new era in the development of party electoral machinery, the effect of which upon the representative system has been profound. . . . Ostrogorski, *Democracy and Parties*, i. 161-163. 'The Liberal committee selected candidates for all three seats in view of the impending general election (in 1868). But as each elector could only vote for two candidates, owing to the minority clause, the committee hit upon the following device: By a preliminary canvass the central committee ascertained the exact number of Liberal electors in each ward and the minimum of votes necessary to obtain the majority at the poll, then distributed the three candidates by twos among the electors of the ward, in such fashion that each candidate would only receive the number of votes strictly necessary to obtain the majority at the poll, and the votes over and above this would be given to one of the other two candidates so that each of them should eventually have a majority. . . . Vote as you are told, was the password . . . the immense majority of the electors voted as they were told, and the three Liberal candidates were elected in spite of the restricted voting clause passed for the benefit of minorities."—C. Seymour, *Electoral reform in England and Wales*, pp. 341, 342-343.—"To provide the machinery needed, Mr. William Harris, the Secretary of the Birmingham Liberal Association, a self-constituted election committee of the familiar type, proposed to transform that body into a representative party organisation; which was forthwith done in October, 1867. . . . It was officially called the general committee, but was commonly known from the approximate number of its members as 'The Four Hundred.' It was to have control of the policy of the association, and to nominate the three Liberal candidates for Parliament in the borough. The number of Liberal voters in each of the several wards was then carefully ascertained; and those in one ward were directed to vote for A and B; those of another for A and C; those of a third for B and C; and so on, in such a way that the total votes cast for each of the three candidates should be as nearly as possible the same. Protests were, of course, made against voting by dictation. It offended the sense of personal independence; but the great mass of Liberals voted as they were told, and all three of the candidates were elected. . . . In 1873 the association was revived for the purpose of getting control of the municipal government of the town, and introducing a more progressive policy in its administration. Two names are especially associated with the new departure, that of Mr. Schnadhorst, the secretary of the association, who had a genius for organising, and that of Mr. Chamberlain, who was the leading spirit of the movement, and became the mayor of the borough in the following autumn. These men proceeded to reconstruct the association on a slightly different and apparently even more democratic, plan. Taking the wards as the sole basis of the fabric, an annual meeting was held in each ward, at which any Liberals residing there might take part. . . . The general committee of the association was composed, as before, of the whole executive committee, together with the thirty representatives from each

ward; and, as there were sixteen wards, it numbered by 1877 five hundred and ninety-four members; and was known as the 'Six Hundred' of Birmingham. It had power to determine the policy of the association, and to nominate the candidates for Parliament and the school board. The members of the town council, on the other hand, being elected by wards, were nominated by the ward committees; but the whole association was bound to support them. Such was the new organisation of the Liberal Association. Its efficiency as an engine for controlling elections is proved by the fact that during the four years from 1873 to 1876, inclusive, it carried all three seats in Parliament in spite of the provision for minority representation. . . . Throughout the many vicissitudes of his long career, from his early years of advanced radicalism, through his breach with Mr. Gladstone over the Home Rule Bill, his subsequent junction with the Conservatives, and finally his advocacy of a wholly new policy about preferential tariffs, Mr. Chamberlain has never failed to carry every one of the parliamentary seats in Birmingham for his own adherents."—A. L. Lowell, *Government of England*, v. 1, pp. 470, 470-471, 471, 472, 473.—"After they had secured control of the city government, Mr. Chamberlain and his friends undertook an elaborate system of public works, the object of which was to increase the beauty and healthfulness of Birmingham. Their proceedings resembled those of Haussmann, the celebrated prefect of Paris under Napoleon III. The new municipality of Birmingham opened and graded streets; swept away the wretched buildings that disfigured the centre of the city, and erected magnificent edifices; provided a system of sewers, of sanitary inspection and of pavement for the street; built public libraries, baths, hospitals, squares; made the city proprietor of the gas and water works. The cost of this transformation was large, but its results were beneficial. In the prosecution of this work Mr. Chamberlain and his friends were supported in the town council by a compact and faithful majority. This was secured through the organization of the Liberal Party, which had been brought to a high degree of perfection by the efforts of Mr. Schnadhorst, a born organizer and a master of the art of wire-pulling. . . . The association performed well the services which the Liberals expected from it. Its candidates carried the Parliamentary elections with a high hand. Mr. Chamberlain himself was nominated in 1876. The discipline of the electoral body was perfect. 'The forces at the disposal of the Liberal Association,' as its chiefs declared with satisfaction, 'were not hordes of wayward free lances—they were armies of disciplined men, well accustomed to stand side by side and to move in unbroken battalions.' But it did not seem right that Birmingham should be the only place to profit by the use of this highly perfected instrument. Its advantages ought to be extended to the entire country, for the more complete triumph of the Liberal cause. For this purpose a propagandist campaign was opened by the Birmingham men. . . . Mr. Chamberlain and Mr. Schnadhorst in particular visited in succession the leading cities of the kingdom in order to propose the 'Birmingham plan.' After holding little private gatherings of the most influential (or most pushing) men of the place, they expounded the plan in public meetings. The agitation was carried on with much activity. . . . Since the 'plan' had been adopted in a sufficient number of localities, Mr. Schnadhorst believed that the time had come to establish a permanent connection between the local associations and secure unity of action by

means of a central organization. A circular from the Birmingham association invited all the Liberal organizations formed on the representative basis to send delegates for the purpose of discussing a plan of federation, which should be established 'in order to facilitate the public discussion of political questions, and to more effectually promote the adoption of Liberal principles in the government of the country.' Nearly a hundred associations responded, and on the 31st of May, 1877, the conference began at Birmingham under the presidency of Mr. Joseph Chamberlain. . . . In the polemics to which the new organization gave rise in the press and on the platform, it was given the name of the Caucus, after the organizations of the American parties, with which it was unkindly compared. Under this name it entered English history, there to play a part which could not fail to become important."—M. Ostrogorski, *Caucus in England* (*Political Science Quarterly*, v. 8, No. 2, June, 1893, pp. 294-295, 300-301, 302, 304-305, 316).

CAUDEBEC, Siege of (1591). See FRANCE: 1501-1593.

CAUDINE FORKS, Battle of (321 B. C.). See ROME: Republic: B. C. 343-290.

CAULAINCOURT, Armand Augustin Louis de (1772-1827), French general and diplomatist. At treaty of Fontainebleau. See FRANCE: 1814 (March-April).

CAUPOLICAN (d. 1558), Araucanian chief. See CHILE: 1535-1724.

CAUS, Solomon de (1576-1635), French engineer. See STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Development up to Watt's time.

CAUSANNÆ, or *Isinæ*, town of some importance in Roman Britain. "There can be no doubt that this town occupied the site of the modern Ancaster, which has been celebrated for its Roman antiquities since the time of Leland."—T. Wright, *Celt, Roman and Saxon*, ch. 5.

CAVAIGNAC, Eugène Louis (1802-1857), French general. In 1832 he went to Algeria, where he won military distinction; 1848, made governor of Algeria, was recalled to France and in May of the same year became minister of war; June 23-26, 1848, suppressed the insurrection at Paris, was delegated temporary dictator by the National Assembly; in the election for the presidency, December 1848, he was defeated by Louis Napoleon Bonaparte. See FRANCE: 1848 (April-December).

CAVAIGNAC, Jacques Marie Eugène Godfroy (1853-1905), French minister of war in 1898, when the Dreyfus case was being tried. See FRANCE: 1894-1906; 1898 (May-November).

CAVAILLON, town in southeastern France near Avignon. In 1790 it was captured by the party opposed to the Pope. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: Revolution at Avignon.

CAVALCANTI, Guido (c. 1250-1300), Italian poet. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 12th-14th centuries.

CAVALIERE, Emilio del (c. 1550-1602), Italian composer, founder of the Roman school of the seventeenth century. One of group of cultivated musicians in Florence, among whom were Bardi, Caccini and Peri, whose efforts started the development of secular music and culminated in production of the first opera; composed several musical dramas; one of the earliest composers to experiment with instrumental accompaniments as a separate part. See MUSIC: Modern: 1575-1676.

CAVALIERS, nickname applied to adherents of the royalist cause at the time of the struggle between Charles I and the English parliament. See ENGLAND: 1641 (October); VIRGINIA: 1630-1652.

CAVALLI, Pietro Francesco (c. 1599-1676), Italian composer. Appointed a singer at St. Mark's 1617, became organist and later chapel master; his opera "Il Serse" was given in the Louvre, Paris, 1660, at the marriage of Louis XIV; twenty-seven of his operas still exist. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1734.

CAVALLOTTI, Felice (1842-1898), Italian politician and dramatist. See ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1710-1800.

CAVALRY, Origin of. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 1.

Carthage, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 7.

Cossack, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 38.

Greece, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.

Macedonia, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 6.

Media and Persia, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 5.

Medieval. See FEUDALISM; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 13, 15; SPAIN: 1366-1369.

Rome, ancient. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 9, 10; ROME: Empire: 363-379.

World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914. I. Western front: w, 14.

CAVAN, Frederic Rudolph Lambart, 10th earl of (1865-), British general. In the World War commander of the Fourteenth Corps in France, the British forces in Italy and the Tenth Italian Army. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: b, 6; c, 2.

CAVE DWELLERS.—"We find a hunting and fishing race of cave-dwellers, in the remote pleistocene age, in possession of France, Belgium, Germany, and Britain, probably of the same stock as the Eskimos, living and forming part of a fauna in which northern and southern, living and extinct, species are strangely mingled with those now living in Europe. In the neolithic age caves were inhabited, and used for tombs, by men of the Iberian or Basque race, which is still represented by the small dark-haired peoples of Europe."—W. B. Dawkins, *Cave hunting*, p. 430.—In the new world also are found evidences of a prehistoric race of men who dwelt in caves. The greatest number of these dwellings are located in the southwestern part of the United States. "The most typical and noteworthy examples of cave dwellings or cavate lodges in the southwestern United States are those in the soft volcanic formation in the narrow canyons in the eastern slopes of the Valles of the great Cochiti Plateau in New Mexico and those in the sandstone ledges along the Rio Verde in Arizona. There are, however, a few examples in the San Juan district—a small group on the lower Mancos, and another, much weathered, on the San Juan itself, a few miles above the mouth of the Mancos."—T. M. Prudden, *Prehistoric ruins of the San Juan watershed* (*American Anthropologist*, 1903, pp. 245-246).—"The ruins in the San Juan watershed [traversing Utah, Arizona, Colorado and New Mexico] vary greatly in size, form, and situation. Thus some of them are so large as to contain several hundred rooms; others consist of a single enclosed chamber or of a simple tower. Some stand upon commanding summits; some at the edges of the great mesas, or in the sheltered valleys at their feet; others, again, are built in caves or along sheltered ledges on the faces of the cliffs. While it is sometimes convenient to speak of valley dwellings, mesa dwellings, cliff dwellings, and cave dwellings, there appears to be no reason for believing that these distinctions are of deeper significance than marks of an adaptation to their

environment of a house-building people lingering in the higher stages of savagery."—*Ibid.*, p. 231.

"Up to the present time only a few caves situated in Calaveras county [California] and in Shasta county have been examined. Many other occurrences are known, but limitations of time have made it impossible to visit these localities. One would hardly be justified in stating that as yet more than a beginning has been made on the possible cave investigations of California. It is to be hoped that in time these studies, in connection with the other phases of this work, may give us some definite information regarding the date of man's appearance in the Pacific Coast region. [Among the important caves located in California are the following: Potter Creek cave, Samwel cave, Mercer cave and Stone Man cave.] The faunas of both the Potter Creek and the Samwel cave indicate Quaternary age. As far as is now known, the fauna of Samwel cave contains the larger percentage of recent species and is probably the younger. In addition to this evidence, the situation of the two caverns gives considerable information regarding their relative ages. . . . From the evidence at hand it seems that both Mercer's cave and Stone Man cave were in existence in Quaternary time, and in all probability some of the deposits in both caverns were formed in that period."—J. C. Merriam, *Recent cave exploration in California (Congrès internationale des Americanistes, 1907, pp. 140, 145-146)*.—Cave dwellings have also been found in the Catherina Archipelago and on the Aleutian Islands, as well as in Japan.

CAVE OF ADULLAM. See ADULLAM, CAVE OF.

CAVELL, Edith (1872-1915), English nurse, from 1907 matron of the École Belge des Infirmières Diplômées, a nurses' training college in Brussels. Arrested by the Germans, August 5, 1915, charged with harboring British, Belgian and French soldiers and assisting them to escape from Belgium. Condemned to death October 11 and executed October 12. The daughter of a Church of England clergyman, Edith Cavell was in her Norfolk home on a visit to her mother at the time the war broke out. She immediately returned to Brussels and resumed her duties. "When the German Army entered the gates of Brussels, she called upon Governor von Lüttwitz and placed her staff of nurses at the services of the wounded under whatever flag they had fought. The services which she and her staff of nurses rendered many a wounded and dying German should have earned for her the generous consideration of the invader. But early in these ministrations of mercy she was obliged by the noblest of humanitarian motives to antagonize the German invaders. Governor von Lüttwitz demanded of her that all nurses should give formal undertakings, when treating wounded French or Belgian soldiers, to act as gaolers to their patients, but Miss Cavell [refused]. . . . When one of her associates, Miss Mary Boyle O'Reilly, was expelled from Belgium, she begged Miss Cavell to take the opportunity, while it presented itself, to leave that land of horror, and Miss Cavell, with characteristic bravery, replied: 'Impossible, my friend, my duty is here.' It was probably in connection with this humanitarian work that she violated the German military law by giving refuge to fugitive French and Belgian soldiers until such time as they could escape across the frontier to Holland. For this she suffered the penalty of death. . . . The history of war, at least in modern times, can be searched in vain for any instance in which any one, especially a woman, has been condemned to death for yielding

to the humanitarian impulse of giving temporary refuge to a fugitive soldier. Such an act is neither espionage nor treason, as those terms have been ordinarily understood in civilized countries. . . . I am assuming that Miss Cavell did give such protection to her compatriots, for all accessible information supports this view, and if so, however commendable her motive and heroic her conduct, she was guilty of an infraction of military law, which justified some punishment and possibly her forcible detention during the period of the war. The arrest was evidently a secret one, for it is obvious that for a time Miss Cavell's friends knew nothing of her whereabouts. Even the American Legation, which had assumed the care of British citizens in Belgium, apparently knew nothing of Miss Cavell's arrest until it learned after a second inquiry the fact and the place of her imprisonment from the German Civil Governor of Belgium on Sept. 12, 1915. Evidently some information had reached the British Foreign Office as to Miss Cavell's disappearance, for on Aug. 26th, Sir Edward Grey requested the American Ambassador in London to ascertain through the American Legation in Brussels whether it was true that Miss Cavell had been arrested. . . . So secret was Miss Cavell's arrest and so sinister the means whereby her end was compassed that the American Minister in Belgium was obliged to write on August 31st, to Baron von der Lancken as the representative in diplomatic matters of von Bissing, the German civil governor of Belgium, and asked whether it was true that she was under arrest. . . . Not hearing from Baron von der Lancken, our Minister on September 10th again wrote to him and again asked for a reply. Mr. Whitlock asked for the opportunity 'to take up the defence of Miss Cavell with the least possible delay.' To this, Baron von der Lancken replied by an *ex parte* statement that Miss Cavell had admitted having concealed in her house various English and French soldiers, as well as Belgians of military age, all anxious to proceed to the front. She also acknowledged having supplied these soldiers with the funds necessary to proceed to the front and having facilitated their departure from Belgium by finding guides to assist them in clandestinely crossing the frontier.

The Baron further answered that her defence had been intrusted to an advocate by the name of Braun, 'who is already in touch with the proper German authorities,' and added: 'In view of the fact that the Department of the Governor General as a matter of principle does not allow accused persons to have any interviews whatever, I must regret my inability to procure for M. de Leval permission to visit Miss Cavell, as long as she is in solitary confinement.' M. de Leval was a Belgian lawyer and the official legal adviser of the American Legation. His attempt to save Miss Cavell, as will hereafter appear, was worthy of all praise. The counsel in question was a M. Braun, a Belgian advocate of recognized standing, but for some reason, which does not appear, he was unable or declined to act for Miss Cavell and he secured for her defence another Belgian lawyer, whose name was Kirschen. According to credible information, Kirschen was a Roumanian by birth, although a naturalized Belgian subject and a member of the Brussels bar, but it will hereafter appear that the steps which he took to keep the American Legation—the one possible salvation for Miss Cavell—advised as to the progress of events, was to say the least peculiar. It is said that he had been a legal adviser of the German Legation in Brussels before the war. Except the explanations made by the German Civil Government, we

know very little as to what defence, if any, Miss Cavell made. From one of the inspired sources comes the statement that she freely admitted her guilt, and from her last interview with the English clergyman it would appear that she probably did admit some infraction of military law."—J. M. Beck, *The War and humanity*, pp. 115-130.—"She admitted all the charges against her. Often she helped her prosecutors by detailed statements on points that had not occurred to them. She made no concealment, and was glad to confess what she had done for young men caught whole and living in the trap of war, as others had been caught and mangled in the wards where she tended them—Germans as well as British."—Philip Gibbs.—According to Brand Whitlock's story, Edith Cavell was asked if she had helped twenty English soldiers, to which she replied, "Yes, more than twenty; two hundred . . . French and Belgians, too." There was no doubt "that the offence was one punishable with death under the German military code; but the execution of the sentence led to an outburst of indignation and horror throughout the civilized world."—*Annual Register*, 1915, p. 260.—The following is extracted from the report (transmitted to the British foreign office on Oct. 18, 1915) of Hugh Gibson, secretary of the American Legation in Brussels.—The persons referred to as "we" in the report were Hugh Gibson, M. de Leval, legal counsellor to the Legation, and the Marquis de Villalobar, the Spanish Minister in Brussels. The report was addressed to Mr. Brand Whitlock, American Minister to Belgium, who was lying sick at the time: ". . . Baron von der Lancken and all the members of his staff were absent for the evening [Oct. 11]. We sent a messenger to ask that he return at once to see us in regard to a matter of utmost urgency. A little after 10 o'clock he arrived, followed shortly after by Count Harrach and Herr von Falkenhausen, members of his staff. The circumstances of the case were explained to him and your [Brand Whitlock's, who was sick at the time] note presented, and he read it aloud in our presence. He expressed disbelief in the report that sentence had actually been passed, and manifested some surprise that we should give credence to any report not emanating from official sources. . . . We urged him to ascertain the facts immediately, and this, after some hesitancy, he agreed to do. He telephoned to the presiding Judge of the court-martial, and returned in a short time to say that the facts were as we had represented them and that it was intended to carry out the sentence before morning. We then presented as earnestly as possible your plea for delay. . . . The Spanish Minister forcibly supported all our representations and made an earnest plea for clemency. Baron von der Lancken stated that the Military Governor was the supreme authority (*Gerichtsherr*) in matters of this sort; that appeal from his decision could be carried only to the Emperor, the Governor General having no authority to intervene in such cases. He added that under the provisions of German martial law the Military Governor had discretionary powers to accept or to refuse acceptance of an appeal for clemency. After some discussion he agreed to call the Military Governor on the telephone and learn whether he had already ratified the sentence and whether there was any chance for clemency. He returned in about a half hour and stated that he had been to confer personally with the Military Governor, who said that he had acted in the case of Miss Cavell only after mature deliberation; that the circumstances in her case were of such a character that he considered the infliction of the death penalty

imperative, and that in view of the circumstances of this case he must decline to accept your plea for clemency or any representation in regard to the matter."—On the day this report was written, Oct. 12, 1915, Brand Whitlock telegraphed to the American Ambassador in London: ". . . Miss Cavell sentenced yesterday and executed at 2 o'clock this morning despite our best efforts continued until the last moment . . ." Writing the same day, M. de Leval reports: "This morning Mr. Gahan, the English clergyman, called to see me and told me that he had seen Miss Cavell in her cell yesterday night at 10 o'clock, that he had given her the holy communion and had found her admirably strong and calm. I asked Mr. Gahan whether she had made any remarks about anything concerning the legal side of her case and whether the confession which she made before the trial and in court was, in his opinion, perfectly free and sincere. Mr. Gahan says that she told him she perfectly well knew what she had done, that according to the law of course she was guilty and had admitted her guilt, but that she was happy to die for her country."

A German vindication.—"Moved by foreign denunciations of the execution of Miss Edith Cavell, out of which he said Germany's enemies were making capital, Dr. Alfred F. M. Zimmermann, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, on October 24, 1915, made the authorized statement to the staff correspondent of the *New York Times* in Berlin: 'It was a pity that Miss Cavell had to be executed, but it was necessary. She was judged justly. We hope it will not be necessary to have any more executions. I see from the England and American press that the shooting of an Englishwoman and the condemnation of several other women in Brussels for treason has caused a sensation, and capital against us is being made out of the fact. It is undoubtedly a terrible thing that the woman has been executed; but consider what would happen to a State, particularly in war, if it left crimes aimed at the safety of its armies to go unpunished because committed by women. No criminal code in the world—least of all the laws of war—makes such a distinction; and the feminine sex has but one preference according to legal usages, namely that women in a delicate condition may not be executed. Otherwise, man and woman are equal before the law, and only the degree of guilt makes a difference in the sentence for the crime and its consequences. I have before me the court's verdict in the Cavell case, and can assure you that it was gone into with the utmost thoroughness, and was investigated and cleared up to the smallest details. The result was so convincing, and the circumstances were so clear, that no war court in the world could have given any other verdict, for it was not concerned with a single emotional deed of one person, but a well-thought-out plot, with many far-reaching ramifications, which for nine months succeeded in doing valuable service to our enemies to the great detriment of our armies. Countless Belgian, French, and English soldiers are again fighting in the ranks of the Allies who owe their escape to the activities of the hand now found guilty, whose head was the Cavell woman. Only the utmost sternness could do away with such activities under the very nose of our authorities, and a Government which in such case does not resort to the sternest measures sins against its most elementary duties toward the safety of its own army.'"—J. M. Beck, *War and humanity*, pp. 295-298.—See also BRUSSELS: 1914-1918.

M. Clemenceau spoke the tribute of the people

of France. "The profound truth is that she honored her country by dying for what is finest in the human soul—that grandeur of which all of us dream but only the rare elect have the chance of attaining. Since the day of Joan of Arc, to whose memory I know that our Allies will one day seek to erect a statue, England has owed us this return. She has nobly given it."—J. Buchan, *Nelson's history of the war*, v. xi, p. 66.—An interesting sequel to the execution developed three years later. At the end of December, 1918, it was announced from Paris that "French soldiers who have been captives in Germany had formally accused Georges Gaston Quien, alias Luc, recently arrested on a charge of espionage, as having been the man who denounced Miss Edith Cavell, the English nurse, who was put to death by the Germans." After the armistice the British military authorities made diligent search for the body. The burial place was located and the remains were recovered. On May 15, 1919, the coffin was borne through London on a gun carriage, draped with the Union Jack. After an impressive service in Westminster Abbey, the remains of Edith Cavell were buried in her native city of Norwich.

CAVENDISH, Lord Frederick (1836-1882), English statesman; entered Parliament in 1865; private secretary to Gladstone 1872-1873; financial secretary of the treasury department 1880-1882; appointed chief secretary for Ireland, in 1882. The day he took office, May 6, 1882, he was assassinated in Phoenix Park, Dublin, while walking with Thomas Henry Burke, under secretary, who was killed at the same time. See IRELAND: 1882.

CAVENDISH, Henry (1731-1810), English chemist, discoverer of hydrogen. See CHEMISTRY: General: Phlogiston period.

CAVENDISH, Sir William (c. 1505-1557), English statesman, founder of the noble house of Cavendish; 1530, member of the commission for visiting monasteries from whose spoils he acquired considerable property; 1546, treasurer of the king's chamber, created a knight, member of the privy council; continued in favor under Edward VI and Mary.

CAVES: Grotto of Peña la Miel and Altamira. See EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Paleolithic art.

CAVITE, fortified seaport of Manila Bay in the island of Luzon, Philippine Islands. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Map.

1872-1898.—Revolts of Filipinos against Spanish. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1837-1896; 1896-1898.

1898.—Occupied by American forces as base of operations during Spanish-American war. See U. S. A.: 1898 (July-August: Philippines).

1899-1900.—Insurrection against American rule.—Insurgents overcome. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1899: Armed opposition to establishment of American government; also 1899-1900.

CAVOUR, Camillo Benso, Count (1810-1861), Italian statesman. Entered the Sardinian Parliament in 1848; member of d'Azelio's cabinet, 1850-1852; became prime minister, 1852; joined the alliance of the western powers and Turkey against Russia and sent a contingent of 15,000 Sardinian troops to the Crimea, 1855; formed an alliance with Napoleon III against Austria, 1858; carried on successful war against Austria, 1859; secretly supported the expedition of Garibaldi against Sicily, 1860; achieved the unification of Italy under the scepter of Victor Emmanuel, 1861. See AUSTRIA: 1856-1859; FRANCE: 1852-1870; ITALY:

1856-1859; 1859-1861; ROME: Modern city: 1850-1870.

ALSO IN: W. R. Thayer, *Life and times of Cavour*.

CAWNPORE, city of British India, capital of the province of the same name. It is considerable commercial importance. The population in 1911 was 175,557. It was the scene of the massacre of hundreds of European and Eurasian women and children by the order of Nana Sahib in 1857 during the Indian mutiny. See INDIA: 1857 (May-August); 1857-1858; INDIA: Map.

CAXTON PRESS. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1476-1591.

CAYENNE, capital of French Guiana. It was originally founded in 1604 and was used largely for exiled French political offenders. See GUIANA: 1580-1814.

CAYLEY, Sir George (1773-1857), English scientist and engineer. See AVIATION: Development of airplanes and air service: 1809-1874; STEAM AND GAS ENGINES: Hot air and gas engines.

CAYLEY, Sir Walter de Sausmarez (1863-), British major-general, in attacks in Mesopotamia. See WORLD WAR: 1918: VI. Turkish theater: a: 5.

CAYMAN ISLANDS, British West Indies. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent.

CAYUGA INDIANS. See IROQUOIS CONFEDERACY.

CAYUGA-SENECA CANAL, New York state. See BARGE CANAL, NEW YORK STATE.

CAYUSE INDIANS. See WAILATPUAN FAMILY.

1847.—Massacre of Whitman and others. See OREGON: 1847-1848.

CAZZA, small island in the Adriatic, promised to Italy by Treaty of London, 1915. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

CEADAS, Lacedæmonian pits of punishment. See BARATHRUM.

CEBU, one of the islands of the Philippines between Negros and Bohol. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Geographical features and natural resources; Map.

CECHS. See CZECHS.

CECIL, Lord (Edgar Algernon) Robert (1864-), British politician, third son of the third marquess of Salisbury. In 1915-1916 was parliamentary under-secretary for foreign affairs; in 1916-1918 was minister of blockade; in 1918 was assistant secretary of state for foreign affairs; in 1917 became a leading advocate of a league of nations, and more than anyone else gave form to the one organized in 1919. See WORLD WAR: 1918: X. Statement of war aims: j.

CECIL, Lord Hugh (Richard Heathcote) (1860-), British politician, fifth son of the third marquess of Salisbury. In 1910 he started his service as member of Parliament for Oxford University.

CECIL, Robert, 1st earl of Salisbury (1565-1612), English statesman.

CECIL, William, 1st Baron Burghley. See BURGHLEY, WILLIAM CECIL, 1ST BARON.

CECILIUS, or Cæcilian (fl. 315), bishop of Carthage. See DONATISTS.

CECORA, Battle of (1621). See POLAND: 1590-1648.

CECROPIA, or Cecropian Hill, acropolis of Athens. See ATTICA.

CECYPHALEA, Battle of. See ATHENS: B. C. 458.

CEDAR CREEK, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1864 (August-October: Virginia).

CEDAR MOUNTAIN, or Cedar Run, Bat-

tle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (July-August: Virginia): Beginning of Pope's campaign.

CEDRIC, or **Cerdic** (d. 534), founder of West Saxon kingdom. See **ENGLAND**: 477-527.

CEILE DE. See **CULOES**.

CELEBES.—The extraordinary conformation of the island of Celebes (situated east of Borneo) gives it a coast line of no less than 3,500 miles, though its area is but 75,000 square miles. In other words, "although little over one-third the size of France, it has a seaboard equal in extent to that of France and the Iberian Peninsula taken together. . . . Were it as densely peopled as Java, it would have a population of some thirty millions, whereas, according to the approximate estimates, the actual population is little over three-quarters of a million. But, although nominally under the Dutch rule, most of the interior is still occupied by Alfarus, that is, wild tribes for the most part living in isolated and hostile groups. Nor was the Dutch occupation effected without many sanguinary struggles, not always to the advantage of the invaders. The Europeans appeared first as guests, and the early conflicts were connected with questions of trade rights. Then the Dutch presented themselves as rivals of the Portuguese in 1660, when they seized the fort of Macassar, long their only possession on the coast. Later they concluded a treaty of alliance and a protectorate with several petty states in the south-western peninsula, and since that time they have omitted no occasion of strengthening their position in the island. Yet in most of the inland states they are still unrepresented by any officials, and even the coast districts are visited only at long intervals. Celebes has not yet [written about 1800] been completely explored, and some parts are known only in a general way. . . . The native populations are usually classed as Malays and Alfarus, the inland wild tribes . . . [being] indiscriminately grouped as Alfarus."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants: Oceanica*, ch. 3.—See also **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Map of the world; **MALAY ARCHIPELAGO**: Land.

1859.—**Insurrection**.—The Boni insurrection was quelled in 1859, but the country was still restless.

1905-1906.—**Revolts**.—In these years various chiefs revolted and were subdued only after much fighting, which, however, brought all of the island under Dutch authority.

1916-1919.—**Exploration**.—The expedition sent out to Borneo and Celebes by the Smithsonian Institute brought back much zoological and ethnological material.

CELESTIAL EMPIRE. See **CHINA**.

CELESTINE II, pope, 1143-1144.

Celestine III, pope, 1191-1198.

Celestine IV, pope, 1241.

Celestine V, pope, 1294, July to December. See **CELESTINES**.

CELESTINES, or **Celestinians**, religious order founded by the hermit, Peter of Morone, who afterwards, in 1204, became pope, and took the name **Celestine V**.

Also in: G. Stebbing, *Story of the Catholic church*, pp. 356, 376.

CELIBACY OF THE CLERGY: Controversies over. See **PAPACY**: 1056-1122; 1510-1524.

CELL THEORY. See **BIOLOGY**: History; and **MEDICAL SCIENCE**: Modern; 19th century; Revolutionary experiments and discoveries.

CELLAMARE PLOT (1718), fomented by Alberoni; checked by Dubois. See **FRANCE**: 1717-1719.

CELLARIUS, Christoph (1638-1707), German historian. See **HISTORY**: 25.

CELLIERS, British South-African colonel, active in campaign in Southwest Africa. See **WORLD WAR**: 1914: VI. Africa: b, 1; 1915: VII. Africa: a, 1.

CELLINI, Benvenuto (1500-1571), Italian artist, metal-worker (particularly in gold) and sculptor (see **SCULPTURE**: High Renaissance); employed by the foremost Roman and Florentine nobles, also by Francis I of France; produced several notable bronzes (Perseus, Mercury) and wrote the famous autobiography.

CELTÆ, tribe. See **GAUL**: Cæsar's description.

CELTIBERIANS.—"The appellation Celtiberians indicates that in the north-eastern part of the peninsula [Spain] there was a mixture of Celts and Iberians."—W. Ihne, *History of Rome*, bk. 5, ch. 6. note.—See **FRANCE**: The people; **NUMANTIAN WAR**; **SPAIN**: Aboriginal peoples.

CELTIC CHURCH.—"By the Celtic Church in Britain and Ireland is meant the Christian Church which existed in parts of Great Britain and Ireland before the mission of Augustine (597) and which for some time thereafter maintained its independence by the side of the new Anglo-Roman Church. It comprises two branches, one in Roman Britain and a continuation of it in Wales, the other in Ireland and Alba (Scotland)."—H. Zimmer (*New Schaff-Herzog religious encyclopedia*, v. 2, p. 468).

176-597.—**Before Augustine's mission**.—"Christianity was probably brought into Britain between the years 176 and 208; for Irenæus, writing in 176 of the number of Christian lands, does not mention Britain, while Tertullian, writing about 208, says, somewhat rhetorically, that the Gospel had found its way into parts of Britain which were closed to the Romans. It doubtless came hither from Gaul . . . for there are many traces of a close connection between the Churches of Gaul and Britain. . . . The Church was orthodox, and accepted the creed and canons of the Council of Nicaea (325) where an arrangement was made settling the date of Easter for the Catholic Church. . . . In the fourth century, then, the British Church in no way differed from the Catholic Church either in faith or practice. . . . In 410 the Roman dominion in Britain came to an end, and before very long wars within the island, invasions, and conquest by the Saxons and Angles, cut it off from communication with Rome. . . . Some years later there is evidence that the Church still followed the directions of Rome, for in 455 it received and obeyed a command of Leo the Great as to the right date of Easter. At that time Teutonic invasions of Britain were in progress, and soon cut the Church off from communication with Rome. With one part of Gaul a close connection was maintained. . . . But in 502 the Franks claimed dominion over Armorica (Brittany), and the British churchmen there, indignant at this second Teutonic invasion, withdrew their obedience from Tours, and adopted a policy of isolation. Gildas gives us a picture of the Church in Britain about a century after it was cut off from Rome. He wrote a little before 550, when the Teutonic conquest had made much progress. . . . He shows us a Church with a diocesan episcopate, with bishops who were then rich and powerful, and claimed succession from St. Peter and the other apostles, and with a clergy of the two other sacred orders. The Church was governed by Synods, but discipline was lax and simony was rife. There were monks living under a vow and observing monastic decrees; indeed, we know that there were many British monasteries which were abodes of learning . . . and there were virgins and

widows vowed to chastity. Clerical marriage seems to have been common, though, as in all lands where monasticism flourished, there was a feeling against it. . . . The only differences noted by Gildas between the Roman and the British Churches are that in ordination the Britons used a lectionary of their own, and that they anointed the hands of those to be ordained. Their Church was certainly not at that time in conscious schism from Rome. When, however, in 602 the British Church was again brought into communication with Rome in the person of Augustine, other differences are discerned. . . . The differences concerning the date of Easter and the form of the tonsure were of great importance during the early days of the English Church."—W. Hunt, *English church from its foundation to the Norman conquest*, pp. 1-5, 7.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-300: British or Celtic church; 5th-9th centuries.

597-817.—Struggle for independence.—"This unhappy miscalculation about Easter proved a grievous cause of weakness in the Celtic Church, for those of her saints who travelled to Gaul or Italy were forced to admit that their native Church was in error and returning home formed a party which laboured for the abandonment of the old computation. . . . At the bottom of all the differences lay the independence of the Celtic Churches, which owed no allegiance to the Papal chair. . . . They were ready to acknowledge a certain primacy in the Roman see, as S. Columbanus said, later, 'next to Jerusalem,' but such a half admission would not satisfy those who were before all things, missionaries to extend Papal authority. Every sort of false accusation . . . was offered to the ancient British Church. Its orders were ignored, its ministrations flouted, the orthodoxy of its prelates disputed. . . . Pope Vitalian in 667, wrote to King Oswy to choose an archbishop for Canterbury who should root out the tares from the whole island, alluding thereby to the clergy of the National Church. The peculiarity in the observance of Easter was abandoned by the Church in the South of Ireland in 634, by the Northumbrian Church in 664; the Britons of Strathelyde submitted in 668, the northern Scots in Ireland in 697; in 704 a Roman party was formed in Iona itself. The British of the eastern portion of the West Welsh in Devon and Cornwall accepted the Roman computation in 710. The change took place in Wales between 768 and 777. Llandewennec, in Brittany, retained the Celtic tonsure till 817. . . . Thus ended the struggle for independence, after it had continued for more than a century and a half. Wales, at the beginning, was the head of a great and powerful Celtic confederacy; at the end it was almost alone. A party in Hy (Iona), and, perhaps, also the Breton clergy, remained faithful to the last to the cause of Celtic independence, but Wales had no other allies. The Church of Ireland had so entirely turned against it that by its canons it had put restrictions upon the ministrations of such clergy as came from Britain, and had condemned their churches for separating from the Roman customs and from the unity of Christendom. The prolongation of the struggle only completed the isolation of Wales; and though by its submission to Rome it again entered nominally into fellowship with the rest of Western Christendom, it was long separated in feeling from the English Church and the churches of the Continent, and it never quite regained the old connexion with its Celtic brethren." (Newell, *History of the Welsh church*, p. 133.) . . . It was the misfortune of the Celt everywhere—in Gaul, in Britain, in Ireland—never to be allowed to work

out his own ideas, to develop his own institutions logically to a constituted government on firm basis. Nor was he suffered to mould his Church as most convenient to himself. . . . The revolt against the Latin Church in Scotland, in Wales, and in England, as well as that of the Huguenots in France, was to a large extent due to the Latin organization being opposed to Celtic ideals. . . . It is certainly a most hopeful sign, that since the disestablishment of the Irish Church it has reshaped itself on . . . constitutional lines which are in complete accord with the Celtic spirit. . . . Had the Latin Church not trodden out independent Celtic Christianity it is not improbable that in Celtic lands the Church would be found alive, vigorous, one with its past, different in many particulars from the Latin and the Anglican Churches yet one in faith and one in devolution of authority from Christ, through the Apostles. . . . We may well suspect that in that event there would have been no Calvinism in Scotland and no Nonconformity in Wales."—S. Baring-Gould, *Lives of the saints*, v. 16, pp. 44-47, 55, 84-86.—See also CHRISTIANITY: 100-310: British or Celtic church; 597-800.

ALSO IN: W. E. Collins, *Beginnings of English Christianity*.—J. H. Newman, *Life of St. Augustine*, chs. 1-4.—H. Zimmer, *Celtic Church in Britain and Ireland*.—J. H. Overton, *Church in England, in National churches*, 2 vs.—J. W. W. Bund, *Celtic church of Wales*.—J. Lanigan, *Ecclesiastical history of Ireland to the thirteenth century*.—G. T. Stokes, *Ireland and the Celtic church* (6th ed.).—H. M. Luckock, *Church in Scotland in National churches*.—W. Reeves, *Culdees of the British Islands as they appear in history*.—A. W. Haddan and W. Stubbs, *Councils and ecclesiastical documents relating to Great Britain and Ireland*, vs. 1-3.—W. Stokes ed., *Tripartite life of Patrick with other documents relating to that saint*.

CELTS.—"The Celts form a branch of the great family of nations which has been variously called Aryan, Indo-European, Indo-Germanic, Indo-Celtic and Japhetic. . . . The Celts of antiquity who appeared first and oftenest in history were those of Gallia, which, having been made by the French into Gaule, we term Gaul. . . . The Celtic family; so far back as we can trace it into the darkness of antiquity, consisted of two groups or branches, with linguistic features of their own which marked them off from one another. To the one belonged the ancestors of the people who speak Gaelic in Ireland, the Isle of Man and the Highlands of the North. [See also IRELAND: Tribes of early Celtic inhabitants; and 13th-14th centuries.] . . . The national name which the members of this group have always given themselves, so far as one knows, is that of Gaidhel, pronounced and spelt in English Gael, but formerly written by themselves Goidel. . . . The other group is represented in point of speech by the people of Wales and the Bretons. . . . The national name of those speaking these dialects was that of Briton; but, since that word has now no precise meaning, we take the Welsh form of it, which is Brython, and call this group Brythons and Brythonic, whenever it is needful to be exact. The ancient Gauls must also be classified with them."—J. Rhys, *Celtic Britain*, ch. 1.—See also AMBACTI; ARYANS; and SPAIN: Aboriginal peoples.

Origin and meaning of the name.—"Probably the earliest mention of the word *Celt* with which most readers are familiar occurs in that classic phrase where, in the introduction of his 'Commentaries on the Gallic War,' Caesar, speaking of the division of all Gaul into three parts, says that

the native name of the group of peoples who occupied the centre of Gaul between the Seine, the Marne and the Garonne is a Celtic word. The word is found long before Caesar's time, however. In fact, as early as the end of the sixth century, B. C., we find, for the first time in history, the word in a derived form, in the Greek writer Hecataeus of Miletus, who uses it in a geographic sense. In his 'Voyage around the World,' of which only fragments have been preserved, he says, speaking of Marseilles, that it is near Celtica, and he also says that Nyra, wherever that may have been, is a Celtic city. The word *Celt*, itself, is found first in Herodotus, in a passage dating from the middle of the fifth century B. C., or, more precisely, between the years 445 and 443, where he informs us that the Celts, live at the sources of the Danube, that is, in the southwest corner of Germany in the present Grand Duchy of Baden, and in Spain and on the coast of the Atlantic. The Latin *Celta*, with which we are familiar in Caesar, is the plural of a masculine stem and, on it, the later Greek historians and geographers built the form *κελται*, as a variant of the older *κελτοι*. There are two very different applications of the word *Celt* in the ancient writers; as the name of a tribe in Gaul, and as the general name for all the Celts of the Continent. Apparently, the ancients never applied the name to the inhabitants of the British Isles. Since each tribe had its own name, it is probable that the word *Celt* was originally nothing more than the name of one of these tribes, but, just why it was given to that particular group of people that Caesar speaks of, we have no way of knowing. On the other hand, the Greeks, up to the third century B. C., not only had no other than this for all the Continental Celts, but the confusion is heightened by their sometimes including under that denomination, the Germans. . . . The word *Celt* has had a checkered career. It has grown from the name of a single tribe, so as to include (in the extra-Celtic use of the word) in a vague way, all the members of the family, so that now it has come to mean anyone who speaks, or is descended from one who speaks, any Celtic language. This is a quite modern use of the word, and there is nothing to show that the Celts themselves ever employed it, or that it is employed properly to-day, in this wider meaning, in any of the neo-Celtic languages. It is doubtful if the Celts of antiquity ever felt or acted as a united people, except to a certain extent, under Vercingetorix's lead at the siege of Alesia."—J. Dunn, *Word Celt* (*Catholic University Bulletin*, v. 13, 1907, pp. 94-95).

Early history.—Principal migrations.—"By the time that these Celtic peoples tread the threshold of history, they are beset by many enemies. On the east, the nomad Scythians drove the 'Cimmerian' section of them off the grassland altogether, in a flood of desperate fugitives, which broke through into Asia Minor in the seventh century, wrecked the nascent kingdom of the Lydians about 650, and swept on, like the new lords of Armenia before them, till they laid the last straw on the tottering back of Assyria. A century later, Etruscan conquests detached the whole Cisalpine province, and another century after that, a central European section of them, closely akin but of ruder manners, and standing in much the same relation to what Roman writers called the 'older or Umbrian' Celts, as the Sabellians to the older Italic peoples, broke loose somewhere in the north, and rapidly made themselves master of large parts of the Danube valley. About 400 B. C., these 'Gallic' tribes flooded out southward to create a

'Cisalpine Gaul' on the ruins of Etruscan rule; maiming Etruria itself, sacking Rome in 300, and threatening Tarentum, as we have seen. Next, in the following century, another horde of them penetrated far into Greece (reaching a Delphi in 279) and then across the Hellespont into a new 'Galatia' on the plateau of Asia Minor. The inrush of the dreaded Gaesatae into Cisalpine Gaul, about 235, which precipitated the intervention of Rome beyond the Apennines, was probably a backwash of this Galatian wave. Northwestward, similar conquests are rather later, and the chronology of them is obscure; but the Belgic movement was still in progress north of the Seine [see also BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history] in the first century B. C., when the intervention of Julius Caesar brought all the country between the Rhine and the Atlantic under the domination of Rome, and replaced by a Roman sea-police the naval and commercial enterprises of the Breton Veneti, whom he found engaged in trade with both Celts and aborigines in Britain."—J. L. Myres, *Dawn of history*, pp. 245-246.—"The Britons of historic times were Celts who came to the island from Gaul at two periods. The first invasion was very early, and the invaders were Celts of the Goidelic (Gadhelic) or northern branch. From the testimony of sepulchral monuments it is conjectured that the Celts found two races in Britain: a small, dark-haired race, perhaps of Iberian stock, and a large light-haired race of Scandinavian origin. The Goidelic Celts conquered without exterminating the previous inhabitants, and held the land many centuries, until a new invasion of continental Celts occurred. This time it was the Brythonic or Cymric Celts of the southern stock, who crossed the channel, probably not very long before the expedition of Caesar, and dispossessed their kinsmen of the southern and eastern portion of the island."—C. Ploetz, *Epitome of ancient, mediæval and modern history*, pp. 35-37.—See also AMORITES; ENGLAND: Area; EUROPE: Introduction to the historic period: Migrations.

Social and political organization.—Trade and industry.—"These old Celts were a rude, hardy folk, but hospitable and kind in their crude, boisterous way. Their serious occupation was war and their diversion rough games and immoderate eating and drinking. In the earliest times we find them tattooing or painting their bodies, a practice which long survived among the northern peoples, the Scots and the Caledonians or Picts. At first their only form of social and political organization was the family, who chose their ablest male to lead them in war and to represent them in peace. As time went on, these families were united into tribes from which the most capable male member was selected as king. Their legal system was very primitive. They had no courts, as we understand the term, and their judges were merely umpires or arbitrators, who had no power to compel the acceptance of their decrees. In their earliest intercourse the Celts used cattle and bars of iron and tin for standards of value; but as early as 200 B. C. they seem, in the southeast, to have had gold coins fashioned on Greek models. In the absence of roads they made use of rivers and the tops of ridges as trade routes. The Thames and the Severn were especially important. Their greatest trade was in tin which they carried from Cornwall overland to the southeast coast, thence in ships to the shores of Gaul. Besides tin they came to export cattle, hides, grain, and also slaves and huge dogs, the latter used by the Gauls in war and by the Romans for hunting. Their imports were chiefly manufactured articles of iron and

bronze, cloth, and salt. But this does not mean that they did not manufacture, to some extent, themselves. They were fond of bright colors, and we are told that they wore clothes of various hues, getting the dyestuff from the bark of trees. They excelled in enamel work and made many of the gold ornaments which they wore, as well as the weapons and chariots which they used in war."—A. L. Cross, *Shorter history of England and Greater Britain*, pp. 11-12.

Religion.—"They worshipped the forces of nature as gods; they created lesser divinities for particular localities, identifying each grove, stream, or spring with its appropriate guardian spirit, and peopled the land with fairies, dwarfs, and elves. Living in wild and unfriendly surroundings, in the midst of dense gloomy forests and treacherous, inaccessible fens, exposed to storm, thunder and lightning, their attitude was naturally one of wonder mingled with fear. Much of their worship which included human sacrifices, was designed to placate the ferocious or malicious powers to which they were exposed. They believed in wishing wells and cursing stones; and the mistletoe, which still figures in our Christmas celebrations, they venerated for its miraculous properties. Very probably they borrowed from the stone men their priestly system and ceremonialism known as Druidism. The Druids were a highly privileged body who ranked with the nobles and were exempt from all public burdens, who conducted the sacrifices, practiced magic, foretold the future, acted as judges, and were the custodians of learning, human and divine."—*Ibid.* pp. 10-11.—See also MYTHOLOGY: Celtic mythology: Pre-Roman period; and Roman period; also MYTHOLOGY: Germanic: Sources of knowledge of Germanic mythology.

Celtic clans. See CLANS: Highland.

Celtic language.—"There is a certain family of languages called Celtic (a word of uncertain etymology and significance), belonging to the Indo-European stock, and forming a family distinguished by certain features of construction from other families of the same stock. These need not here be enumerated in full; it will suffice to mention the best-known. The letter has been lost by the Celtic languages from all words of the old Indo-European parent language. Thus, the word for 'grandson,' *pavi-*, which in Greek became *pavis* and ultimately *παῖς* became in the old Celtic avios, and this through intermediate forms *ave, ua*, degenerates into *o*; written in modern surnames with the mark of prolongation turned into an apostrophe after, as in 'O'Connor.' These languages again, are subdivided into two groups, the one, the *Goidelic* group (Irish, Scotch Gaelic, Manx) retaining the guttural part of the old Indo-European composite sound *qu* (= *kw*), which they express by *c*; the other, the *Brythonic* group (Welsh, Breton, and the extinct Cornish) retaining the labial part of the same sound, which they turn into *p*. Thus *quennos*, 'head,' becomes in Goidelic *Cenn*, in Brythonic *pen*. On the Continent the Celtic languages have now disappeared. . . .

"Celtic inscriptions are scattered widely over the Continent; but they are very obscure, very short, and for the greater part very fragmentary. . . . Celtic place-names are found over almost the whole Continent. From *Noviodunum*, the New Fortress, in Roumania to *Nertobriga*, the Strong Hill, in Spain, the map of Europe is strewn with Celtic wreckage. Where did these languages arise? The answer to this question has been sought with the aid of a very ingenious and reasonable argument.

In all countries the oldest place-names are the names of rivers. . . . From this it will follow that if we find a region in Europe where the river-names are notably Celtic, we may assume, at least as a working hypothesis, that in that region was the cradle of the Celtic languages. Such a place has been found by D'Arbois de Jubainville, in the region between the head waters of the Rhine and those of Danube—both of which great rivers bear Celtic names. Somewhere in what is now Bavaria and Wurtemberg is this indicated as the place where the Celtic speech became discriminated from the rest of the Indo-European languages. It is not to be understood that the speakers of the Celtic languages were at all times a single people, racially united. That is a fundamental mistake. . . . Probably the Celtic family of languages originated among the broad-headed people of Central Europe, the 'Alpine Race' of Ethnologists, and on that account it may be legitimate to call the Alpine Race 'the Celtic Race,' as some authorities do; but it is undesirable. The Celtic languages early spread beyond the limits of the Alpine people; and it was not an Alpine, but a Teutonic stock which brought the Celtic tongue to Ireland.

"The word 'Celtic' should be used as a linguistic designation only; to call a man a 'Celt' is in strict propriety as illogical as it would be to call a native of India a 'Sanskrit.' But it is a convenient term for those who speak the Celtic languages, and by extension for the civilisation which they enjoyed in common; so that there is no serious objection, if we understand clearly what we mean, to speaking of the Celtic peoples, Celtic religions, Celtic arts, and so on. But the expression 'Celtic Race,' even in the sense above mentioned, is apt to be misleading; notably so in Ireland, where the 'Celtic' racial element in the population is insignificant—we may almost say practically non-existent. . . .

"The Celtic language gradually, step by step, yielded to the tongue of the Anglo-Norman invaders, though after 700 years it still lives. There is evidence that the Pre-Celtic speech was also alive, 700 years after the coming of the Celts; though unfortunately it never occurred to its speakers to found a 'Pictish League' for its preservation—a fact which can never sufficiently deplore. The few tiny scraps which are all that survive of this tongue are just enough to make us long for more; but it is gone beyond recall."—R. A. S. Macalister, *Celtic Ireland (Irish Monthly, Nov., 1918, pp. 606-618.*—See also PHILOLOGY: 9; 11; 17.

Ancient Irish sagas.—"There has at last come about a popular revival of interest in the wealth of poems and tales to be found in the ancient Celtic, and especially in the ancient Erse, manuscripts—the whole forming a body of prose and poetry of great and well-nigh unique interest from every standpoint, which in some respects can be matched only by the Norse sagas, and which has some striking beauties the like of which are not to be found even in these Norse sagas. . . . It is difficult to speak with anything like exactness of the relative ages of these primitive literatures. Doubtless in each case the earliest manuscripts that have come down to us are themselves based upon far earlier ones which have been destroyed, and doubtless, when they were first written down, the tales had themselves been recited, and during the course of countless recitations had been changed and added to and built upon, for a period of centuries. . . . The Irish sagas were produced, or at least were in healthy life, at about the time when 'Beowulf' was a live saga, and two or three centuries or thereabouts we would recognize as virtually

akin to that they now have. In these tales, which in so many points are necessarily like the similar tales that have come down from the immemorial past of the peoples of kindred race, there are also striking peculiarities that hedge them apart. The tales are found in many versions, which for the most part have been enlarged by pedantic scribes of aftertime, who often made them prolix and tedious, and added grotesque and fantastic exaggerations of their own to the barbaric exaggerations already in them, doing much what Saxo Grammaticus did for the Scandinavian tales. They might have been woven into some great epic, or at least have taken far more definite and connected shape, if the history of Ireland had developed along lines similar to those of the other nations of west Europe. But her history was broken by terrible national tragedies and calamities. These Celtic sagas are conveniently, though somewhat artificially, arranged in cycles. In some ways the most interesting of these is the Cuchulain cycle, although until very recently it was far less known than the Ossianic cycle—the cycle which tells of the deeds of Finn and the Fianna. The poems which tell of the mighty feats of Cuchulain, and of the heroes whose life-threads were interwoven with his, date back to a purely pagan Ireland—an Ireland cut off from all connection with the splendid and slowly dying civilization of Rome, an Ireland in which still obtained ancient customs that had elsewhere vanished even from the memory of man. Thus the heroes of the Cuchulain sagas still fought in chariots driven each by a charioteer who was also the stanch friend and retainer of the hero. The customs of the heroes and people of the Erin of Cuchulain's time were as archaic as the chariots in which they rode to battle. The sagas contain a wealth of material for the historian. They show us a land where the men were herdsmen, tillers of the soil, hunters, hárds, seers, but, above all, warriors. Erin was a world to herself. Her people at times encountered the peoples of Britain or of Continental Europe, whether in trade or in piracy; but her chief interest, her overwhelming interest, lay in what went on within her own borders. The Erse tales differ markedly from the early Norse and Teutonic stories in more than one particular. A vein of the supernatural and a vein of the romantic run through them and relieve their grimness and harshness in a way very different from anything to be found in the Teutonic. Of course the supernatural element often takes as grim a form in early Irish as in early Norse or German; the Goddess with red eyebrows who on stricken fields wooed the Erse heroes from life did not differ essentially from the Valkyrie; and there were land and water demons in Ireland as terrible as those against which Beowulf warred. But, in addition, there is in the Irish tales, an unearthliness free from all that is monstrous and horrible, and their unearthly creatures could become in aftertime the fairies of the moonlight and the greenwood, so different from the trolls and gnomes and misshapen giants bequeathed to later generations by the Norse mythology. Still more striking is the difference between the women in the Irish sagas and those, for instance, of the Norse sagas. Their heirs of the spirit are the Arthurian heroines, and the heroines of the romances of the Middle Ages. . . . The Erse tales have suffered from many causes. Taken as a mass, they did not develop as the sagas and the epics of certain other nations developed; but they possess extraordinary variety and beauty, and in their mysticism, their devotion to and appreciation of natural beauty, their exaltation of the glo-

rious courage of men and of the charm and devotion of women, in all the touches that tell of a long-vanished life, they possess a curious attraction of their own. They deserve the research which can be given only by the lifelong effort of trained scholars; they should be studied for their poetry, as countless scholars have studied those early literatures; moreover, they should be studied as Victor Bérard has studied the 'Odyssey,' for reasons apart from their poetical worth; and finally they deserve to be translated and adapted so as to become a familiar household part of that literature which all the English-speaking peoples possess in common."—T. Roosevelt, *Ancient Irish sagas (History as literature, and other essays, pp. 278-300)*.—See also BRITANNY: Modern; ENGLISH LITERATURE: Formation; 3rd century; 1880-1020.

CELTS.—A name given among archaeologists to certain prehistoric implements, both stone and bronze, of the wedge, chisel, and axe kind. It has evidently no connection with the word Celt used ethnologically.

CELTS AND IBERIANS IN SPAIN. See CELTIBERIANS.

CELYDDON, Forest of, or Coed Celydon. See BRITAIN: Celtic tribes.

CENABUM. See GENABUM.

CENNINI, Cennino, (fl. 15th century). Italian art teacher and author of the *Trattato*. See EDUCATION, ART: Medieval and Renaissance.

CENOMANIANS. See INSUBRIANS.

CENSOR, rank or grade in Jesuit school. See EDUCATION: Modern; 16th-17th centuries: Jesuit teaching.

CENSORS, Council of Vermont. See VERMONT: 1777-1778.

CENSORS, Roman.—The original business of the Roman censors was to register the citizens and their property. They "made out the returns of the free population; but they did more; they divided it according to its civil distinctions, and drew up a list of the senators, a list of the equites, a list of the members of the several tribes, or of those citizens who enjoyed the right of voting, and a list of the ærarians, consisting of those freedmen, naturalized strangers, and others, who, being enrolled in no tribe, possessed no vote in the comitia, but still enjoyed all the private rights of Roman citizens. Now the lists thus drawn up by the censors were regarded as legal evidence of a man's condition. . . . From thence the transition was easy, according to Roman notions, to the decision of questions of right; such as whether a citizen was really worthy of retaining his rank. . . . If a man behaved tyrannically to his wife or children, if he was guilty of excessive cruelty even to his slaves, if he neglected his land, if he indulged in habits of extravagant expense, or followed any calling which was regarded as degrading, the offence was justly noted by the censors, and the offender was struck off from the list of senators, if his rank was so high; or, if he were an ordinary citizen, he was expelled from his tribe, and reduced to the class of the ærarians."—T. Arnold, *History of Rome, ch. 17*.—See also LUSTRUM.

CENSORSHIP: Press and speech.—Censorship, in the modern sense, began with the invention of the printing press, although as early as the Emperor Augustus, according to Tacitus, an attempt was made to punish libellous or scandalous books and in 150 we find the council of Ephesus condemning and prohibiting the "Acta Pauli," an unauthorized life of St. Paul. During the following centuries similar edicts were issued by ecclesiastical bodies or individuals. "The revolution in the methods of the production and dis-

tribution of literature brought about by the invention of printing in the middle of the 15th century, had, as an immediate result, an enormous increase in the influence upon the shaping of popular opinion of the written, or rather of the printed word, that is, of thought in the form of literature. The work of the printers was at first welcomed by the rulers of the Church. They convinced themselves that the Lord had placed at their disposal a valuable instrument for the spread of sound doctrine and for the enlightenment of believers, and with this conviction, they found funds for the support of a number of the early printers and kept their presses employed in the production of works of approved theological instruction. It was in fact not until nearly three-fourths of a century after Gutenberg, when the leaders of the Reformation were utilising the printing-presses of Wittenberg for the spread of the Protestant heresies, that the ecclesiastics became aroused to the perils that the new art was bringing upon the true faith and upon the authority of the Church. If the people were to be protected against the insidious influence of the new heresies, it was absolutely essential that some system should be instituted under which the productions of the printing-press could be supervised and controlled. . . . The requirement was met by the institution of a system planned to permit no books to reach the public that had not been passed upon and approved by ecclesiastical examiners appointed for the purpose. To this end, the production and the circulation of any literature not so approved were stamped as constituting a misdemeanor of the most serious character, one that might, under certain circumstances, become the final sin against the light, the offence against the Holy Ghost. In 1550, the responsibility for the censorship of literature was first assumed directly by the papal authority through the publication of the *Index Auctorum et Librorum Prohibitorum*, of Paul IV, the first of a long series of papal Indexes, aggregating, up to 1890, forty-two in all [see also BOOKS: Books in Medieval times; and PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1564-1581]. The present methods of Roman censorship are more complicated than they were in 1550.—“The pope retains for himself, the official headship of the Congregation of the Index on the ground that the work of this Congregation has to do directly with matters of doctrine. The working body of the Congregation of the Index comprises ten to twelve members with votes, including always a group of cardinals. In addition to these voting members, there is a varying number of *consultores* (advisers) who are called in as experts in different divisions of knowledge, but who have no votes in the decisions arrived at.”—G. H. Putnam, *Censorship of the Church of Rome*, v. 1, pp. 3 and 427.

Austria.—“Metternich reigned [following the Napoleonic overthrow] as undisputed master and infallible guide. Through his influence a system of intellectual repression was instituted which became notorious as the ‘Metternich system.’ A harsh censorship was established over journals, books, plays, and schools. Spies were introduced into the university classrooms, who took notes at the lectures delivered by the professors and reported any utterances unfavorable to the Government. Librarians had to report the kind of books borrowed by liberal minded persons. The sale of books expressing liberal views, even of the most moderate kind, was forbidden. Most of the schools were placed under the control of the Catholic clergy, and students were compelled to go to mass on pain of dismissal. Prevention was the sum total

of the ‘Metternich system, which lay like a dead weight on the people for an entire generation.’—J. S. Schapiro, *Modern and contemporary European history*, p. 123.—See also AUSTRIA: 1905-1911.

Belgium.—Censorship laws. See BELGIUM, CONSTITUTION OF: Title II.

England.—“The Stationers’ Company received its charter by royal decree in 1566. . . . It constituted an organization of the publishing and printing trades of London which assumed to represent the publishing interests of the country. It seems probable that the purpose of the institution of the Company was not so much the furthering of the business of book-production, as the organization of this business in such shape that it could be reached effectively and promptly by the censorship authorities of the Crown. No question appears to have arisen in England in regard to any conflicting authority on the part of the Church to control such censorship. The Crown utilised the services of bishops and of other ecclesiastics for the examination of works in the division of theology which came under the suspicions of heresy. The selection of the examiners and the decision concerning the disposition of the books so examined was reserved, however, for the direct action of the Crown or of the representatives of the Crown. Such censorship as came into action in England proved to be more important in connection with political literature than with works on religion or theology. In 1644, the Long Parliament enacted certain regulations for the control of printing which provided that ‘No book, pamphlet, or paper shall be henceforth printed unless the same be first approved and licensed by censors that shall be thereto appointed.’ Milton had been a persistent opponent of the policy of censorship and of licensing, and one result of the enactment was the publication of the famous *Areopagitica*, an oration in the form of a pamphlet, which presented with fierce eloquence a protest against the whole theory of the exercise by Government licensers of a supervision and control of literature, or of the delegation of such control to a commercial company (the Stationers’ Company) which was the creation of Government.”—*Ibid.*, v. 2, pp. 368-369.—“As good almost kill a Man as kill a good Booke,” wrote Milton in the *Areopagitica*. “Who destroys a good Booke, kills Reason itself, kills the image of God as it were in the eye.”—See also PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1637; 1647; and 1695.

In Great Britain the office of “Examiner of State Plays” was created under the Licensing Act of 1737 and confirmed by the Theatre Regulation Act 1842. This measure brought all London theatres under the control of the Lord Chamberlain’s office, to which the one or two examiners are attached. These officials are generally chosen from the ranks of well-known literary men; the jurisdiction of their censorship extends to the cities of London and Westminster, and certain other parts of the metropolis, as well as to those places within which the sovereign may occasionally reside. Within these limits no play can be produced without the Lord Chamberlain’s sanction.—See also ENGLAND: 1762-1764; 1771; 1816-1820.

France.—The French Revolution was in part a protest against censorship of speech and press. Opposition to the government of France, if openly expressed, was likely to land the writer in the frightful dungeons of the Bastille. Even philosophical discussion was hampered by the government. When Voltaire returned from England “he had to wait long and use many arts and suffer

harassing persecution, before he could publish what he had to say on Newton and Locke, and in other less important respects had to suppress much of what he had most at heart to say."—J. Morley, *Voltaire*, v. 1, p. 64.—In 1727 the first real encyclopedia was published in England and Denis Diderot was chosen to bring out a French edition. Employing most of the literary men of France to help him, Diderot published the first volume of the work in 1751 and the second in 1752. "A month later the work was suppressed by the Council as dangerous to royal authority and religion. None the less, the publication was continued, until in 1757 the work had reached the end of the letter G. Then, because of a most radical book of Helvetius, one of the leading Encyclopedists, the storm broke out again, and it was not until 1755 that the remaining volumes were delivered to subscribers."—S. Mathews, *French Revolution*, p. 62.—"Whatever may have been the real attitude of the parliaments, the makers of political history, toward the current political theories, they were dependent upon public opinion for support in their struggle with the monarchy. The government naturally endeavored to deprive them of this support and its attempts to suppress discussion and to prevent the expression of public opinion form one of the most interesting features of this remarkably interesting period. Throughout the century, it strove to maintain a strict censorship over the press, but its success was not flattering. The re-appearance, from time to time, of edicts upon the press was proof in itself of the inability of the government to deal successfully with the problem. . . . Presses were seized or destroyed; authors were immured in the Bastille; printers and colporteurs were placed in the stocks or sent to the galleys, while books and pamphlets were confiscated and many of them burned by the hangman. All these efforts were useless. The whole nation was in a conspiracy against the government. . . . Mirabeau, like the men of his generation, hoped all things from the growth of intelligence as the result of education, but his book ['Essay upon Despotism'] contains no definite counsels as to how that education could be accomplished. He would instruct the despot, but he confessed that 'the first arms of despots . . .' are 'the obstacles placed in the way of instruction, the prohibitions that hamper the press and the publication of public writings.' Despotism deprived him of the very means by which he would overcome despotism."—F. M. Fling, *Mirabeau and the French Revolution*, pp. 16, 17, 464.—"The whole trade in books was a sort of contraband, and was carried on with the stealth, subterfuge, daring, and knavery that are demanded in contraband dealings. . . . No work of merit could appear without more or less of slavish mutilation, and no amount of slavish mutilation could make the writer secure against the accidental grudge of people who had influence in high quarters. . . . Holland was now the great printing press of France, and when we are counting up the contributions of Protestantism to the enfranchisement of Europe, it is just to remember the indispensable services rendered by the freedom of the press in Holland to the dissemination of French thought in the eighteenth century. . . . The French government was anxious enough on all grounds to secure for France the production of the books of which France was the great consumer, but the severity of its censorship prevented this. The introduction of the books, when printed, was tolerated or connived at, because the country would hardly have endured to be deprived of the enjoyment of its own literature. C. G. de Lamoig-

non de Malesherbes, son of the chancellor . . . was Directeur de la Librairie from 1750-1763. The process was this: a book was submitted to him; he named a censor for it; on the censor's report the director gave or refused permission to print, or required alterations. Even after these formalities were complied with, the book was liable to a decree of the royal council, a decree of the parliament, or else a *lettre-de-cachet* might send the author to the Bastille."—J. Morley, *Rousseau*, v. 2, pp. 56-60 and footnote on p. 61.—With the revolution came a sudden change. Freedom of speech and of the press was assured by the "Declaration of the Rights of Man." Pamphlets on all subjects appeared; thousands of small newspapers and brochures came into existence. Freedom of speech increased to such an extent that every market place was filled with orators, discussing the condition of the nation. Restrictions on the press were again imposed in 1791 and 1810. Modern freedom of the press in France began with the law of 1831 asserting the liberty of the press and of bookselling which existed up to the outbreak of the World War. Political censorship was abolished in 1916. See FRANCE: 1830-1840; 1849-1851; 1916 (December).

Germany.—From 1529 to 1848 a rigid censorship existed in Germany. Nominally, liberty of discussion was established in 1848. The imperial constitution, however, gave to the Empire the power to regulate the press and the right of association. The press law of 1874 affirmed the liberty of the press, specifically stating, however, that this law was not to affect regulations made in time of war or internal disturbance. Section XIII, article 74, of the imperial constitution reads:—"Every attempt against the existence, the integrity, the security or the Constitution of the German Empire; finally, any affront offered to the *Bundesrat*, the *Reichstag*, a member of the *Bundesrat* or *Reichstag*, an authority or a public official of the Empire, while in the exercise of their calling . . . by word, writing, print . . . or other representation, shall be adjudged and punished in the several States of the *Bund* according to the laws therein existing, or which shall hereafter go into effect, by which a similar act committed against the individual State . . . is adjudged."—B. E. Howard, *German empire*, pp. 433-434.—See also GERMANY: 1900 (October 9).

Hungary.—Censorship of the press. See HUNGARY: 1825-1844.

Poland.—Censorship laws. See POLAND, CONSTITUTION OF.

United States: 1734.—Trial of John Peter Zenger. See NEW YORK: 1720-1734.

United States: 1789-1917.—As originally adopted the constitution contained no guarantee of liberty of the press or of speech. The framers of the document did not consider this necessary. Hamilton wrote: "For why declare that things shall not be done which there is no power to do? Why, for instance, should it be said that the liberty of the press shall not be restrained, when no power is given by which restrictions may be imposed? I will not contend that such a provision would confer a regulating power; but it is evident that it would furnish, to men disposed to usurp, a plausible pretense for claiming that power. They might urge with a semblance of reason that the Constitution ought not to be charged with the absurdity of providing against the abuse of an authority which was not given, and that the provision against restraining the liberty of the press afforded a clear implication that a power to prescribe proper regulations concerning it was intended to be vested

in the national government. . . . In the subject of the liberty of the press, as much as has been said, I cannot forbear adding a remark or two: in the first place, I observe that there is not a syllable concerning it in the constitution of this State [New York]; in the next, I contend that whatever has been said about it in that of any other State amounts to nothing. What signifies a declaration that 'the liberty of the press shall be inviolably preserved'? What is the liberty of the press? Who can give it any definition which would not leave the utmost latitude for evasion? I hold it to be impracticable; and from this I infer that its security, whatever fine declarations may be inserted in any constitution respecting it, must altogether depend on public opinion, and on the general spirit of the people and of the government."—A. Hamilton, *Federalist* (P. L. Ford, ed.), pp. 574-575.—*The first amendment to the constitution of the United States declares that "Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances."* The Sedition Act, 1798, "was intended to deal with citizens or aliens who too severely criticised the government. In its original form it was made illegal to justify the present attitude of France, or to imply that the administration acted contrary to the Constitution or to the liberties and happiness of the people. In its final shape it was made a high misdemeanor 'unlawfully to combine and conspire' in order to oppose the legal measures of the government, or in order to prevent a federal officer from executing his office, or with such purpose 'to commit, advise, or attempt to procure any insurrection, riot, or unlawful assembly, or combination.' The penalty was to be a fine not exceeding five thousand dollars and imprisonment not exceeding five years. To publish a false or malicious writing against the government of the United States, the president, or Congress with the purpose of stirring up hatred or resistance against them, or to incite any foreign nation to war against the United States, was made a misdemeanor punishable by fine of not more than two thousand dollars and imprisonment not longer than two years. . . . The Republicans held that the sedition law was unconstitutional because the federal courts had jurisdiction over those crimes only which were mentioned in the Constitution; they declared that these courts had by the Constitution no common-law jurisdiction, and they thought that this attempt to assume one was a dangerous advance in consolidating the federal government [see also U. S. A.: 1798.] The point was not settled at the time, but in 1882, after much uncertainty had existed for some time, the supreme court held that the federal courts have no common law jurisdiction in criminal cases."—J. S. Bassett, *Federalist system 1789-1801*, pp., 259, 260, 261.

In 1836 what is known as the *Gag resolution* was introduced into the House of Representatives providing for the appointment of a special committee, "under the chairmanship of Pinckney, of South Carolina, which accused the abolitionists of dangerous agitation tending to break up the Union, and recommended a resolution: 'That all petitions, memorials, resolutions, propositions or papers relating in any way or to any extent whatever to the subject of slavery or the abolition of slavery shall, without being either printed or referred, be laid upon the table and that no further action whatever shall be had thereon.' This so-called 'gag resolution' was duly adopted, May 26,

by a vote of 117 to 68; and the principle was thus laid down that no petitions on slavery should be brought to the attention of the House [see U. S. A.: 1836: Atherton gag]. When the name of John Quincy Adams was called, he cried: 'I hold the resolution to be a direct violation of the Constitution of the United States, of the rules of this House, and of the rights of my constituents.' . . . Under the practice of the House at that time the rules expired at the end of every session, but the gag resolution was easily renewed in January, 1837, by a vote of 129 to 69. When the new Congress assembled in December, 1837, resolutions of the Vermont legislature were presented asking their representatives and senators to use their influence to abolish slavery in the District of Columbia. By the doctrine of state sovereignty such resolutions had a different footing in Congress from the memorials of individuals; nevertheless, most of the southern members thereupon withdrew from the House to concert measures against further discussion of slavery in Congress. To this so-called 'Memorable Secession' Rhett, of South Carolina, proposed a special committee to report on the best way of peaceably dissolving the Union; but it finally agreed upon a more stringent gag resolution, which was passed next day by a vote of 122 to 74."—A. B. Hart, *Slavery and abolition, 1831-1841*, pp. 250-261.—The last gag resolution was abandoned in 1844.

"Whether it was possible for a person in one state to commit a crime of which other states could take cognizance, without the alleged criminal leaving his own domicile, was a question raised when abolition newspapers and other controversial material was sent to people in the southern states. These papers contained rude wood-cuts illustrating the cruel treatment of slaves, and many allusions to the injustice and illegality of slavery. In several southern cities such papers were seized in July, 1835, by self-constituted guardians of the peace, and burned before thousands of spectators. The postmaster of Charleston appealed to the postmaster of New York, to stop sending such matter; and he asked the anti-slavery societies to discontinue their use of the mails—a request which they refused to consider. The post-master-general, Amos Kendall, himself a slaveholder, declined to issue any official order to exclude matter duly mailed, but added the significant hint: 'We owe an obligation to the laws, but a higher one to the communities in which we live.' With this statement, which bears a singular kinship to 'higher law' principle of the abolitionists, the postmaster was well enough contented, and no more abolition mail was delivered in Charleston. [See also U. S. A.: 1835.] In this virtual approval of a search and censorship of the mail, Kendall was supported by President Jackson, who, in his annual message of 1835, suggested action by Congress. Calhoun introduced a Senate bill in 1836 providing that any mail matter (other than letters) touching the subject of slavery should not be delivered in any state prohibiting the circulation of such matter; and he got nineteen votes in favor of his proposal against twenty-five. Congress was held back by constitutional objections: it was to enact in advance laws not yet made by the states, and also to make as many different kinds of federal law as there were varieties of state legislation on the subject."—*Ibid.*, pp. 286, 287, 288.—"The Press was essentially free at the North, [during the Civil War] entirely so at the South, where no journals were suppressed as some had been in the Union. As the Southern papers had little news-gathering enterprise and borrowed a large part of their news

from the Northern press, they did not offend the Confederate generals as the Union generals were offended by the publications of estimates of the strength of armies or shrewd guesses of projected movements. Sometimes the Richmond journals, upon request of General Lee or the Secretary of War, refrained from publishing intelligence that might benefit the enemy, but no compulsion was employed. The right of public meeting was fully exercised in both sections, but the gatherings for free discussion were much more common at the North."—J. F. Rhodes, *History of the Civil War, 1861-1865*, p. 394.—See also PRINTING AND THE PRESS: 1861-1865.—During the Civil War the center of Copperhead agitation was in Ohio. The term "*Copperhead*," used to describe Northerners who opposed the war, originated in the fact that at a mass-meeting on May 1, 1863, the head of the Goddess of Liberty, cut out from a copper cent, was worn as a badge by many in the audience. For a violent speech delivered upon this occasion Clement L. Vallandigham was arrested and court-martialed upon orders by General Burnside. "No part of American liberty has been more jealously regarded than freedom of speech; had it come to such a pass in America that a man could no longer say what he chose? And if called to account, was it proper that the orator delivering his criticism in a part of the country not the seat of war should be seized by soldiers and tried by a court-martial? Justification for Burnside's proceeding might be sought in Lincoln's proclamation of September 24, 1862, which declared that 'During the existing insurrection, and as a necessary measure to suppressing the same, all rebels and insurgents, their aiders and abettors, within the United States, and all persons discouraging voluntary enlistments, resisting militia drafts, or guilty of any disloyal practice affording aid and comfort to rebels against the authority of the United States, shall be subject to martial law, and liable to trial and punishment by courts martial, or military commissions. This was certainly very definite; but the president's right to issue such a proclamation was gravely questioned, in particular by B. R. Curtis, who had been superseded by an act of Congress of March 3, 1863, signed by the president, according to which the proceeding of Burnside was quite too summary. Conceding that the arrest of Vallandigham was permissible (certainly in the arbitrary arrests which had taken place there was abundant precedent), the statute of March 3, 1863, made it necessary that the secretary of war should report the arrest to the Federal judge of that district; and if the grand jury found no indictment against him as giving aid and comfort to the enemy, the discharge of the prisoner was proper. In fact, the act of Burnside was an overstepping of his powers, which the administration should have discountenanced [see also U. S. A.: 1863 (May-June)]. In this crisis Lincoln showed vacillation. When, a few weeks later, Burnside suppressed the *Chicago Times*, for an offence similar to that of Vallandigham's, the president, under the pressure of such good friends of his as Lyman Trumbull and Isaac N. Arnold, and others, discountenanced the proceeding.—J. K. Hosmer, *Outcome of the Civil War, 1863-1865 (American Nation, v. 21, pp. 5-6)*.—"The clerk of the House of Representatives in 1864 writes of the suppression of newspapers as follows:

"August 16, 1861.—In the United States Circuit Court of New York the grand jury presented the *Journal of Commerce*, the *Daily News*,

the *Freeman's Journal*, and the *Brooklyn Eagle* as aiders and abettors of treason, in terms following:

" "To the Circuit Court of the United States, for the Southern District of New York:

" "The Grand Inquest of the United States of America for the Southern District of New York beg leave to present the following facts to the Court and ask its advice thereon:

" "There are certain newspapers within this district which are in the frequent practice of encouraging the rebels now in arms against the Federal Government by expressing sympathy and agreement with them, the duty of acceding to their demands, and dissatisfaction with the employment of force to overcome them. These papers are the *New York Daily* and weekly *Journal of Commerce*, the daily and weekly *News*, the daily and weekly *Day-Book*, the *Freeman's Journal*, all published in the city of New York, and the daily and weekly *Eagle*, published in the city of Brooklyn. The first named of these has just published a list of newspapers in the free States opposed to what it calls '*the present unholy war*'—a war in the defence of our country and its institutions, and our most sacred rights, and carried on solely for the restoration of the authority of the Government.

" "The Grand Jury are aware that free Governments allow liberty of speech and of the press to their utmost limit, but there is nevertheless a limit. If a person in a fortress or an army were to preach to the soldiers submission to the enemy he would be treated as an offender. Would he be more culpable than the citizen who, in the midst of the most formidable conspiracy and rebellion tells the conspirators and rebels that they are right, encourages them to persevere in resistance, and condemns the effort of loyal citizens to overcome and punish them as an 'unholy war' . . .

" "The conduct of these disloyal presses is of course condemned and abhorred by all loyal men; but the Grand Jury will be glad to learn from the Court that it is also subject to indictment and condign punishment.

" "CHARLES GOULD, Foreman.

" "New York, August 16, 1861."

(Signed by all the Grand Jurors.)

"Order of the Postmaster General

" "POST OFFICE DEPARTMENT.

" "August 22, 1861.

" "Sir: The Postmaster General directs that from and after your receipt of this letter none of the newspapers published in New York city which were lately presented by the grand jury as dangerous, from their disloyalty, shall be forwarded in the mails.

" "I am, respectfully, your obedient servant,

" "T. B. TROTT, Chief Clerk.

" "TO THE POSTMASTER, NEW YORK CITY."

"*Philadelphia, August 22*.—On the arrival of the New York train this morning Marshal Millward, and his officers, examined all the bundles of papers and seized every copy of the *New York Daily News*. The sale of this paper is totally suppressed in this city. . . .

"1864, May 19.—By order of the Secretary of War, the offices of the *Journal of Commerce*

and the *World*—in which papers had appeared a forged proclamation of the President for 400,000 troops—were seized by the military authorities and held for several days. This led to these proceedings:

“Gov. Seymour’s Letter to the District Attorney

““STATE OF NEW YORK,
““EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
““ALBANY, MAY 23, 1864.

““TO A. OAKLEY HALL, ESQ.,

““District Attorney of the County of New York:

““Sir: I am advised that on the 10th inst., the office of *The Journal of Commerce* and that of *The New York World* were entered by armed men, the property of the owners seized, and the premises held by force for several days. It is charged that these acts of violence were done without due legal process, and without the sanction of state or national laws.

““If this be true the offenders must be punished.

““In the month of July last, when New York was a scene of violence, I gave warning that ‘the laws of the State must be enforced, its peace and order maintained and the property of its citizens protected at every hazard.’ . . . The declaration I then made was not intended merely for that occasion or against any class of men. It is one of an enduring character, to be asserted at all times and against all condition of citizens, without favor or distinction. . . .

““Unless all are made secure in their rights of person and property, none can be protected. If the owners of the above-named journals have violated State or national laws, they must be proceeded against and punished by those laws. Any action against them outside of legal procedures is criminal. At this time of civil war and disorder, the majesty of the law must be upheld or society will sink into anarchy. Our soldiers in the field will battle in vain for constitutional liberty if persons or property, or opinions, are trampled upon at home. We must not give up home freedom, and thus disgrace the American character while our citizens in the army are pouring out their blood to maintain the national honor. They must not find when they come back that their personal and fire-side rights have been despoiled.

““Very respectfully yours, etc.,

““HORATIO SEYMOUR.””

—E. McPherson, *Political history of the United States of America, during the great rebellion*, pp. 188, 192.

Since the Civil War the government has assumed the power to censor in certain limited ways; “the federal government excludes from the mails matter which the post-office authorities deem dangerous to morals, such as obscene literature and lottery mail.”—A. B. Hart, *Slavery and abolition*, p. 288. —On the whole, however, up to the entrance of the United States into the World War, freedom of speech and of the press had not been interfered with to any great extent by the government. James Bryce speaks of “unbounded freedom of discussion. Every view, every line of policy, has its fair chance before the people. . . No one can say that audience has been denied him, and comfort himself with the hope that, when he is heard, the world will come round to him. Under a repressive government, the sense of grievance and in-

justice feeds the flame of resistance in a persecuted minority. But in a country like this, where the freedom of the press, the right of public meeting, and the right of association and agitation have been legally extended and are daily exerted more widely than anywhere else in the world, there is nothing to awaken that sense. He whom the multitude condemns or ignores has no further court of appeal to look to. Rome has spoken. His cause has been heard and judgment has gone against him.”—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth*, p. 353.

World War: England.—France.—Germany.—New Zealand.—United States.—On August 8, 1914, the British House of Commons passed the Defense of the Realm act. “Orders in council have been made under this act which prohibit, in the widest possible terms, any attempt on the part either of aliens or of British subjects to communicate any information which ‘is calculated to be or might be directly or indirectly useful to an enemy’; and any person offending against this prohibition is liable to be tried by court-martial and sentenced to penal servitude for life.”—British Home Office, *Communication of Oct. 9, 1914*.—See ENGLAND: 1914-1918: Defense of the Realm Acts.—News censorship in France was strictly enforced (see FRANCE: 1914-1915). The papers contained little but records of events and daily progress of campaigns, partly owing to the censorship, partly due to the fact that most of the journalists and writers were in the army, and paper was scarce. In Germany, according to the provisions of its constitution, the imperial press law of 1874 was suspended. In time of war the kaiser, being commander-in-chief of the imperial forces, had the power to declare martial law, and under such martial law, the press laws and all acts concerning the right of assembly and association could be disregarded. Censorship was abolished by the German revolution. The new constitution of August, 1919, provides that “the secrecy of letter and other post, telegraph, and telephone services will remain inviolate. . . . Exceptions may be permitted only by national law. . . . Every German has a right within the limits of the general laws to express his opinions freely by word, in writing, in print, by picture, or in any other way. No relationship arising out of his employment may hinder him in the exercise of this right, and no one may discriminate against him if he makes use of this right. There is no censorship, although exceptional provisions may be made by law in the case of moving pictures. . . . All Germans have the right of meeting peaceably and unarmed without notice or special permission. Previous notice may be required by national law for meetings in the open, and such meetings may be forbidden in case of immediate danger to the public safety. . . . Every German has the right to petition or to complain in writing to the appropriate authorities or to the representatives of the People.”—*Constitution of the German Commonwealth, Articles 34, 117, 118, 123, 126*, translated by W. B. Munro and A. N. Holcombe in v. 2, No. 6 of the *World peace foundation’s pamphlets*, pp. 362, 383, 385.

“The leader of the Labor Party has drawn an important statement from the Attorney-General, Sir Francis Bell, on the policy of the New Zealand Government in respect to sedition and free speech. There has been some uneasiness, even among people who do not belong to the Labor Party, over the censorship established on books by the government; certain books which can be bought in the ordinary way in England and Australia, are banned in New Zealand. One of these is ‘Red Europe,’ a book by Frank Anstey, a well-known Socialist

member of Parliament in Australia. It has been feared that this censorship oversteps the bounds of traditional British freedom in the matter of free speech. Matters were brought to a head, so far as the Labor Party is concerned, by the recent conviction of a Socialist in Wellington for having sold copies of The Communist Program and other pamphlets. In convicting this man the magistrate pointed out that the literature in question plainly advocated the use of violence by workers to gain their ends. The leader of the Labor Party protested to the Attorney-General, contending that the conviction was an infringement of the right of free thinking, and asking whether the government proposed to prosecute men who read and circulated such books. Sir Francis Bell's reply is an important definition of the government's attitude. He agrees entirely with the contention that there should be full freedom to read every view point; but accuses the leader of the Labor Party of evading the real issue, which is the unlawful advocacy of violence.

"Each of the documents which the offender was found to have distributed advocated in the plainest manner bloodshed and violence as the method by which its propaganda was to be carried into effect. . . . I do not suggest that you are one of those who instigated and affirmed the distribution and circulation of literature advocating such methods. But your words can only mean that it is not criminal to advocate murder as a method of attaining social and political conditions or constitutional change. That is the issue between the government of a civilized country and offenders of the class for whom you ask that the prerogative of pardon should be exercised." Sir Francis Bell points out that all war restrictions in freedom of speech have been repealed, save the law prohibiting advocacy of violence or lawlessness. "So long as men refrain in print or language from inciting to violence or lawlessness, they are absolutely free to hold and express any opinions, and to advocate any change, however revolutionary, in the Constitution, or in the form of government. 'Advocacy of Communism, Socialism or a republic is not an offense.'"—*Christian Science Monitor*, July 5, 1921.

In the United States the government attitude toward the press and free speech in war time found expression in the Espionage act. "Almost immediately on the entrance of the United States into the war, it became apparent that special provision should be made, on the one hand, to control the giving of information to the public regarding matters of military import, and, on the other, to make known in an authoritative manner such information as it was desirable that the public should have. On April 13, 1917, the Secretaries of State, War, and the Navy addressed a joint letter to the President calling this matter to his attention and suggesting that there be created a body to be known as the Committee on Public Information which should have these two functions of censorship and publicity in charge. Acting on this recommendation, the President, by executive order issued April 14, 1917, provided for the creation of this Committee, specifying that it should consist of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, and a civilian who should act as the executive head of the Committee. George Creel was named as the civilian member. In describing the work of this Committee it is well to distinguish between its two functions as a censorship board and as an organ of publicity. In respect to the first it should be noted that the functions of the Committee related wholly to the control of publications inside the United States.

It had no duty in respect to the censoring of communications passing between the United States and other countries, the control of such communications being vested in a Censorship Board which will be hereafter described. The situation as regards the control of the domestic press at the outbreak of the war was one in which the Government not only had little or no positive powers to control such publications, but was loath to seek enlarged powers because of the strong adherence of the American people to the principle of the freedom of the press. The Government therefore decided that such measures of control as it would seek to exercise should be in the way of making an appeal to the press of the country voluntarily to refrain from the publication of information that might be of value to the enemy or embarrass the Government in its operations at home. To the committee on Public Information was entrusted the duty of making this appeal to the press and of taking such steps as were in its power to see that its appeal was met. The Committee accordingly prepared and issued to the press a carefully drafted statement setting forth the character of the information that the Government desired should not be given publicity, and the rules that should be observed by the press in giving information of a military nature or in commenting upon such news. In this statement it was carefully set forth that the regulations thus formulated were not of a legally binding character, but were requests which it was hoped that the press would voluntarily observe. The statement thus said: "The Committee on Public Information is without legal authority or moral right to bring any form of pressure on publications to enforce observance of these requests. These paragraphs embody what the military and naval experts of our country hold to be the minimum that can be asked at this time for the protection of our soldiers and sailors and the success of our military plans. For their observance the Government relies implicitly upon the loyalty and judgment of the individual writer and publisher. . . . These requests go to the press without larger authority than the necessities of the war-making branches. Their enforcement is a matter for the press itself." The Committee, or its Chairman, also participated in other branches of the work of controlling the imparting of information that might be of use to the enemy through the fact that the Chairman of the Committee was a member of the Censorship Board to be hereafter described, and that the Committee was made the agency or clearing house to relate the activities of the military and naval classes to the other departments of the Government, and to the public. . . .

"All Governments in time of war have to take steps to prevent the disclosure to the enemy of information regarding their military plans and operations. They have also to take precautions against the spreading of misinformation, seditious utterances, the publication of seditious matter, or any action having for its purpose or effect to lend aid and comfort to the enemy, or to embarrass the Government in its plans, or to lead the people to do other than give a full and hearty support to the Government and to the enforcement of all laws enacted by it. In no war in which we have ever been engaged has action of this kind been more necessary than in the case of the Great War. This was due to a combination of circumstances. We had in our midst, in the first place, millions of persons who had been born in the countries with which we were at war or were children of parents who had been born there and

who had a natural sympathy for those countries. Many of these persons had never foresworn allegiance to those countries and were thus aliens. Many also were unable to read and write the English language and had thus been unable to fully enter into the life and aims of their new country. There was a large and influential press published in the enemy's language. There were also in the country a certain number of persons adhering to the tenets of socialism and pacifism who could not be counted upon to support the Government with loyalty even if they did not seek positively to embarrass it in its war measures. Most important of all, however, was the fact that the enemy, even before our entrance into the war, had organized a spy service in this country on a most elaborate scale, had taken steps through his accredited diplomatic and consular representatives for the destruction of ammunition plants, the promotion of labor disturbances, and interference in every way possible in our industrial life, and had in full force a propaganda having for its purpose to promote his interests and do damage to our own."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 33-35, 39, 40.—"The chief law under which freedom of speech and of the press was restricted during the war was the *Espionage Act of June 15, 1917*. The main provisions which relate to the subject under discussion are as follows: 'Whoever, when the United States is at war, shall willfully make or convey false reports or false statements with intent to interfere with the operation or success of the military or naval forces of the United States or to promote the success of its enemies and whoever, when the United States is at war, shall willfully cause or attempt to cause insubordination, disloyalty, mutiny, or refusal of duty, in the military or naval forces of the United States, or shall willfully obstruct the recruiting or enlistment service of the United States, to the injury of the service or of the United States, shall be punished by a fine of not more than \$10,000 or imprisonment for not more than twenty years, or both. . . . Whoever harbors or conceals any person who he knows, or has reasonable grounds to believe or suspect, has committed, or is about to commit, an offense under this title shall be punished by a fine of not more than \$10,000 or by imprisonment for not more than two years, or both. . . . Whoever, in relation to any dispute or controversy between a foreign government and the United States, shall willfully and knowingly make any untrue statement, whether orally or in writing, under oath before any person authorized and empowered to administer oaths, which the affiant has knowledge or reason to believe will, or may be used to influence the measures or conduct of any foreign government, or of any officer or agent of any foreign government, to the injury of the United States, or with a view or intent to influence any measure of or action by the Government of the United States or any branch thereof, to the injury of the United States, shall be fined not more than \$5,000 or imprisoned not more than five years, or both.'"—*American Journal of International Law, Supplement, 1917, v. 2, pp. 189-190*.—In an executive order of October 12, 1917, President Wilson designated the postmaster-general as the official to censor the foreign languages press. "I Hereby vest in the Postmaster General the executive administration of all its provisions (except the penal provisions) of Section 19 of the Trading with the Enemy Act relating to the printing, publishing, or circulation in any foreign language of any news item, editorial, or other printed matter respecting

the government of the United States, or of any nation engaged in the present war, its policies, international relations, the state or conduct of the war or any matter relating thereto, and the filing with the Postmaster at the place of publication, in the form of an affidavit of a true and complete translation of the entire article containing such matter proposed to be published in such print, newspaper or publication, and the issuance of permits for the printing, publication and distribution thereof free from said restriction. And the Postmaster General is authorized and empowered to issue such permits upon such terms and conditions as are not inconsistent with law and to refuse, withhold or revoke the same."

"It should be noted in connection with the above that the censoring of communications and the control of the press as thus provided for relate only to foreign communications and to the printing, publication, and distribution of matter in a foreign language. No provision was made for the censoring of internal communications, and the control over the press in the English language remained in the voluntary basis as administered by the Committee on Public Information, subject, however, to the right of the Postmaster-General to refuse the right to the use of the mails to publications not complying with the provisions of the law."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 47, 48.—See also ESPIONAGE ACT; SUPREME COURT: 1917-1921; and U. S. A.: 1917-1919; Effect on the United States, of the war.—Mails, cables and other means of communication were restricted as well as the press, by governments. "Great Britain at the outset of the war established a most efficient mail censorship which not only stopped all mail destined for, or coming from, enemy countries, but also examined mail of neutral origin and destination. The latter action caused many protests, notably from Sweden and the United States. When the United States entered the war, the government assumed control over all means of communication—radio, telegraph, telephone, cable and mail. The censorship of cables was under the Secretary of the Navy. The Espionage Act contained the following provision: 'Section 1. Every letter, writing, circular, postal card, picture, print, engraving, photograph, newspaper, pamphlet, book or other publication, matter or thing, of any kind, in violation of any of the provisions of this Act is hereby declared to be non-mailable matter and shall not be conveyed in the mails or delivered from any post office or by any letter carrier: *Provided*, that nothing in this act shall be so construed as to authorize any person other than an employee of the Dead Letter Office, duly authorized thereto, or other person upon a search warrant authorized by law, to open any letter not addressed to himself. Sec. 2. Every letter, writing, circular, postal card, picture, print, engraving, photograph, newspaper, pamphlet, book, or other publication, matter or thing of any kind, containing any matter advocating or urging treason, insurrection, or forcible, resistance to any law of the United States, is hereby declared to be non-mailable. Sec. 3. Whoever shall use or attempt to use the mails or Postals Service of the United States for the transmission of any matter declared by this title to be non-mailable, shall be fined not more than \$5,000 or imprisoned not more than five years, or both. Any person violating any provision of this title may be tried and punished either in the district in which the unlawful matter or publication was mailed, or to which it was carried by mail or delivery according to the direction thereon, or in which it was caused

to be delivered by mail to the person to whom it was addressed.'—*American Journal of International Law, Supplement*, 1917, v. 2, p. 197.—The Trading-with-the-Enemy act of October 6, 1917, "among other things, prohibits any person—not duly authorized so to do, 'to send or take out of, or bring into, or attempt to send, or take out, or bring into the United States any letter or other writing or tangible form of communication, except in the regular course of the mail,' or 'to send, take or transmit, or attempt to send, take, or transmit out of the United States, any letter or other writing, book, map, plan or any paper, picture, or any telegrams, cablegrams or wireless message, or other form of communication intended for or to be delivered directly or indirectly to an enemy or ally of enemy,' except as such communication had been authorized by the President or such officer as the President might direct. It further conferred upon the President complete power to censor all communications of every sort passing between this country and any foreign country. . . . By executive order dated October 12, 1917, the President designated the various agencies which should have charge of the administration of the several features of the Trading-with-the-Enemy Act. For the censoring of news coming from or going to foreign countries this order created a body known as the Censorship Board, to be composed of representatives of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Postmaster-General, the War Trade Board and the Chairman of the Committee on Public Information. . . . Following is a copy of the provisions of this order: 'XIV. I hereby establish a Censorship Board to be composed of representatives respectively of the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the Postmaster General, the War Trade Board and the Chairman of the Committee on Public Information. XV. And I hereby vest in said Censorship Board the executive administration of the rules, regulations and proclamations from time to time established by the President under sub-section (d) of section 3, of the Trading-with-the-Enemy Act, for the censorship of communications by mail, cable, radio or other means of transmission passing between the United States and any foreign country from time to time specified by the President, or carried by any vessel, or other means of transportation touching at any port, place or territory of the United States and bound to or from any foreign country. XVI. The said Censorship Board is hereby authorized to take all such measures as may be necessary or expedient to administer the powers hereby conferred.'—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, pp. 45-47.—Within a few weeks of the passage of this act the executive postal censorship committee started its work in New York City. Beginning with fifty or sixty censors, the organization at its height contained over 700 clerks and translators. Absolute secrecy prevailed. Valuable information was obtained from the mail examined and many plots of enemy agents were frustrated. The committee worked in cooperation with the army and navy intelligence sections, the war trade board, the post office, and the cable censorship.—See also U. S. A.: 1917 (Oct.): Trading with the enemy act.—"The continuance of the censorship of foreign mails and cable and wireless communications after the signing of the armistice gave rise to widespread protests. Although the censorship of cables by the United States was in time discontinued, the fact that foreign Governments still censor communications at the other end has prevented this means of communication from being

freely used as in normal times."—W. F. Willoughby, *Government organization in war time and after*, p. 49.—See also WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: III. Press reports and censorship.

In the United States, news, cable, postal, and telegraph censorship over press communications was officially removed, November, 1918. The censorship of marine news was modified during the same month, while ship news was still banned. In April of the following year, England turned over the censorship of north European mail to the United States authorities and lifted her own censorship in June of the same year. Italy removed her censorship, July, 1919. The French news censorship was ended by presidential decree, October, 1919.

Also in: Z. Chafee, *Freedom of speech*.—G. H. Allen; H. C. Whitehead, and F. E. Chadwick, *Great War*, v. II.—J. Morley, *Diderot*.—V. Coffin, *Censorship and literature under Napoleon I* (*American Historical Review*, 22, pp. 288-308, Jan., 1917).—*Press under post office censorship* (*New York Times Current History Magazine*, Nov., 1917, v. 7, pt. 1, pp. 235-236).—J. Q. Adams, *Memoirs*, v. 8, pp. 434-481, v. 9, pp. 267-286.—A. B. Hart, *American history told by contemporaries*, v. 3, pp. 180, 184.—C. H. Peck, *Jacksonian epoch*, pp. 273-279, 373-392.—J. T. Morse, Jr., *John Quincy Adams*, pp. 243-262.—J. Quincy, *Memoir of John Quincy Adams*, pp. 251-262.—J. D. Richardson, *Messages and papers of the presidents*, v. 3, pp. 175 ff.—A. Kendall, *Autobiography*, p. 645 ff.—L. Blanc, *History of the French Revolution*, Introduction.—E. F. Wood, *Notebook of an intelligence officer*, pp. 18-65.

CENSORSHIP BOARD, United States. See CENSORSHIP: United States.

CENSUS, periodical enumeration of the inhabitants of a country; sometimes including resources and industries. In ancient times the term was applied to the enumeration of properties of all kinds mainly for purposes of taxation and warfare.

Ancient.—**Biblical.**—**Greek.**—**Roman.**—At the time of the Exodus all males over twenty among the children of Israel were counted to discover the fighting strength of the nation. Censuses were taken by David and by Solomon, and later during the Babylonian captivity a record of the population was kept. The Greek census was given form by the laws of Solon. "He established a constitution and made laws besides. . . . He divided the population into four census classes just as it had been divided, into pentacosimedimni, knights (hippeis), zengitae, and thetes. He assigned the offices to be filled from the pentacosimedimni, knights and zengitae, namely the (9) archons, the treasurers, the commissioners of contracts, the eleven, and the colacretae, distributing them among the several classes according to their property ratings. To the thetic class he granted a share in the assembly and the popular courts only. A pentacosimedimnus was one who produced from his own estate five hundred measures, wet and dry together, a knight three hundred measures, but as some say, one who could support a horse. . . . The zengitae were those who produced two hundred measures of both kinds, and the rest were thetes who had no right to any magistracy. Hence even now when the question is asked of one who is to be taken by lot for any office, what census class he belongs to, no one answers, the thetic."—Aristotle, *Constitution of the Athenians*, quoted in G. W. Botsford and E. G. Sihler, *Hellenic civilization*, pp. 143-144.—When Rome conquered Greece "the local municipal administration of the sep-

arate cities was allowed to exist, but, in order to enforce submission more readily, their constitutions were modified by fixing a census which restricted the franchise in the democratic commonwealths."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, v. 1, pp. 21-22.—"In ancient Rome there was a Registration Department for taking the Census. The Census at Rome was a numbering of the Roman people and also a valuation of their property. It was held in the Campus Martius after the year B.C. 432. Every Roman citizen was obliged, upon oath, to give in a statement of his own name and age, and of the name and age of his wife, children, slaves, and freedmen, if he had any. The punishment for a false return was, that the individual's property should be confiscated, and he himself scourged and sold for a slave. Taxation depended on the results of the Census, and was, in fact, its main object; many kinds of property were excepted, while, on the other hand, some sorts of property were assessed at several times their value. Constant changes were made by successive Censors in the valuation of taxable property. It appears from a passage in Livy (vi, 27) that the Census also showed the amount of a man's debts and the names of his creditors. The Census was held at first by the Kings, afterwards by the Consuls, and from B.C. 442 by two magistrates called Censors (Censores), who were appointed every five years. The Census was not taken with strict regularity. The usual interval, commonly called a lustrum (lustrum), was five years. . . . From the foregoing it will be seen that the Census was a regular Roman institution, one of the principal duties of the Censor being to enumerate the citizens (not including the proletariat) every five years (Cicero, 'De Leg.' book iii, c. 3). The Roman enumeration was not of persons only, but also of property. In this way, the Census of Rome was a quinquennial register prepared partly for purposes of assessment, and classification graded accordingly."—G. J. Bisset-Smith, *Census*, pp. 3-5.—Under the empire the Roman census reached its perfection. "The census was so perfect, that throughout the wide extent of the Roman empire every private estate was surveyed. Maps were constructed, indicating not only every locality possessing a name, but so detailed that every field was measured. And in the register connected with the map, even the number of the fruit-trees in the gardens, the olive-trees in the groves, and the vines in the vineyards, was set down, the cattle were counted, and the inhabitants, both slaves and free, were individually inscribed in this register. Not only every Roman province, and especially every Roman colony, but even every municipality, was surveyed with this extreme accuracy. A plan of the district was engraved on brass, and deposited in the imperial register-office; while copies were placed in the hands of the local administrations and in the provincial archives. The fact that these plans were engraved on plates of brass is mentioned by Hyginus, and the practice of multiplying copies of these brazen plates on linen is incidentally recorded in the Theodosian code. Such were the principles on which the Roman census was constructed, and these principles were first applied to Judaea in the time of Augustus. St. Luke gives us some interesting information concerning the manner of framing the personal registers of the census. He shows us the minute attention paid by the Roman administration to all statistical details, and supplies us with the means of contrasting the personal importance of each citizen in ancient political communities with the utter insignificance of the social position of a private in-

dividual in modern states. The words of the Evangelist are: 'And it came to pass in those days, that there went out a decree from Caesar Augustus, that all the world should be taxed. (And this taxing was first made when Cyrenius was governor of Syria.) And all went to be taxed, every one into his own city. And Joseph also went up from Galilee, out of the city of Nazareth, into Judaea, unto the city of David, which is called Bethlehem (because he was of the house and lineage of David), to be taxed.' The Pandects also afford evidence that the inspection over every portion of property was as exact and minute as the control which was exercised over each individual citizen. And Livy informs us that this administrative organization was a portion of the Roman constitution, and had been applied in all its details to the allied cities, and among the Latins, as early as the year B.C. 173. The mass of statistical information collected by the great census of Augustus was of such importance, that the Emperor himself was induced to prepare an abstract of its results, which was presented to the Senate by his successor Tiberius, and regarded as one of the most valuable monuments of his government. The registers of the census were still farther improved in the reigns of Diocletian and Constantine; and the revision of taxation based on these registers was established every fifteenth year, as fundamental law of the empire, and formed the cycle of indictions. The importance of the general survey and registration of property over the whole Roman empire has not been sufficiently appreciated by modern historians. nor has its effect on the events of Roman history been fully developed. It is not one of the least of the merits of the sagacious Niebuhr that he was the first to point out the great importance of the Agrimensores, or corps of civil engineers; and the necessity of studying their duties in order to enlarge our knowledge of the Roman administration. The business of the Agrimensores was to measure lands and maintain boundaries, and a map of their survey was deposited in the imperial archives, while a copy was placed in those of each colony. During the decline of the empire, and consequently in the time of Constantine, they formed a numerous and respectable class. Many of them were men both of rank and science. The name of the Surveyor-general of Augustus, Balbus, has been preserved by history. Frontinus, who mentions it, gives us some notices concerning the survey. The limits of the provinces and the boundaries of the municipalities and cities were determined and recorded in the books of Augustus and Nero; and Balbus, in the time of Augustus, compiled a commentary on the forms and admeasurements of the census, in which the condition of landed property throughout the empire was registered and explained. The exactitude of the details in this early survey was so great, that they were applicable to fixing questions relating to private property; and excited the admiration of posterity as late as the time of Cassiodorus, who cites its minuteness as enabling each proprietor to know his own rights with certainty, about the middle of the sixth century."—G. Finlay, *History of Greece*, pp. 470-472.—See also *COMITIA CENTURIATA*; *STATISTICS*: Early records and census taking.

Medieval.—Censuses of the middle ages were few and far-between, and on the whole can scarcely be dignified by that name. Charlemagne's Breviary and the Domesday Book of William the Conqueror stand practically alone as systematic efforts to enumerate the resources of those respective kingdoms. "The old haphazard method of rating which

had been in vogue since Ethelbred's day was abandoned, and by a careful survey of the kingdom a businesslike attempt was made to get at the actual wealth and resources of each region. This important work, the famous Domesday Survey, was begun in 1085. Commissioners were sent forth into every share of the kingdom to collect information on oath as to the number of Manors or townships, the whole number of hides, the names of those who held lands, their value, the population free and unfree, and the number of cattle, sheep, and swine upon each estate. Englishmen cried out against the unheard-of inquest. 'It was a shame,' they said, 'to pry into each man's matters.'—B. Terry, *History of England*, p. 171.—See also ENGLAND: 1085-1086.

Modern European.—Origin.—Sweden.—In England.—In Russia.—In other continental countries.—The census in Sweden grew out of the careful keeping of the church records and may be definitely dated from the law of 1686. "The keeping of church records began comparatively late in Sweden. The first episcopal ordinance on the subject was issued in 1608, for the archiepiscopal diocese, and merely prescribes the keeping of baptismal and marriage registers. The keeping of church records seem to have received an impulse in Europe with the Reformation; as in Sweden, at the beginning of the seventeenth century, the chief importance was attached to the baptismal registers—which were intended, as we are especially told, as a protection against the Anabaptists. . . . Specially valuable is the information given as regards causes of death (epidemics, etc.) in some of these older church registers (before 1686). As those who fell in war are usually missing in the burial registers, however, the figures relating to mortality in the years of war are seriously incomplete. It is all the better, therefore, that from about 1630, these records can generally be supplemented from the *rolls of the killed* recorded by parishes in the *Military Archives*, which also give information regarding the date and the battle—thus forming what is assuredly a perfectly unique source of information. Unfortunately, the corresponding series in the Naval Archives are not of the same value. After the Ecclesiastical Law of 1686 established in a statutory form for the whole kingdom—still valid in essentials—a system of ecclesiastical record-keeping which was found locally here and there somewhat earlier, we have a tolerably uniform set of demographical statistics for the whole country. . . . The official system of statistics in Sweden can trace its origin so far back as 1749, when there was established the so-called Tables Archive (*Tabellverket*) which intended the collection, from all the parishes in the kingdom, of information concerning births, marriages, deaths and the causes of death, and also concerning the number of the inhabitants of the country, the increase or decrease of the population, and its classification according to sex, age, civil status, occupation, etc. At the same time, the diocesan authorities were enjoined, in accordance with the Ecclesiastical Law, to see to it that the clergy kept correct registers referring to catechetical meetings, both children and adults, with the specification of age, and that those who were baptised or who married, died or moved elsewhere should immediately be entered in their respective columns so that the incumbent should be able in some few hours to make out the prescribed tables. . . . The Tables Archive of 1749 came into existence with the interested co-operation of the Academy of Sciences—which, ever since its establishment just ten years previously, seems to have

had its attention directed on the demographical statistical material accumulated in the church registers. . . . In 1756, the compilation of an abstract of the tables was entrusted to a special Tables Archive Commission, which should seem to be justly described as the *oldest statistical office in the world*: it continued to work for more than a hundred years. . . . The general population table of 1749 should seem to merit the name of the *oldest census in the world*. Information as to the number of the population was rendered yearly until 1751 (inclusive), every three years between 1751 and 1775, and from 1775 to 1860 every five years. Even though not a few errors have crept both into the parish-tables and into the tabular abstracts (in particular into the oldest ones), yet these population tables are to be regarded as perfectly unique, not only for their own time but for much later times, in respect both to reliability and wealth of detail; this holds good in particular about the information regarding ages. They form an epoch in the population statistics not only of Sweden but of the whole world."—*Official Statistics (Sweden Historical and Statistical Handbook, pt. 1, pp. 219, 220, 221)*.—Population records began definitely in England with the mortality bills of 1592. On them Sir William Petty based his work on economics in 1672. In 1753 a bill introducing the census into England was defeated in Parliament. The growth of economic thought during the latter half of the Eighteenth century gradually dissipated the prejudice against the census. "The Bill 'for taking account of the population of Great Britain, and of the increase or diminution thereof,' introduced into the House of Commons on 20th November, 1800, received the Royal Assent on 31st December. Overseers of the poor (or substantial householders) in every parish; township, or place were required by the Act of 1800 to take an account of the actual number of people present therein on the Census day in 1801. It is not necessary to do more than allude to the strong objections raised to the first Census Bill. Probably much of the antipathy could be traced to the feeling that the Census might be connected with increased taxation, the Roman Census being followed by the levying of taxes, and the practical British mind not yet understanding the administrative, legislative, and social uses of the national numbering authorised by the first Census Act. . . . At the Census of 1821 the vital question of Age was tentatively and guardedly introduced. Possibly, however, because the returns were incomplete by some 10 per cent. in 1821, the inquiry as to ages was omitted in 1831. But there was considerable amplification in the question relating to Occupation. Otherwise, the Census of 1831 did not differ materially from its predecessors in the particulars required and in the machinery for collection. . . . From 1841 onwards the Census Schedule has been utilised; and at the same time the question as to Age was re-introduced, and there was also added a new query, namely, 'Where Born?' Like the query as to Age, this question links up the Census with the Registers of Births, which answer both queries in every case since the introduction of Compulsory Registration, which came into force in England in 1837 and in Scotland in 1855. . . . Large undertakings cannot well secure arithmetical exactness. But the Census of 1851 aimed at exactitude. . . . Statistics of Parishes and Parliamentary and Municipal Burghs were exhibited at previous Censuses; but in 1851 details were given also of other large towns in England and Scotland, and of all the ecclesiastical districts and new ecclesiastical parishes which had

during the previous forty years been created in England and Wales. The Registrar-General enjoined on all concerned the necessity for exactitude in replies; and the Census Report of 1851 is written in a literary style superior to what is found in older official publications. . . . Ireland has always had a separate Act. Up to 1860 Scotland was included with England. But a Registrar-General was appointed for Scotland in 1855; and in 1860 separate Acts were passed for England and Wales and for Scotland; although in later Censuses there has been a reversion to the practice of including Great Britain in one Act, with a view to common consultation and possible uniformity in the particulars collected and their tabulation. . . . The value and the importance of the Age and the Occupation Tables were fully realised at the eighth Census. It had been seen in 1861 that collation and comparison were possible with the Death Registers in determining Occupational Mortality; the Occupations combined with Ages appearing in the Census Reports. . . . The Census Schedule continued with its eight or nine columns much the same until 1901. . . . At the Census of 1901, new subjects were introduced [see also ENGLAND: 1901]. But publication of the results was speeded up by the issuing of the results in Counties; this separate County publication was adopted in Scotland in 1917. . . . The fresh feature in the Census of 1911 was an inquiry into the fertility of marriage. Duration of marriage and number of children born were stated in the Schedule, and the number of those who had died. In 1921 there is asked simply the number and ages of all living children under sixteen years of age. . . . The British Census has never yet attempted anything in the direction of a record of possessions or what a man 'may be worth'; although the more enterprising officials of Australia and the United States, as examples, endeavour to obtain information in detail as to the property and possessions of the persons enumerated. . . . Fresh features in the measure passed on 16th August, 1920, give permanence to the Census Office, and power to ask for a Census every five years. Among the excellent effects of these improvements should be a more general utilisation of the Census information and a closer co-ordination of Census *data* with the relative information obtained from other Government Departments, such as Agriculture, Trade, Labour, and Fisheries, and with the vital statistics issued (like the Census Reports), from the office of the Registrar-General. . . . This act has been made perpetual. Henceforth, by section 1 of the Statute, it shall be lawful for his Majesty, by Order-in-Council, from time to time to direct that a Census shall be taken for Great Britain, or for any part of Great Britain. . . . An Imperial Census of the whole Empire has, however, been carefully planned and projected. An attempt in this direction made in 1871 had only moderate success. But more recent efforts, as in 1891, were less incomplete; and the Imperial Census of 1921 anticipated to be a very marked advance upon all its predecessors, the subject having received very thorough consideration in 1920 at the Imperial Statistical Conference held in London.—G. T. Bisset-Smith, *Census*, pp. 48-49, 68-76, 3-5.—In Russia counts of males were made at irregular intervals in very early days. In 1722 a ukase of Peter the Great ordered a census every twenty years, and in 1796 a central census bureau was established. "All male peasants in every part of the empire are inscribed on census lists, which form the basis of direct taxation. These lists are revised at irregular intervals and all males alive at the time of revision from the new-born babe

to the centenarian are duly inscribed. Each commune has a list of this kind, and pays to the Government an annual sum proportionate to the number of names which the list contains or in popular language, according to the number of 'revision souls.' During the intervals between the revisions the financial authorities take no notice of the births and deaths. A commune which has a hundred male members at the time of the revision may have in a few years considerably more or considerably less than that number, but it has to pay taxes for a hundred members all the same until a new revision is made of the whole Empire. . . . The census-list determines how much land each family will enjoy and the existing tenures are disturbed only by the revisions which take place at irregular intervals. Since 1719 eleven revisions have been made, the last in 1897. The intervals varied from six to forty-one years."—D. M. Wallace, *Russia*, pp. 111-113.—In France the census began after the Revolution although Colbert compiled one in 1670. The first census in Prussia was taken in 1805. In Austria a bureau was established in 1828 though rough counts had been taken earlier for military purposes. Belgium took her first census in 1833, while the United States was independent of all these origins.—See also STATISTICS: Early records and census taking.

United States.—"The United States census traces its lineage back to the Constitution. It is this fact which awakened the admiration of that French economist who, writing in the first half of the nineteenth century, declared that the United States presented in its history a phenomenon which had no parallel, namely, that of a people who instituted the statistics of their country on the very day when they founded their Government, and who regulated in the same instrument the census of the citizens, their civil and political rights, and the destinies of the nation. This enthusiastic tribute to the wisdom of the fathers was not altogether appropriate. There were some eminent statisticians among the framers of the Constitution, but they were not thinking of statistics or of the interests of statistical, historical, or sociological science when they introduced in that instrument a provision that there should be an enumeration of the population of the United States within three years after the first meeting of Congress and every ten years thereafter. The connection makes it perfectly clear that the purpose of this provision was purely political. A count of population was an essential feature of the form of government which was established, since population was to be the basis of the apportionment of representatives and direct taxes among the several States composing the Union. . . . From the standpoint of statistics, the fathers, when they adopted the constitutional provision for a census, builded better than they knew. Even the First Census, taken in 1790, went somewhat beyond the mere constitutional requirements and introduced a certain amount of detail not essential to the apportionment [see U. S. A.: 1790: First Census]. The distinction that was made between slaves and free persons, of course, was essential, the slaves being those 'other persons' of whom only three-fifths were to be counted in determining the apportionment. But going beyond this, the Congress which enacted the law for the First Census introduced the distinction of sex and color in the enumeration of the free population, and having in view, probably, the importance of determining the military strength of the newly created nation, introduced an age distinction—under 16, and 16 and over—in the enumeration of the free white male population. At

the next census, that of 1800, the age classification was given in more detail, comprising five age classes . . . and this classification was applied to free white females as well as free white males [see U. S. A.: 1800]. The census of 1810 conformed exactly to that of 1800 [see U. S. A.: 1810]. But in 1820 [see U. S. A.: 1920 Census] another advance was made in direction of a more complete and scientific census. An age and sex classification was introduced for the slave and free colored population which had hitherto been enumerated without distinction of either age or sex. This census asked also for the number of unnaturalized foreigners, an indication that the subject of immigration was already beginning to attract attention. It included, furthermore, the rudiments of an occupation census, enumerating the number of persons engaged in agriculture, in manufactures, and in trade and commerce. The occupation question was not repeated at the census of 1830. [See U. S. A.: 1830: Fifth census.] The age classification was given in greater detail than before, and questions were introduced regarding the number of deaf and dumb and blind. At the census of 1840 the occupation question reappeared with greater detail. It asked for the number of persons engaged in mining, agriculture, commerce, manufactures and trade, navigation of the ocean, navigation of canals, lakes, and rivers, and learned professions and engineering. The question as to the number of unnaturalized foreigners which had been included in the two preceding censuses was not repeated. To the defective classes previously enumerated, viz. the deaf, dumb, and blind, there was now added the insane. Questions were introduced in regard to the number of colleges and schools of different grades and number of scholars. This census also marks the first introduction of an illiteracy question, by asking for the number of white persons over 20 years of age in each family who could not read and write [see U. S. A.: 1840]. . . . The census of 1850 [see U. S. A.: 1850], marks the introduction of the present method of recording the facts for each individual separately [instead of having the family as the unit]. From that time until the present the population schedules of each successive census contain the name of every individual in the United States from that of the newly christened infant to that of the aged grandfather, and opposite the name, the age, sex, and other data. The central office then classifies, correlates, and tabulates the data in any way that may be deemed of sufficient value and significance to justify the labor involved. In 1850 the personal data recorded on the schedule for each individual enumerated included name, sex, age, color, profession, occupation or trade, value of real estate owned, place of birth, whether married within the year, whether attending school, whether unable to read and write (for persons over 20), and whether deaf, dumb, blind, insane, idiotic, pauper, or convict. The changes since 1850 in the scope of the population census have consisted simply in the addition or rejection of detail, and may be briefly summarized. The questions regarding the estate owned were repeated with some modification in 1860 [see U. S. A.: 1860: Eighth census] and 1870 [see U. S. A.: 1870: Ninth census], but not in any later census. The question whether married within the year was continued up to and including the census of 1890 [see U. S. A.: 1890], and was superseded in 1900 [see U. S. A.: 1900 (May-October)], by a question asking for the number of years married. To the birthplace question has been added a question asking for the birthplace of each parent. This was introduced in

1880, although the census of 1870 inquired whether either parent was of foreign birth. The question regarding conjugal condition—whether single, married, widowed, or divorced—now recognized as one of the fundamental questions in a population census, first appeared in 1880, but the data obtained at that time have never been tabulated. In 1890 and 1900 the question was repeated and the returns were tabulated and published as they doubtless will be in all future censuses. The census of 1880, which was the most comprehensive census we have ever undertaken, attempted to enumerate not only the blind, deaf, dumb, insane, idiotic, maimed, and crippled, but also those persons who are sick or temporarily disabled on the census day so as to be unable to attend to their ordinary business or duties, and asked for the nature of their sickness or disability. At the following census, that of 1890, the question was restricted to those suffering from acute or chronic diseases, with name of the disease and length of time afflicted. These attempts to secure statistics of morbidity through the instrumentality of the census were complete failures and will, it is safe to say, never be repeated. Under the subject of occupation the census of 1880 introduced the question as to unemployment, or number of months unemployed during the census year. This question has been repeated in each subsequent year, although the data obtained are not believed to be very reliable or significant. The census of 1890 introduced a group of questions applicable to immigrants, asking for the year of immigration to the United States, whether naturalized, and whether able to speak English. These questions were repeated in 1900.—J. A. Hill, *Historical value of the census records (Annual Report of the American Historical Association, 1908, pp. 199-203)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1901 (January).—“The census of 1910 was a notable one [see U. S. A.: 1910]. It was the first to be taken by the permanent Census Bureau, which had been established in 1902; and it differed from its predecessors in two other important features: First, in the method by which appointments of temporary clerks were made; and, second, in the manner in which the information obtained by it was compiled and presented to the public. At prior censuses clerical positions had been filled upon the recommendations of Senators and Representatives, and at the more recent censuses the appointments of the candidates named had been contingent upon their passing noncompetitive examinations [see CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: United States: 1909]. At the Thirteenth Census, however, positions on the temporary clerical force were filled through open competitive civil-service examinations held throughout the country by the United States Civil Service Commission. The method of presenting the results of the Thirteenth Census constituted a new and in some respects a radical departure from former practice. The most important change was with respect to the Abstract. At prior censuses this had been a small octavo volume issued after the publication of the complete reports and containing no text discussion and very few percentages, averages, or comparative statistics for earlier censuses. The Abstract of the Thirteenth Census is a quarto volume of 569 pages, issued in 53 editions, one without supplement and each of the others containing a supplement for some one State or for the District of Columbia, Alaska, Hawaii, or Porto-Rico. It presents the principal statistics gathered at the census of 1910, covering the subjects of population, agriculture, manufactures, and mining.”—United States Bureau of the Census, *Story of*

the census, 1790-1915, p. 16.—"The United States has never before approached a federal census under the exceptional conditions that have prevailed during the past year. Up to within sixty days the nation has been steadily concentrating its man power, money and material resources upon the prosecution of a great war 3,000 miles away, and so great was the strain that many, even though in peace times believers in census activities, began to doubt whether the time had not arrived to temporarily curtail the decennial federal census. . . . With the sudden collapse of the enemies of the United States and the certainty of our early return to a peace basis, questions as to policy, raised by the fact that the United States was at war, were naturally swept away. It was no longer a question of the wisdom or unwisdom of taking a census, but entirely a question of methods and policies in connection with a census certain to be taken. The act which authorized the Thirteenth Census . . . was made to apply to the 'Thirteenth and Subsequent Censuses,' because previous experience had shown the costly unwisdom of securing the passage of an individual census act. At the early hearings upon the bill . . . the director of the census submitted a statement which pointed out the differences between the act now before Congress and that which is upon the statute books. The changes in reality are very simple and are merely those required, first, to bring the act up to date; second, to correct inaccuracies or defects which occurred in the practical application of the existing law. The important changes which are introduced, adjust the personnel and properly increase salaries, restate census inquiries, change the date of the census from April 15 to January 1 preceding, and strengthen somewhat the penalty clauses. The House of Representatives inserted from the floor a requirement for a census of forestry and forest products. The Senate has retained this inquiry so that the usual main inquiries relating to population, agriculture, manufactures and mines and quarries are limited in the current act only with relation to dependent classes, and are expanded by the addition of biennial manufacturers' reports and a census of forestry and forest products."—W. S. Rossiter, *Federal census (American Statistical Association, 1919, pp. 286-288)*.—The census of 1920, in its population inquiry, divided population into urban and rural. For the first time in the history of the country the former class outnumbered the latter.—See also U. S. A.: 1921: First results of the 1920 census; and U. S. A.: 1921: Urban population.

ALSO IN: C. D. Wright and W. C. Hunt, *History and growth of the United States census*.—W. R. Merriam, *American census taking from the first census*.

Oriental.—"Among Oriental countries, Japan deserves first consideration for advanced and scientific interest in statistical inquiry. This extraordinary nation, which has shown such a surprising capacity for appropriating the ideas of western civilization, annually collects statistics of population with distinction of sex, age, and conjugal condition, and also statistics of agriculture and industry, under the direction of a well-organized central office. . . . In India census-taking is a colossal task accomplished decennially, with noteworthy success, by the British government. Even among those who find descriptions of census methods dry reading at best, interest must be awakened by the difficulties surmounted in that land of splendor and squalor, vast population, and innumerable races, languages, and religion. . . . In this immensely populous and remarkable empire

the census schedule is framed to meet a wide variety of local and racial conditions. It is printed in no less than seventeen different languages, and includes, in addition to the ordinary inquiries, questions concerning religion and caste. . . . In some districts in Hyderabad and the Central Provinces, enthusiastic and devout enumerators have returned the village shrines and temples as 'occupied houses,' the occupant being the idol, whose occupation was stated as 'granting boons and blessings,' or 'subsistence on contributions from the tenants.' However, this is by no means the only strange calling returned on the Indian census schedules. It is difficult to imagine a more remarkable variety. Among them may be mentioned collectors of edible birds' nests, receivers of stolen goods, witches, wizards, and cow-poisoners. In other Oriental countries the characteristics of Mohammedanism hinder statistical inquiry. In Persia and Turkey the only practical value of an enumeration of inhabitants would be to increase taxes and conscriptions, and consequently an accurate census would not be possible under existing conditions. In one of Greg's essays on 'British and Foreign Characteristics' there is a letter from a Turk which vividly illustrates the Oriental point of view. A European traveler, having returned to his home after a visit to the Orient, wrote to his Turkish host for facts concerning the city and province in which the latter resided. This was the reply: My illustrious friend and joy of my liver! The thing you ask of me is both difficult and useless. Although I have passed all my days in this place, I have neither counted the houses nor have I inquired into the number of inhabitants; and as to what one person loads on his mules and another stows away in the bottom of his ship, that is no business of mine. But above all, as to the previous history of this city, God only knows the amount of dirt and confusion the infidels may have eaten before the coming of the sword of Islam. It were unprofitable for us to inquire into it."—W. R. Merriam, *Census in foreign countries (Century Magazine, v. 66, No. 6, October, 1903, pp. 884-885)*.

CENSUS BILL. See CIVIL SERVICE REFORM: 1909.

CENSUS BUREAU.—"The Bureau of the Census, of the Department of Commerce, now the greatest statistical office in the world, represents the outgrowth and development of a century and a quarter of periodical, and in recent years continuous, statistical inquiry on the part of the Federal Government. . . . Prior to 1900 the Census Office established for the taking of each decennial census and the compilation and publication of its results had been a temporary institution, going practically out of existence at the conclusion of its work. On July 1, 1902, under authority of an act of Congress passed in March of the same year [see U. S. A.: 1902 (March)], the Census Office became a permanent branch of the Department of the Interior, under the name Bureau of the Census. A year later it was transferred to the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor, and since March 4, 1913, it has been a bureau of the Department of Commerce. While one of the reasons for the creation of the permanent Census Bureau was the need of a nucleus of trained employees around which to organize the large force necessary for the taking of a decennial census, this need was not the only justification—nor, for that matter, the leading one—for the existence of a permanent bureau. The establishment of the office on a permanent footing was the achievement of more than half a century of agitation, beginning in 1844,

when a select committee of the House of Representatives, which had had under consideration a memorial on the errors of the census of 1840, presented by a committee of the American Statistical Association, reported that it knew of no way of avoiding such errors in future censuses so easy and practicable as by the establishment of a Bureau of Statistics.' In the decades following various committees, of officials, superintendents of the census, and statistical organizations repeatedly urged upon Congress the advisability of making the office permanent. Improvement of the decennial census was the motive chiefly in evidence in all this agitation, and even at the present time is commonly thought of as constituting the chief advantage to be gained through the existence of a permanent bureau. From the first, however, those advocating the establishment of such a bureau have had other considerations in mind as well. In fact, the House committee already referred to recommended, in its reports for 1844 and 1845, the establishment of a bureau which not only should take the decennial census, but should coordinate the statistical work of all the departments of the Federal Government, and whose publications should include statistics relating to foreign countries. These efforts on the part of statisticians, administrative officials, and legislators finally resulted in the passage, in March, 1902, of the permanent census act, under the terms of which the Census Bureau was made a permanent instead of a temporary office."—*United States Bureau of the Census, Story of the census, 1790-1915*, pp. 23-25.—See also STATISTICS.

CENTENNIAL OF 1876.—"What could be more fitting than that the hundredth anniversary of the world's greatest republic should be kept by a monster celebration? Such a question was publicly raised in 1870 by an association of Philadelphia citizens, and it set the entire nation thinking. At first only a United States celebration was proposed, but reflection developed the idea of a mammoth fair where the arts and industries of the whole world should be represented. Congress took up the design in 1871-2. In 1873 President Grant formally proclaimed the Exposition, and in 1874 foreign governments were invited to participate in it. Thirty-three cordially responded, including all the civilized nations except Greece, a larger number than had ever before taken part in an event like this. Philadelphia was naturally chosen as the seat of the Exposition. Here the nation was born, a fact of which much remained to testify. . . . In Fairmount Park, beyond the Schuylkill, a level plat of over 200 acres was inclosed, and appropriate buildings erected. Five enormous structures, the Main Building, with Machinery, Agricultural, Horticultural, and Memorial Halls, towered above all the rest. Several foreign governments built structures of their own. Twenty-six States did the same. Thirty or more buildings were put up by private enterprise in order the better to present industrial processes and products. In all more than two hundred edifices stood within the inclosure. The Exposition opened on May 10th, with public exercises, a hundred thousand people being present. Wagner had composed a march for the occasion. . . . Further simple but impressive ceremonies were held on July 4th, in the public square at the rear of Independence Hall. In the Main Building, erected in a year, at a cost of \$1,700,000, manufactures were exhibited, also products of the mine, along with innumerable other evidences of scientific and educational progress. More than a third of the space was reserved for the United States, the rest being divided among foreign coun-

tries. The products of all climates, tribes, and times were here. Great Britain, France, and Germany exhibited the work of their myriad roaring looms side by side with the wares of the Hawaiian Islands and the little Orange Free State. Here were the furs of Russia, with other articles from the frozen North; there the flashing diamonds of Brazil, and the rich shawls and waving plumes of India. At a step one passed from old Egypt to the latest born South American republic. Chinese conservatism and Yankee enterprise confronted each other across the aisle. From the novelty of the foreign display the American visitor turned proudly to the handiwork of his own land. Textiles, arms, tools, musical instruments, watches, carriages, cutlery, books, furniture—a bewildering display of all things useful and ornamental—made him realize as never before the wealth, intelligence, and enterprise of his native country, and the proud station to which she had risen among the nations of the earth. Three-fourths of the space in Machinery Hall was taken up with American machinery. Memorial Hall, a beautiful permanent building of granite, erected by Pennsylvania and Philadelphia at a cost of \$1,500,000, was given up to art. This was the poorest feature of the Exposition, though the collection was the largest and most notable ever till then seen this side of the Atlantic. America had few art works of the first order to show, while foreign nations, with the exception of England, which contributed a noble lot of paintings, including works of Gainsborough and Reynolds, feared to send their choicest products across the sea. All through the summer and early autumn, in spite of the unusual heat that year, thousands of pilgrims from all parts of the country and the world filled the fair grounds and the city. Amid the crowds of visitors Philadelphians became strangers in their own streets. On September 28th, Pennsylvania day, 275,000 persons passed the gates. During October the visitors numbered over two and a half millions. From May 10th to November 10th, the closing day, the total admissions were 9,000,000."—E. B. Andrews, *United States in our own time*, pp. 106-200.

CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION OF TENNESSEE. See TENNESSEE: 1807.

CENTER, term in many European countries for the conservative party in the legislature. See RIGHT, LEFT, AND CENTER.

CENTRAL AFRICA PROTECTORATE, British. See NYASALAND PROTECTORATE.

CENTRAL AMERICA: Geographic description.—"The region collectively known as Central America is one of the most interesting portions of Latin America, and embodies six independent republics and the British Colony of Honduras. Geographically it is taken as extending from Panama, to Tehuantepec in Mexico, but politically the southern boundary of Mexico is the limit of the region. These six Central American republics have much in common as regards their physical formation and inhabitants; although each is stamped with its own individuality, and jealous of its rights. Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua cover respectively areas of 48,000, 46,000, and 49,000 square miles, and the smaller republics of Salvador, Costa Rica, and Panama cover 7,200, 23,000 and 32,000 square miles respectively. British Honduras covers 7,562 square miles. Central America, physically, may be regarded as a transitional zone of territory connecting the continents of North and South America, rather than being part of either. It is a region of mountains and lowlands; the mountains having many high plateaus of limited extent, and containing many volcanoes, which form

some of the highest summits and are among the most destructive on the earth's surface. Among the principal of these volcanoes six are in Guatemala, two in Salvador, four in Nicaragua and four in Costa Rica. Guatemala and Salvador are countries possessing more volcanoes than almost any other, and throughout the whole history of Central America, up to the present time, these countries have suffered greatly from eruption and earthquake, with repeated overwhelming of cities and destruction of plantations. The geological formation of the Central American region has been greatly influenced by volcanic disturbances in past ages. It forms, as it were, a joint in the earth's crust, a weak point subject to the outburst of the forces within. In earlier geological times, it has been shown, the Atlantic and Pacific oceans were connected by various straits across what now are the narrow necks of land of Central America, the region having constituted a great insular system which has been consolidated in later times. Thus the cutting of the Panama Canal may be regarded, in a sense, as reverting to earlier hydrographic conditions. . . . The geographical position of Central America is one of extreme importance, and the whole region, including the Antilles and West India Islands, may in the future become the centre of an increased maritime and commercial movement; Central America forming, as it were, a bridge between the two great oceans, the Pacific and the Atlantic, and the two American continents: midway between Asia and Europe. The Cordillera, or mountain chain, traverses the whole territory of Central America from end to end, except that it is broken by the great lake-basin of Nicaragua. The mountains lie, as in South America, much closer to the Pacific than the Atlantic, except that in Costa Rica and Panama they occupy the centre of those narrower territories. The eastern side of the region consists in broad plains and highlands, watered by numerous rivers. Central America comprises some of the most fertile land on the earth's surface; and the landscape and scenery are among the most noteworthy, and the natural resources of the soil the most prolific of the whole of Latin America [see LATIN AMERICA: Agriculture]. The topography of the region gives rise to the vertical climatic conditions of *Tierra caliente*, *Tierra templada* and *Tierra fria*, or hot, temperate, and cold lands, a range of temperature from tropical to temperate which ensures the production of plant life of all kinds. The climate generally is healthy except in certain places on the coast, where lack of sanitary improvements and neglect and common hygienic conditions give rise to malarial fevers and worse disorders. In some zones, as at Panama formerly, and other ports on both shores of Central America, yellow fever was a terrible scourge, and malarious disorders rendered life for the foreigner unsafe. The improvements brought about at Panama, under the control of the United States, have shown that these tropical scourges are not inevitable conditions of Central American environment."—C. R. Enock, *Republics of Central and South America*, pp. 441-444.

Population.—Culture.—Variety of races.—Mestizos or "ladinos."—"The total population of the Central American republics numbers [1913] somewhat more than 5,000,000, distributed approximately as to 2,000,000 in Guatemala, 553,000 in Honduras, 600,000 in Nicaragua, 1,700,000 in Salvador, 388,000 in Costa Rica, and 336,000 in Panama. The estimates of population are very approximate. Accurate statistics cannot be obtained partly by reason of the

ignorance of the masses of Indians in certain regions, and largely by reason of fear of military conscription, or taxation, especially in Nicaragua and Honduras, both of which matters the inhabitants have good cause to avoid. In Guatemala 60 per cent. of the population are pure Indians; the remainder mestizos [mixed blood], with small class of whites. The Indian tribes are more diverse than in any part of Central America, and belong principally to the Maya and Quiché stocks, who in olden times were the builders of the famous Central American temples. There are about 15,000 foreigners in the country: and several important German coffee-growing settlements. In Honduras the mestizos are the most numerous, and the white element is small. There are many Indian tribes, a portion of which are Christianised, but a number, of about 90,000, still retain their aboriginal mode of tribe life, living in the mountains and cultivating the soil. These Indians are good and industrious laborers. On the north coast the vigorous Carib race is found, forming the principal source of labor for mahogany-cutting. There is a considerable but disappearing number of zambos and negroes. In Nicaragua the population is largely of a composite character, formed by the union of the original Indians, Spaniards, and negro slaves. Inter-marriage of immigrants of all nations, including Dutch, French and British, has produced a half-cast type with blue eyes and fair hair, an uncommon type for a Latin-American country. Indians of pure race are few, as they were almost exterminated in earlier times by the Spanish buccaners and colonists. Salvador is the most thickly populated of the Central American republics. The mestizos or 'ladinos,' as the mixed race is commonly termed in Central America, form more than half the total; the Indians 40 per cent., and the whites and foreigners 10 per cent.; the pure whites of Spanish race not being more than 2½ per cent. There is a small proportion of negroes. In Costa Rica the proportion of Spanish blood is greater than in any of the six republics, but the mestizos form the larger proportion of the inhabitants. The native Indians, who number about 4,000, are of a quiet, docile nature, dwelling in stockaded encampments, in a still savage and un-Christianised State. There are about 8,000 Europeans in the country. In Panama the population is extremely mixed, due to the labor of various nationalities brought in for the building of the canal. Negroes from Jamaica predominate, and Spanish, Italian and Greeks are plentiful. These, however, are not permanent elements. The population upon the canal zone numbered in 1912, 50,000; and there were 36,000 native Indians throughout the country."—C. R. Enock, *Republics of Central and South America*, pp. 444-445.—In 1922 the estimated civil population of the Canal Zone was 23,757, this is including Americans. The populations of the various Central American countries estimated in 1922 vary only slightly from those already cited. Salvador is estimated at 1,000,000, instead of 1,700,000.

Aborigines.—"The Central American civilization was sandwiched in between the empire of the Mexicans to the north and that of the Chibchas to the south. The habits and customs of the Guatemalans, however, resembled far more closely those of the Mexicans than those of the Chibchas. With these latter, indeed, they do not seem to have come in contact. This strengthens the theory that the inhabitants of the central empire of the Americas came into their country originally by way of Mexico. Nearly all of the accounts that exist of the advent of the Guatemalans are legendary, al-

though there is no reason to suppose that a certain amount of the tradition is not based on solid historical fact. Seeing that nothing else exists, these early tales may as well be rapidly reviewed here. It is said that the pioneers of the aboriginal civilization of Central America came from somewhere out of the dim and mysterious north, and landed in Tabasco, in Mexico. Led by a chief of the name of Votan, these newcomers soon subdued the savage tribes that existed in Mexico at the time, and founded an empire known as Xibalba or Xibalbay—which was really the first home of the Quichés or Maya-Quichés in these parts. It is Votan, who is supposed to have founded the city of Palenque, the remarkable ruins of which still exist. After a time a new and powerful people came upon the scene to dispute the supremacy of the men of Xibalba. These were the Nahuas, whose chief, Quetzalcohuhtl, was known to the Gutemalans by the name of Cucumatz. It was from the Nahuas that the Aztecs subsequently sprung. Warfare broke out between the Nahuas and the Xibalbans, and, after a fierce struggle, the latter were defeated. They were scattered, and forced to emigrate from the former centres of their rule. Some, under the guidance of the chief Huitziton, went north and founded the empire of Toltecas. Others marched, to the south-east and settled in Yucatan, while yet others proceeded in a more southerly direction and established their communities of Toltec civilization in Guatemala. In the course of time, it has been said, the Toltecs of the north became powerful, and, joined by other tribes, marched to the south again, and, overcoming the descendants of the Nihuas who had originally conquered them, came down to join their brethren who had settled in Guatemala. But this, to say the least of it, is a theory of very doubtful weight. Three kingdoms were now established in Guatemala. That of the Quichés was the most noteworthy of the three. These people established themselves in the region extending from the Sierra Madre to the coast of Suchitepequez, and founded the city of Utatlan, which to-day is known as Santa Cruz del Quiché. The other kingdoms were those of the Zutuhiles, who established themselves to the south of Lake Atitlan, and the Cackchiqueles, who occupied the territories to the north and east of the same lake. These, in common with some lesser States, appear to have been subservient up to a certain point to the powerful Quiché nation, which to all intents and purposes may be regarded as ruling Central America, though not to the same extent that the Aztecs ruled Mexico and that the Incas governed Bolivia and Peru. For the descendants of the Nahuas established themselves firmly in some of the territories adjoining the Pacific Coast, and constituted a continual menace to the Maya-Quiché empire. This latter empire, it may be said, did not only comprise the majority of the lands which at present go to make up Central America, but such parts of Mexico as the province of Chiapas and other districts which are to be met with in the south of the modern Republic. The Quiché empire is supposed to have been governed by a succession of twelve kings up to the time of the advent of the Spaniards. The dynasties and the names of the various rulers, as well as the events of their reigns, are given with much detail by several Central American writers; but the exact nature of many of these happenings is inclined to be hazy. It is certain, however, that civil war was frequent. It is, indeed, a most curious thing that in this respect Alvarado, who was the first Spaniard to enter Guatemala, met

with almost exactly the same train of circumstances as had so greatly assisted Pizarro in Peru and Cortes in Mexico."—W. H. Koebel, *Central America*, pp. 28-30.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in Mexico and Central America.

ALSO IN: T. A. Joyce, *Central America and West Indian Archaeology*.—H. J. Spinden, *Ancient civilization of Mexico and Central America*.

Discovery and early settlement. See AMERICA: 1498-1505; 1513-1517; and Map showing voyages of discovery.

1821-1871.—Separation from Spain, and independence.—Attempted federation and its failures.—Wars and revolutions of the five republics.—“The central part of the American continent, extending from the southern boundary of Mexico to the Isthmus of Panama, consisted in the old colonial times of several Intendancies, all of which were united in the Captaincy-General of Guatemala. Like the West Indian Islands, it was a neglected part of the Spanish Empire. . . . It was not until the success of the Revolution [against Spain] had become certain on both sides of them, both in Mexico and New Granada, that the Intendancies which made up the Captaincy-General of Guatemala declared themselves also independent of Spain. The cry of liberty had indeed been raised in Costa Rica in 1813, and in Nicaragua in 1815; but the Revolution was postponed for six years longer. Guatemala, the seat of government, published its declaration in September, 1821, and its example was speedily followed by San Salvador and Honduras. Nicaragua, on proclaiming its independence, together with one of the departments of Guatemala, declared its adherence to what was known in Mexico as the plan of Iguala [see MEXICO: 1820-1826]. As there were no Spanish troops in Central America, the recusant Spanish official party could make no resistance to the popular movement; and many of them crossed the sea to Cuba or returned to Spain. . . . The Revolution of Central America thus stands alone in the history of independence, as having been accomplished without the shedding of blood. [During the brief empire of Iturbide in Mexico (see as above) the Central American states were annexed to it, though with strong resistance on the part of all except Guatemala.] On the proclamation of the Federal Republic in Mexico [1824], the whole of Central America, except the district of Chiapas, withdrew from the alliance, and drove out the Mexican officials as only a year before they had driven out the Spanish officials. The people now had to face the task of forming a government for themselves: and . . . they now resolved on combining in a federation, in imitation of the great United States of North America. Perhaps no states were ever less suited to form a federal union. The petty territories of Central America lie on two oceans, are divided by lofty mountains, and have scarcely any communication with each other; and the citizens of each have scarcely any common interest. A Central American federation, however, was an imposing idea, and the people clung to it with great pertinacity. The first effort for federation was made under the direction of General Filisola. All the Intendancies combined in one sovereign state; first under the name of the ‘United Provinces,’ afterwards (November 22, 1823) under that of the ‘Federal Republic’ of Central America. . . . [See also COSTA RICA: 1821-1848.] A constitution of the most liberal kind was voted. This constitution is remarkable for having been the first which abolished slavery at once and absolutely and declared the slave trade to be piracy. . . . The cleri-

cal and oligarchic party [this conservative party made up of the Spanish bureaucracy and opposed to centralization was strongest in Guatemala while the federalist element was strongest in Honduras] set their faces stubbornly against the execution of the constitution, and began the revolt at Leon in Nicaragua. The union broke down in 1826, and though Morazán [of Honduras] reconstituted it in 1829, its history is a record of continual rebellion and reaction on the part of the Guatemaltec oligarchy. Of all South American conservative parties this oligarchy was perhaps the most despicable. They sank to their lowest when they raised the Spanish flag in 1832. But in doing this they went too far. Morazán's successes date from this time, and having beaten the Guatemaltecs, he transferred the Federal government in 1834 to San Salvador. But the Federal Republic of Central America dragged on a precarious existence until 1838, when it was overthrown by the revolt of Carrera in Guatemala. From the first the influence of the Federalists in the capital began to decay, and it was soon apparent that they had little power except in Honduras, San Salvador and Nicaragua. The Costa Ricans, a thriving commercial community, but of no great political importance, and separated by mountainous wastes from all the rest, soon ceased to take any part in public business. A second Federal Republic, excluding Costa Rica, was agreed to in 1842 [and dissolved in 1845]; but it fared no better than the first. The chief representative of the Federalist principle in Central America was Morazán, of Honduras, from whose government Carrera had revolted in 1838. On the failure of the Federation Morazán had fled to Chile, and on his return to Costa Rica he was shot at San José by the Carrerists. This was a great blow to the Liberals, and it was not until 1847 that a third Federation, consisting of Honduras, San Salvador, and Nicaragua, was organized. For some years Honduras, at the head of these states, carried on a war against Guatemala to compel it to join the union. Guatemala was far more than their match: San Salvador and Nicaragua soon failed in the struggle, and left Honduras to carry on the war alone. Under General Carrera Guatemala completely defeated its rival; and to his successes are due the revival of the Conservative or Clerical party all over Central America. . . . The government of each state became weaker and weaker: revolutions were everywhere frequent: and ultimately . . . the whole country was near falling into the hands of a North American adventurer."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 21.—"About this time an American adventurer by the name of William Walker got control of Nicaragua. He had gone to California in 1850 in the gold rush, and in 1853 had attempted a filibustering expedition into Mexico, which, however, was a failure. On his return to the East he conceived the idea of conducting a similar expedition into Nicaragua. He landed in 1855 with seventy men, and soon succeeded, through the aid of the American consul, in securing for himself the appointment as commander-in-chief of the army. From this post he soon advanced to the presidency, and for two years maintained himself in Nicaragua as president. His original plans had been to form a military government and proceed to the conquest of all Spanish America. At this time the slave holders in the South were planning the extension of slavery and the adding of slave states to the Union by seizing Cuba and other states to the south. Walker, however, on having secured power, attempted to keep it for himself, and this proved his undoing.

He was deserted by his friends in the United States when they learned of his purpose, and he was driven out by an insurrection in Nicaragua in 1857. He made two other attempts to regain his power in the country, but was captured in 1860 and put to death as a pirate."—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin America*, p. 212.—See also NICARAGUA: 1855-1860.—"In former times the English government had maintained some connection with the country [originating with the buccaneers and made important by the mahogany-cutting] through the independent Indians of the Mosquito coast, over whom, for the purposes of their trade with Jamaica, it had maintained a protectorate [since 1665] and even a small English commercial colony, called Greytown, had been founded on this coast at the mouth of the river San Juan. Towards the close of Carrera's ascendancy this coast was resigned to Nicaragua [1860], and the Bay Islands, which lie off the coast, to Honduras: and England thus retained nothing in the country but the old settlement of British Honduras, with its capital, Belize. After Carrera's death in 1865, the Liberal party began to reassert itself: and in 1871 there was a Liberal revolution in Guatemala itself."—E. J. Payne, *History of European colonies*, ch. 21. 1826.—First Pan-American Congress at Panama. See COLOMBIA: 1826.

1850.—Protected under Clayton-Bulwer treaty. See NICARAGUA: 1850.

1871-1885.—Ascendancy of Barrios in Guatemala.—Expulsion of the Jesuits.—Efforts to re-establish a Central American Union.—The revolution of 1871, in Guatemala, established a government under the control of the Liberals, with Miguel García Granados as provisional president. "The new administration had hardly initiated reforms when an insurrection broke out in Santa Rosa, promoted by the priests and their aristocratic allies. It does not appear that García Granados had at first intended open hostility to the religious orders. . . . The priests would not rest contented with the loss of their former high standing. . . . The new régime now resolved to cut loose [from] the ecclesiastical incubus, and to establish the supremacy of the civil authority in the state on a firm basis. Its first step was to carry out a decree . . . to expel the Society of Jesus forever from the republic. This was not effected without some scandal and disturbance from the zealous partisans of the order. Seventy-three Jesuits, most of whom were foreigners, were sent away on an American steamship, bound for Panama." The expelled Jesuits were allowed to land in Nicaragua, where they remained until 1881. They were then accused of instigating an insurrection, and were driven from that state. In Guatemala, the expulsion of the Jesuits was followed, in 1872-1873, by the suppression of tithes, the extinction of religious communities of men, and the decreeing of freedom of worship, with toleration for all religious sects. The provisional president was succeeded in June, 1873, by Justo Rufino Barrios, elected by popular vote. Barrios, who had been the leading spirit of the revolution, was a resolute and energetic man. His government was vigorously, often violently, maintained, during a presidency of twelve years. Among his early acts was one which finished the dissolution of the religious houses, by opening the convents of women, and making a public allowance of money to the departing nuns. The chief aim of Barrios, throughout his career, was to bring about the long-sought union of Central American states. To that end, he seems to have assiduously interfered in the politics of the neighboring republics. By force of

arms, he established a government in Salvador that was favorable to his views, and he accomplished the same in Honduras by promoting a revolution. In Nicaragua and Costa Rica he had less success. In 1879 a new constitution was adopted in Guatemala, and Barrios was elected under it, in 1880, for a further term of six years. The country enjoyed a time of great prosperity, and Barrios, after visiting Europe and the United States, proposed, in 1882, to resign. He was persuaded, however, to remain in office, and his efforts for the union of states were resumed. They encountered so much opposition that he lost patience, and rashly undertook, in 1885, to accomplish the unification of Central America by force. By a decree issued on February 28 in that year, he proclaimed the consolidation of the five states into one republic. The government of Honduras assented; the other three states formed an alliance to resist. Barrios marched an army into Salvador, and lost his life in the fighting that ensued.—H. H. Bancroft, *History of the Pacific states*, v. 3, ch. 20-21.

1884-1900.—Interoceanic canal measures of later years. See PANAMA CANAL.

1886-1894.—Continued struggling for Union, and continued revolutionary conflicts.—Not long after the fall of Barrios, the government of Salvador itself proposed a congress to arrange terms of union; but the proposition failed. Nicaragua, always looking forward to the probable construction of an isthmian canal within her border, and ambitious to enjoy the great possession alone, continued aloof. Costa Rica, having some share in the same ambition, did likewise. Yet the unionists, who seem to have been always numerous, kept the project alive, and were able, in April, 1887, to bring about a preliminary treaty between the five republics, "to establish an intimate relationship between them, and, by making the continuance of peace certain, to provide for their future final fusion in one country." In the next year, President Soto, of Costa Rica, urged the assembling of a diet, to establish the union, pending which Costa Rican citizenship was extended to the citizens of the other republics. The diet met in September of that year, but the desired union was not achieved. In November, 1889, the three states of Honduras, Guatemala, and Salvador took another step, joining in a treaty which contemplated a provisional confederation for ten years, after which, if it proved satisfactory, a more perfect and permanent union should be formed; but Nicaragua and Costa Rica would not take part. In Salvador, moreover, the anti-unionists rallied, and a conflict occurred (1890) in which the government was overthrown, the president killed, and the opponents of union established a provisional government, with Gen. Ezeta at its head. Then the president of Guatemala, Manuel Barillas, who had succeeded Barrios, interfered, and Guatemala and Salvador went fiercely to war. The Salvadorians had the best of it in most of the fighting, and Barillas was hard pressed by revolutionists at home; but he kept his power in Guatemala, though he did not succeed in suppressing Ezeta and his party in Salvador. One incident connected with these events caused excitement and controversy in the United States. A Guatemalan exile, Barrundia, took passage from Mexico, on a Pacific Mail steamer, for Salvador, to enlist in the war. The steamer touched at a port in Guatemala, where the authorities undertook to arrest him. The captain refused to give his passenger up; but neither the United States minister nor naval officers present in the port could find authority to sustain the captain's refusal, and the latter was forced to

yield. Barrundia resisted the arrest, and was shot. While the opponents of union triumphed in Salvador, they failed in a desperate attempt at revolution in Honduras. President Bogran, in that state, maintained his authority, and was succeeded at the close of his constitutional term, in 1892, by General Leiva. In 1894, the government of Leiva was overthrown by insurgent Liberals, and Policarpo Bonilla made president, under a new constitution. Meantime, affairs in Nicaragua and Salvador were equally tempestuous. President Sacaza, in the former, was compelled to resign, in 1893. In Salvador, Ezeta was driven from the presidency in 1894, and a provisional government set up. In Costa Rica, during 1892-1893, there were conflicts between the president and the legislature, but no revolution occurred. In Guatemala, President Barillas was succeeded in 1892 by Gen. José Barrios, son of the former president.

1889-1890.—First use and origin of term Pan-Americanism. See PAN-AMERICANISM.

1890.—First International American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1895-1902.—Attempts at union of Central America.—Greater republic of Central America (1895).—Called United States of Central America (1898).—Withdrawal of Salvador from the union.—Ascendency of Salvador under General Regalado.—Failure of his attempt to form a new union.—"On June 20, 1895, the three states, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Salvador, which had always been most loyal to the Federal idea, actually accomplished a partial union. The new republic was called by the Treaty of Amapala, "La Republic Mayor de Centro-America." Ratifications were exchanged September 15, 1895, and a single political organization for the exercise of their external sovereignty was formed. The first three articles of the treaty of Federation reveal the spirit of union embodying itself in a tangible form: Article I. The republics of Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras shall hereafter form a single political entity for the exercise of the sovereignty as regards their intercourse with foreign nations, to be known as the Greater Republic of Central America. This name shall continue in use until the republics of Guatemala and Costa Rica shall voluntarily accept the president treaty in which case it shall be called the 'Republic of Central America.' Article II. The signatory governments do not by the present treaty, renounce their autonomy and independence as regards the direction of their internal affairs, and the constitution and laws of each state shall remain in force so far as they are not inconsistent with the stipulation hereof. Article III. For the execution of the provisions contained in Article I, there shall be a diet, composed of one member and one substitute, elected by each of the Congresses of the signatory republics for a term of three years. . . .

"The text of the treaty of Amapala was sent to Costa Rica and Guatemala, and their adherence invited. For a time they held entirely aloof, but a treaty of June 15, 1897, supplementary to that of June 20, 1895, provided for the acceptance by Guatemala and Costa Rica. . . . In the supplementary treaty it is stated in Article I, that the governments of Guatemala and Costa Rica and the Greater Republic of Central America 'shall henceforth form a free and independent nation.' . . . The treaty was never ratified, and Guatemala and Costa Rica never became actual members of the Greater Republic. In 1898, the Confederation was put on a better basis. A definitive constitution was adopted by a constituent assembly meeting at

Managua [Nicaragua], August 27, 1898, and the steps taken forecast in the original compact. By the constitution a Federal Republic was established under the name 'Estados Unidos de Centro-America.' The constitution was not to be submitted to popular vote, but a commission was appointed to exercise the functions of government for a time, and to provide for the election of a President during the following December. It was expected that the President would be inaugurated in March, 1899. The Executive Federal Council was installed at Amapala, November 1, 1898, and put into force the political constitution of the United States of Central America. This provisional council was to last until a president should be elected by the people. . . . The federation failed within a month of its inauguration. Revolutionary movements arose, demanding unity of action on the part of the military power of the Federal States to suppress them. It was the test of the Federation. The new union weakened under the strain, and utterly collapsed. About the middle of November, General Tomaso Regalado was one of the candidates for the presidency of Salvador. By gaining control of affairs, he succeeded in fomenting a separatist movement in the state of Salvador. . . . Regalado issued a proclamation declaring that Salvador was no longer a member of the Confederation. . . . The fact of union evidently had not obtained the sanction of the Salvadorean people, who regarded it as a violation of the political constitution of Salvador. . . . The executive Federal Council tried to suffocate the rebellion, but was obliged to recognize its impotence to execute the pact of union. Many military commanders in the service of the Federation failed in their duty so that the prompt and timely action of the Council was weakened. The state of Salvador remained separated from the republic, and under painful necessity the council declared the union at an end, November 29, 1898, twenty-eight days after its inauguration. Nicaragua and Honduras soon abandoned the joint compact, each resuming its independent sovereignty. The nineteenth century was not to close until another effort had resulted in failure. Regalado was not opposed to union. On the contrary, after the United States of Central America was destroyed through his effort, he was very much in favor of Federation. He was far-sighted enough to see that the largest state, Guatemala, must be included or else serve as a pretext for new revolutions and wars, which he knew by successful experience would overthrow a federal state. . . . The diplomacy connected with the intrigues of Regalado is decidedly complex. There is sufficient evidence that he was depending upon the help of Mexico. In 1880, Zaldivar who had not ceased his efforts for Federation with his failure in 1885, acted as the agent of Regalado in Mexico, where a secret pact was made March 2, whereby the attention of the Guatemalan army was to be divided, making the victory of the revolutionists easy. . . . On the 3d of August, Regalado wrote to President Diaz of Mexico in regard to his plans. He realized the necessity of establishing the superiority of Salvador among the people of the isthmus. . . . The climax came during the closing months of 1902. On November 21, Riviera wrote to Regalado that the conditions in Salvador were favorable for this unionist enterprise. The government of Honduras [he continued] favored the restoration of the 'Mando,' February 1, 1903, and would not refuse taking part in an undertaking which was in accord with its political creed. Nicaragua was menaced by revolution and external war, and Guatemala which constituted the

greatest obstacle to union was 'Abased below all conception.' On the other hand, the Salvadorean army was powerfully organized and well-equipped, and Riviera concludes, 'other internal and external circumstances which I omit, and which are known to you, make of these moments, the most favorable for the unionist enterprise.' The movement never materialized. The time was not sufficient for the hatching of the plot. The elections were held in Salvador in 1903, and Regalado was ineligible for reelection."—W. F. Slade (*Journal of Race Development*, Oct., 1917, pp. 210-218).

1897.—Settlement of boundary dispute between Nicaragua and Costa Rica.—A dispute between Nicaragua and Costa Rica, as to the eastern extremity of their boundary line, was decided by General Alexander, a referee accepted by the two republics. The boundary had not been well defined in a treaty negotiated for its settlement in 1858. According to the terms of the treaty, the line was to start from the Atlantic at the mouth of the San Juan river; but changes of current and accumulation of river drift, etc., gave ground for dispute as to where the river actually made its exit. President Cleveland in 1888, acting as arbitrator at the request of the two countries, decided that the treaty of 1858 was valid, but was not clear as to which outlet of the delta was the boundary. Finally, in 1896, an agreement was reached for a final survey and marking of the boundary line, and President Cleveland, on request, appointed General Alexander as arbitrator in any case of disagreement between the surveying commissions. The decision gives to Nicaragua the territory upon which Greytown is situated, and practical control of the mouth of the canal.

1901-1902.—Second International American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1903.—Secession of Panama from Colombia.—Independence recognized.—Treaty with United States for building of Panama canal. See PANAMA CANAL.

1904.—Nicaragua, Honduras, Salvador, and Guatemala: Peace conference.—A despatch, August 31, 1904, from the American minister at San José, Costa Rica, to the state department at Washington, was as follows: "I have the honor to advise that on the 21st instant, at Corinto, Nicaragua, the Presidents of Nicaragua, Honduras, and El Salvador, and a special delegate representing the President of Guatemala, held a conference ostensibly for the purpose of securing the peace of Central America. . . . The parties holding the conference have issued a lengthy manifesto, which indicates nothing of interest to our Government except that the four governments represented are controlled by parties who will aid each other by military force, if necessary, in maintaining the status quo, and that the peace of Central America is thus reasonably assured by making revolutionary efforts more difficult and less liable to achieve success."

1904.—Nicaragua and Honduras: Agreement to arbitrate boundary dispute.—In October, 1904, the United States government was informed that Nicaragua and Honduras had agreed to submit a boundary dispute to the king of Spain.

1904-1916.—Policy of United States in regard to affairs in Nicaragua. See DOLLAR DIPLOMACY.

1906.—Honduras, Guatemala, and Salvador: War, ended by mediation of United States and Mexico.—Neither the Convention of Peace and Compulsory Arbitration signed at Corinto in 1902 by the presidents of all five of the Central Ameri-

can republics, nor the peace agreement between four of them two years later, sufficed to prevent an outbreak of war in 1906 which involved the three states of Honduras, Guatemala, and Salvador. President Roosevelt, in his annual message to Congress that year, referred to the war as having arisen from "trouble which had existed for some time"; but does not indicate the nature of the "trouble"; nor is any light thrown on it in a long diplomatic correspondence between the parties to it and the governments of the United States and Mexico, which appears in the American report of foreign relations for 1906. Probably nobody outside of the belligerents ever learned definitely why they felt called upon to fight, or what they had to settle when peace was made.

Seemingly Honduras was the aggressor. Its chief importance is in the successful mediation that was undertaken jointly by the governments of the United States and Mexico, of which President Roosevelt made report in the message referred to above:

"The thoroughly good understanding which exists between the United States and Mexico," said the president, "enabled this Government and that of Mexico to unite in effective mediation between the warring Republics; which mediation resulted, not without long-continued and patient effort, in bringing about a meeting of the representatives of the hostile powers on board a United States warship as neutral territory, and peace was there concluded; a peace which resulted in the saving of thousands of lives and in the prevention of an incalculable amount of misery and the destruction of property and of the means of livelihood. The Rio Conference passed the following resolution in reference to this action:

"That the Third International American Conference shall address to the Presidents of the United States of America and of the United States of Mexico a note in which the conference which is being held at Rio expresses its satisfaction at the happy results of their mediation for the celebration of peace between the Republics of Guatemala, Honduras, and Salvador."

"This affords an excellent example of one way in which the influence of the United States can properly be exercised for the benefit of the peoples of the Western Hemisphere; that is, by action taken in concert with other American republics and therefore free from those suspicions and prejudices which might attach if the action were taken by one alone."

The resulting "General Treaty of Peace and Amity, Commerce, etc., between the Republics of Costa Rica, Salvador, Guatemala, and Honduras," signed September 25, 1906, involved solemn engagements. Notwithstanding their grave pledges to each other, three of the parties to this treaty were at war the next year. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1907.—Nicaragua, Honduras, and Salvador: War.—Mexican and American mediation.—Washington Peace Conference.—General treaty of peace and amity.—Central American Court of Justice.—In February, 1907, a fresh outbreak of Central American war occurred, originally between Nicaragua and Honduras, but involving Salvador, presently, in alliance with Honduras. The arbitration convention of 1904 had not accomplished a specific settlement of the boundary disputes between Honduras and Nicaragua, and President Zelaya, of the latter republic, accused the former of encroachments. Mexico and the United States had endeavored to pacify the disputants before hostilities began, but without success. The quarrel

was fought out, and a complete victory won by Nicaragua, whose forces captured the Honduran capital and drove President Bonilla from the country. A provisional government was established in Honduras and terms of peace arranged, April 24. Then the good offices of President Roosevelt and President Diaz were employed again, with the result which the former communicated to Congress in his message of December 3, 1907, as follows:

"The effort to compose this new difficulty has resulted in the acceptance of the joint suggestion of the Presidents of Mexico and of the United States for a general peace conference between all the countries of Central America. On the 17th day of September last a protocol was signed between the representatives of the five Central American countries accredited to this Government agreeing upon a conference to be held in the City of Washington 'in order to devise the means of preserving the good relations among said Republics and bringing about permanent peace in those countries.' The protocol includes the expression of a wish that the Presidents of the United States and Mexico should appoint representatives to lend their good and impartial offices in a purely friendly way toward the realization of the objects of the conference. The conference is now in session and will have our best wishes and, where it is practicable, our friendly assistance."

The first regular session of the conference was held on November 14, the place of meeting being the building of the International Bureau of the American Republics. In addition to the delegates present from the states of Costa Rica, Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Nicaragua, the republic of Mexico designated Señor Don Enrique C. Creel, ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to the United States, and the United States designated Hon. William I. Buchanan, as representatives from Mexico and the United States at the conference. The Hon. Elihu Root, secretary of state of the United States, was present, also, at the first session, over which he presided until the organization of the conference had been effected. His opening address to the conference included these wise and impressive remarks:

"It would ill become me to attempt to propose or suggest the steps which you should take, but I will venture to observe that the all-important thing for you to accomplish is that while you enter into agreements which will, I am sure, be framed in consonance with the most peaceful aspirations and the most rigid sense of justice, you shall devise also some practical methods under which it will be possible to secure the performance of those agreements. . . . To find practical definite methods by which you shall make it somebody's duty to see that the great principles you declare are not violated, by which if an attempt be made to violate them the responsibility may be fixed upon the guilty individual—those, in my judgment, are the problems to which you should specifically and most earnestly address yourselves."

The address of Secretary Root was followed by one of excellent counsel from the Mexican ambassador, and a reply to both was made, on behalf of the conference by Señor Don Luis Anderson, minister of foreign affairs of Costa Rica who was chosen president of the conference.

Fourteen sessions were held between November 14 and December 20, resulting from which eight conventions were agreed to and signed on the latter date. These conventions are: General treaty of peace and amity; additional convention to the general treaty; establishing a Central American



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court of justice; extradition; on future conferences (montetary); on communications; establishing an international Central American bureau; and establishing a pedagogical institute.—See also COSTA RICA: 1907.

1908.—Inauguration of the Central American Court of Justice.—Gift of a building for its use by Andrew Carnegie.—The Central American court of justice, contemplated in the treaty of 1907, was formally instituted, at Cartago, Costa Rica, with appropriate ceremony, in the last week of May, 1908. The Hon. William I. Buchanan, in attendance as commissioner from the United States, added interest to the occasion by announcing the proffer of a gift of \$100,000 by Andrew Carnegie, for the erection of a building to be dedicated to the exclusive use of the court.

1909-1916.—Conferences for economic uniformity in Central America.—“On 20 Jan., 1909, a meeting at Tegucigalpa, Honduras, was attended by delegates of the five nations and an agreement was framed to secure the unification of the monetary systems, customs duties, weights and measures, fiscal laws and consular service. . . . In January, 1914, another conference took place, which carried even farther the recommendations of the conference of 1909 and added plans for agreements as to international highways, postal and telegraph regulations, and coasting trade, as well as the founding of a central pedagogic institute, and a central mission of foreign relations. Although no united action had, up to February 1917, been taken to put in operation the plans of these Conferences, good influences were at work making for a better understanding of the essential community of interests and responsibilities and bringing nearer to realization the desired stabilization of financial and political conditions. Thus, the convention between the United States and Nicaragua, proclaimed 24 June, 1916, served to call attention to the need of increasing eventually the solidarity of four of the states—Nicaragua, Honduras, El Salvador, and Costa Rica—while the establishment of banks in Central America, with the aid of capitalists in the United States, has proved the power of such organizations to aid regular and orderly development throughout all that region, wherever transportation routes can be maintained with reasonable economy.”—M. Wilcox, *Encyclopedia of Latin America*, pp. 53-532.

1911.—Political situation in Nicaragua, Salvador, Honduras and Costa Rica.—“In Nicaragua the year opened with the election of General Estrada as President for a term of two years. He began by proclaiming an amnesty for political exiles. A series of unaccountable explosives led to the proclamation of martial law, and thereafter President Estrada and his family removed to the American Consulate. In May he resigned the Presidency in favour of the Vice-President Señor Diaz. . . . A Treaty with the United States was signed in July for a loan to be used in re-organizing the finances and secured on the Customs duties; the Nicaraguan Government agreed not to alter these without the consent of the United States, and to appoint a Collector-General to administer to the Customs from a list of names presented by the fiscal agent of the loan and approved by the President of the United States. The Customs revenues, however, were already pledged to the service of the British and French loan of 1909, and the Nicaraguan Government subsequently defaulted on this loan. . . . In Salvador Dr. Manuel Enrique Araujo succeeded General Figueroa as President, and delivered this inaugural address on March 1. The foreign trade was considerably developed by

a steamship service established by the Salvador Railway Company. President Dávila of Honduras made a Treaty with the United States in January under which the Republic was to be financed, the conditions being similar to those of the Nicaraguan Treaty mentioned above. The Treaty was signed only through fear of the revolutionary forces headed by General Bonilla, who were popularly believed in Honduras to be encouraged from Washington. The Honduran Congress, however, rejected the treaty on the grounds that it alienated the national sovereignty of the State revenues, and that the President had exceeded his powers in signing it, and its supporters in Congress were roughly treated by the populace of the capital. The affair illustrates the Central American fear of the United States. In view of the victory of General Manuel Bonilla at Ceiba (Jan. 25) the United States government intervened at the request of President Dávila, and after a conference on a United States warship, presided over by a representative from Washington, President Dávila resigned. An interim Government followed, and General Manuel Bonilla was elected President. Costa Rica at last settled with its foreign creditors. The seat of the Central American Arbitration Court was transferred from Cartago, where the Courthouse had been wrecked by an earthquake in 1910, to San José, Mr. Carnegie offering another \$100,000 for a new building.”—*Annual Register*, 1911.

1916.—Inhabitants.—Causes of lack of union.—“Central American problems present elements of unusual complexity. Geographical and racial divisions make more difficult the questions usually arising in tropical countries. Though the states are comparatively small, they have not the elements of unity usually present in such communities. With the exception of Salvador, all the republics face both the Atlantic and Pacific. Communications between the sections marked off by the Continental divide is difficult, and railways are just beginning to bring a feeling of political unity between regions which, though under the same flag, have heretofore been highly contrasted in race-feeling and economic interests. The low-lying swamp east coast of Nicaragua, for example, has little in common with the comparatively high Pacific region. The inhabitants of the east coast are largely Indian; those of the west coast, to a greater degree, are Spanish. The characteristic industry of one section is the growing of bananas, the prosperity of the other depends upon the coffee trade. The economic bonds of the east coast are chiefly with the United States, from which also almost all the capital for internal development has come; the west coast is connected markedly with Europe. Similar contrasts can be drawn in the case of Guatemala and Honduras. Racially, the republics are in striking contrast to each other. The predominantly Spanish civilization of Costa Rica bears little resemblance to the seven-eighths-Indians Nicaragua. The boundaries of the states do not coincide with natural barriers which cross the region—a circumstance which has helped to foster plans of conquest on the part of factional leaders. In the long perspective of years, there is no reason for a group of states in Central America; it is a region of political divisions where there should be a political unity. That the various attempts at confederation have failed is an excellent example of the way in which particularistic sentiment, based on local patriotism, may establish standards inconsistent with the plain dictates of logic. Geographical, racial and political divisions all have contributed to keep Central America a boiling pot for the Century of its independence.”—

C. L. Jones, *Caribbean interests of the United States*, p. 150.

ALSO IN: D. C. Munro, *Five republics of Central America*, pp. 164-165.

1917-1918.—Action in the World War. See LATIN AMERICA: 1917-1918.

1921.—Plans for the formation of a Central American confederation.—“Very little have the papers of this country [United States] said in regard to the Central American Congress which has just ended its labors in San José, Costa Rica.

“We do not wish to entertain in our minds the idea that this public holds in little regard what has taken place in that memorable congress, for in that congress the destiny of a nation, friendly in all respects to this country, was shaped out. For many years the trend of opinion in the Central American republics—Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Nicaragua and Costa Rica—has been very strong towards the reconstruction of the federal republic that was founded at the time of the segregation of these countries from Spain in 1821. The Federal Republic of Central America did not survive for many years. The causes are various, and we do not wish to dwell upon them. As a consequence of the destruction of the federation, the five independent republics came into existence—practically, since 1840. But here, again, we have an example where political frontiers cannot keep apart nations which are united by nature, in customs, traditions, history, race, language and material interest.

“As a consequence of this, the frontiers between these countries have served only for political purposes. In the hearts of the people there have never existed any frontiers between one and another. A citizen of Guatemala, for instance, is considered a Honduran citizen in Honduras, and enjoys all privileges as such. The Constitution of each republic is framed upon these lines. . . . The Congress of Costa Rica is the natural outcome of the strong sentiment in favor of the federation of those five republics. In former years, the chief, and we may say that only, obstacle to the Federation has been having five Presidents. Today the presidents are convinced that there is no use of dodging the issue. Destiny points out clearly the future of these countries, and this future will be found in the federation. The congress which we have so often mentioned was attended by delegates appointed by the five Presidents. They drew up an agreement to which the delegates of Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras and Costa Rica subscribed. This agreement, which has already been approved by the Congress of Honduras, states that the republics are united in a perpetual and indissoluble union and will constitute a sovereign and independent nation named Federation of Central America. Upon the approval given to the covenant by the congress of each republic, each congress, while notifying the International Bureau of Central America (Oficina Internacional Centro Americana) of this approval, and this in turn notifying each republic, will elect two Provisional Delegates and fifteen Deputies. The approval of three republics will be sufficient to start the functioning of the new republic. Immediately after the notification given of this by the International Bureau of Central America, the Provisional Delegates will meet at Tegucigalpa, Honduras. The scope of their power will be that of the executive power. They will call the legislative body, formed of the fifteen Deputies of each State. This body will frame the final Constitution. The Provisional Delegates will also call the people to elect Delegates, Deputies and Senators, and swear them in,

thus ending their functions. As it may be seen, this is a novel plan of government in America. The Central Americans are willing to try it, it realizes our aspirations of federation. Nicaragua, alone, proved to be unwilling to join; nevertheless, we are all hopeful that the Government of that republic will soon see that it is to its interest to join.”—Julio Cesar Valle, Representing Honduras in the Comite Unionista Centro Americano de N. Y., *New York Times*, Feb. 24, 1921.

“The pact creating the union of Central American republics was signed by the delegates of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras and Salvador at San José, the Costa Rican capital, on Jan. 22. The Nicaraguan delegates, instructed by their Government, refused to sign and withdrew from the conference. All five delegations had previously come to an agreement on the disputed article regarding treaties. Nicaragua did not wish to surrender treaty-making rights in view of her pact with the United States regarding a possible Nicaragua canal. A provision was inserted in the compact to permit her admission at any time, and Nicaragua on Feb. 8 announced that she was about to send a diplomatic mission to the other countries with a view to clearing up the disputed points.”—*New York Times Current History*, Mar., 1921, p. 541.

“Costa Rica, Salvador, Honduras and Guatemala have formed a confederation based upon the same kind of Government as that of Switzerland. [The new state would be more than ten times the size of Switzerland and the population about one-third larger.] The most important feature of the new political organization is to have the executive power in the hands of a council instead of a single personality. The President of this council will be the President of the confederation. But what is still more transcendent, from the point of view of our political failings, is the circumstance that the President of the council can only act one year in that capacity, and, after his term is over, he cannot be re-elected for the subsequent term. This is a powerful cure against the enthroning of despotic rulers, which, in Latin America, are always ushered in with much jingle and jangle, as patriotic servants of the people, but after a while are transformed, through the endemic hero-worship of the nationals, into insufferable little tyrants. The new confederation will give us a practical example of the advantages of placing the executive power in the hands of a group instead of a person, whereby the authority of each is curtailed.”—R. Munoz Tebar (*New York Times*, Feb. 8, 1921).—Guatemala has already abolished trade restrictions with the other republics.

1921 (October).—New Central American republic formed.—“On October 10, a new nation having an approximate area of 100,000 miles and a population of 4,000,000 came into existence . . . when the governments of Honduras, Guatemala and Salvador ceased to function and the Provisional Federal Council of the Central American Federation, composed of those countries, took charge. The government of the new nation will become operative on February 10, 1922, the Provisional Council operating until that time. Elections of federal councilors who will function in the government of the Central American Federation will be held in each of the three countries which will form a part of the new federation. Policarpo Bonilla, former President of Honduras, is being urged to become a candidate for the council. The new Republic lies between Mexico and Nicaragua, with Tegucigalpa as its capital. The pact for the union was signed early in January of this year at San José, Costa Rica, by the three-

mentioned states and Costa Rica, whose National Assembly rejected it later by a vote of 20 to 19.

"Nicaragua refused to sign the pact on account of differences with its neighbor states about the interpretation of the Bryan-Chamorro Treaty, which gave to the United States special right for the construction of a new interoceanic canal through its territory. Similar considerations apparently prevailed in Costa Rica, but in both countries the public opinion is divided and a Unionist party is endeavoring to bring about, some time, the union of Nicaragua and Costa Rica to the federation. If this comes to a fulfillment, the population of the new nation would be increased by 1,000,000 inhabitants and would extend its boundary to Panama. The union of these sister republics has been a national aspiration since 80 years ago when political troubles destroyed the Federal Republic of Central America, which, as a whole, liberated itself from the Spanish power in 1821 and maintained its unity until the forties. They speak the same language (Spanish), have the same religion (Roman Catholic), and are of the same race (predominantly Indian, except in Costa Rica, where the white race prevails). Since the Spanish conquest they have had identical legislation and the same culture. The treaty of union provides for a government modeled on the lines of the Constitution of the United States, with three separate branches—the executive, legislative and judicial; although the executive is modeled more on the Swiss system. A constitution embodying these provisions was finally approved by the Constituent Assembly which met in September at Tegucigalpa. In so far as it does not infringe on the federal Constitution, each state retains its autonomy and independence in the management and direction of its internal affairs and will carry on the governmental functions not specifically delegated to the federation."—*Christian Science Monitor*, Oct. 12, 1921.

1921 (December).—**Revolution in Guatemala.—Central American Union threatened.**—A revolution suddenly broke out in the morning of December 5, by which President Herrera of Guatemala was overthrown. Fighting occurred in the streets of the capital, resulting in the death of 25 persons, many being wounded. The President and his cabinet were made prisoners and a provisional government formed under General José María Lima, General Orellana and Miguel Larrave. It foreshadowed that the Union of October would be broken up. The Guatemalan Congress met on December 8, nullified all the legislation of the Herrera administration, and ratified the choice of Orellana as provisional president.

1922 (January-February).—**Collapse of the Union.**—An election of senators was held on January 7, in Guatemala; Orellana took the oath of provisional president and formed a new cabinet. The United States government addressed a note to Salvador and Honduras expressing a hope that those states would abide by their treaties with Guatemala. The Central American Federation collapsed on January 20, the Provisional Federal Council sitting at Tegucigalpa, Honduras, dissolving voluntarily. The Union flag was hauled down in Guatemala City and the Orellana government repudiated the federal plan. A quarrel ensued between Guatemalan rival representatives in New York, with the result that two separate agencies were set up in that city. On February 11, Honduras resumed its status as a sovereign republic. On the 15th, General Orellana was elected constitutional president of Guatemala, the elections being carried out with some disturbance.

1922 (March-August).—**Railroad extension.—Recognition of Orellana by United States.—Renewal of treaty of peace and amity of 1907.**—A new link in the International Railway of Central America was opened on March 17, when the first train from Zacatecoluca arrived at San Salvador, a distance of 45 miles. The railroad is intended to unite the Central American republics, and later to form part of the Pan-American Railway, completing an all-rail route between New York and Buenos Aires. President Orellana of Guatemala was recognized by the United States government on April 15. "An unusual event occurred on board the United States cruiser *Tacoma* Sunday night [August 20], three miles off shore in the neutral waters of the Gulf of Fonseca, when the Presidents of the Republics of Nicaragua, Honduras and Salvador, with the members of their cabinets and in the presence of the American Ministers to those republics, signed a treaty in which the three republics renewed and extended the general treaty of peace and friendship made in Washington in 1907 [see *ante*, 1907], the validity of which had until now been open to dispute. The treaty was signed by the three Presidents with their respective Ministers of Foreign Affairs, and the American Ministers signed as witnesses. The treaty is to remain in force, in so far as it affects relations between the republics, until it is revised. The Presidents promise that they will not permit political emigrants from any one of the republics to organize or foment armed invasion of any other, or tolerate any act which will disturb or threaten peace. Each republic undertakes to guard its frontiers and vigorously enforce the former agreement made at Washington. It is also provided that leaders of agitation, political emigrants or their agents shall not be permitted to live near frontiers. Such leaders living near frontiers will be placed under immediate surveillance and removed if this is thought necessary. In case of an invasion, the Government in whose territory it was organized is obligated to send forces to capture and disarm the guilty parties, who will be taken to the capital of that Government and punished in accordance with law. The Presidents also agree to call a conference to discuss economic matters, closer commercial relations, free exchange of products, and the unification of money, customs, tariffs and ways of communication, which may eventually result in a union of Central America. The Presidents agreed, in order that all Central America might enjoy the beneficial results of the treaty, that the Presidents of Guatemala and Costa Rica be invited to adhere to this agreement. A simple notification from either or both of these republics will be sufficient to make them subscribers to the treaty."—*New York Times*, August 23, 1922.—See also GUATEMALA; HONDURAS; NICARAGUA; LATIN AMERICA.

Public health law. See PUBLIC HEALTH; Central America.

Universities. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1551-1912.

CENTRAL AMERICA, Constitution of.—

ARTICLE 1.—The Republics of Guatemala, Salvador, Honduras, and Costa Rica join in a perpetual and indissoluble union, and will henceforth constitute a sovereign and independent nation whose name shall be Federation of Central America.

It will be the right and duty of the federal power to maintain the union, and, in accordance with the federal constitution, internal order in the States.

ARTICLE 2.—The four States will convene

through deputies in a Constituent National Assembly, and here and now accept as the supreme law the constitution that may be framed by the said assembly in accordance with the stipulations of this treaty.

ARTICLE 3.—In so far as it may be consistent with the federal constitution, each State will preserve its autonomy and independence in the handling and direction of its domestic affairs, and likewise all the powers that are not vested in the Federation by the federal constitution. The constitutions of the States will remain in force in so far as they do not conflict with the provisions of the federal constitution.

ARTICLE 4.—So long as the Federal Government, through diplomatic action, shall not have obtained the modification, derogation, or substitution of the treaties in force between the States of the Federation and foreign nations, each State shall respect and continue faithfully to observe the treaties that bind it to any one or more foreign nations to the full extent implied in the existing agreements.

ARTICLE 5.—The Constituent National Assembly, in framing the federal constitution, will respect the following bases:—

(A) There shall be a federal district under the direct rule of the Federal Government. The Assembly will designate and mark out the territory that is constituted, and within that area will designate the town or place that is to be the political capital of the Federation. The State or States from which territory is taken to constitute the federal district here and now convey it gratuitously to the Federation.

(B) The Government of the Federation will be republican, popular, representative, and responsible. Sovereignty will reside in the nation. The public powers shall be limited, and must be exercised in accordance with the constitution. There will be three powers: The Executive, Legislative, and Judiciary.

(C) The executive power shall be exercised by a Federal Council composed of delegates elected by the people. Each State will elect a principal and an alternate of forty years of age or more, and native citizens of the State which elect them. The term of the Council will be five years.

The delegates and their alternates shall reside in the federal capital. The alternates will attend the meetings of the Council without a vote, but they shall cast their vote whenever the meeting is not attended by their principals.

In order to impart validity to the action of the Council, it is necessary that all the States be represented therein. The decisions are arrived at by a plurality vote except in cases where the constitution may call for a greater majority. In case of a tie the President will cast two votes.

The Council will elect from among the delegates a President and a Vice-President, whose term of office will be one year. The President of the Council cannot be re-elected for the year immediately following.

The President of the Council will be regarded as President of the Federation, but he will always act in the name and by a resolution or direction of the Federal Council.

The Council will apportion among its members in the manner it may deem most appropriate the handling of public affairs, and may put any one or more of the alternates in charge of any department which it may deem expedient. The constitution will determine the form in which foreign relations are to be conducted, and will complete the organization of the executive power.

(D) The legislative power will be vested in two houses: the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Senate will consist of three Senators from each State, elected by the Congress thereof. The Senators shall be forty years of age or more, and citizens of any one of the States. Their term will be six years, and they will be renewed every other year in thirds. The Chamber of Deputies will consist of representatives elected by the people, one deputy for every 100,000 inhabitants or fraction of more than 50,000. The Constituent Assembly will determine the number of deputies to be elected by each State until a general census of the Federation is taken.

Senators and Deputies may be re-elected indefinitely. In each house three-fourths of the whole number of members will form the quorum.

No law will be valid unless it has been approved in the separate houses by a plurality of votes in the Chamber of Deputies, and by two-thirds of the votes of the Senators, and unless it has been sanctioned by the executive as the federal constitution may provide.

(E) The judicial power shall be exercised by a Supreme Court of Justice and by the lower courts that may be established by law. The Senate, from a list of twenty-one names submitted by the federal executive, will elect seven incumbent magistrates, who will constitute the court, and three alternates to fill the temporary absence of the incumbents. Vacancies will be filled by new elections of incumbents or alternates. The magistrates shall not be removed from office unless the removal be authorized by a judicial sentence.

The Supreme Court will have jurisdiction in disputes to which the Federation is a party; the legal controversies that may arise between two or more States; the conflicts that may occur between the powers of any one State or of the Federation as to the constitutionality of their acts, and of all other matters which may be referred to it by the federal constitution or the organic law.

The States having pending questions among themselves as to boundaries or the validity or execution of judgments or awards made before the date of this treaty will be at liberty to refer them to arbitration. The federal court may take cognizance of such questions in the capacity of arbitrator, if the States concerned should refer to its decision.

(F) The Federation guarantees to every inhabitant freedom of thought and conscience. There shall be no legislation on religious subjects. In all the States toleration of cults that are not against morals or public policy shall be an obligatory principle.

(G) The Federation recognizes the principle that human life is inviolable as to political and like offences, and guarantees all men equality before the law and the protection that the States must grant to destitute classes as also to the proletariat.

(H) The Federation guarantees the freedom of teaching.

Primary instruction shall be compulsory, and that which is given in public schools shall be free, under the direction and at the expense of the States.

Colleges of secondary instruction may be founded and supported by the Federation, the States, municipal governments, and private persons.

The Federation will create as soon as possible a national university and will give preference, with regard to their early establishment, to the sections of agriculture, industry, commerce, and mathematical sciences.

(I) The Federation likewise guarantees in every State the respect of individual rights as also the freedom of suffrage and the rotation in power.

(J) The army is an institution intended for national defence, and the maintenance of peace and public order; it is essentially a passive body, and may not engage in debates.

Soldiers on active duty shall have no right to vote.

The army will be exclusively under the orders of the Federal Council. The States shall not maintain any force other than of police for the maintenance of public order.

The garrisons which may be kept permanently or temporarily by the Federation in any State will be under the command of national chiefs that the Council shall freely appoint and remove; but if in any State there should occur a subversive movement or serious grounds may exist to apprehend a grave disturbance, those forces shall place themselves at the command of the government of the State. If those forces should be insufficient to suppress the rebellion, the government of the State will ask for, and the Council will supply, adequate reinforcements.

The Council shall have the free disposal of the armament and war material that may now exist in the States after those States shall have been supplied with the amount needed for the police force.

The States acknowledge it to be necessary and expedient that the Federation should reduce armaments and armies to a minimum in order that the excessive number of men employed upon them may be restored to agriculture and industry to the common good.

(L) The Federal Government will administer the national public finances, which will be different from those of the States.

The law will create federal revenues and taxes.

(M) The States will continue the service of their present domestic and foreign debts. It will be the duty of the Federal Government to see that the service is faithfully performed, and that the revenues pledged for that purpose be applied thereto.

Henceforward none of the States shall contract for or issue foreign loans without being authorized by a law of the State ratified by a federal law, nor shall it enter into contracts that may in any way compromise its sovereignty or independence or the integrity of its territory.

(N) The Federation shall not contract for or issue foreign loans without being authorized to do so by law approved by two-thirds of the votes in the Chamber of Deputies, and three-fourths of the votes in the Senate.

(O) The constitution may set a term after which the ability to read and write may be set up as an essential requisite for the exercise of the right of suffrage in the elections of federal authorities.

(P) The constitution will lay down the course through which amendments of its dispositions may be ordered. However, if the reform should make any change in any one of the bases set forth in this Article, it will be absolutely necessary, in addition to the other general requirements of the constitution, that the legislatures of all the States shall give their consent.

(Q) The constitution will determine and specify the subject that shall be an exclusive matter for federal legislation.

The Constituent National Assembly, in framing the constitution, will complete the plan and purpose of the said constitution, developing the foregoing bases, but in no way conflicting with them.

Immediately after the enactment of the constitution the Assembly will pass the complementary laws concerning the freedom of the press, habeas corpus, state of siege, which shall be held as part of the federal constitution.

ARTICLE 18.—It will be sufficient that three of the contracting States ratify this treaty to have it considered as final and binding among them, and to have it carried into effect. A State that does not ratify the covenant may, however, join the Federation at any time it applies therefor; and the Federation will admit it without any other formality than the presenting of a law approving this treaty, the federal constitution, and constituent laws. In that event the Federal Council and the two legislative houses will be enlarged in the proper degree.

ARTICLE 19.—The contracting States are sincerely sorry that the sister Republic of Nicaragua does not desire to join the Federation of Central America. If the said Republic should later decide to join the union, the Federation will extend the greatest facilities for its joining in the treaty that may be made for that purpose.

In any event the Federation will continue to consider and treat her as a part of the Central American family just as it will any State that for some reason or other should not ratify this covenant."—*Central American Republic (Contemporary Review, Literary Supplement, Oct., 1921, pp. 695-699).*

CENTRAL ASSEMBLY OF RESISTANCE TO OPPRESSION. See FRANCE: 1793 (June).

CENTRAL PARK, New York. See NEW YORK CITY: 1851-1920.

CENTRAL POWERS, name applied to the group of countries allied with Germany, during the World War. They included Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey and controlled central Europe from the North Sea to Constantinople.—See also BAGDAD RAILWAY; BOSPORUS: 1878-1914; PAN-GERMANISM; TRIPLE ALLIANCE; WORLD WAR.

CENTRALIA RIOTS (Washington).—On November 11, 1919, a parade of veterans of the World War, marching through Centralia, Wash., was fired upon from a hall belonging to the Industrial Workers of the World, which some of the marchers are said to have tried to "rush." Three of the soldiers were killed and three wounded. A riot followed. Members of the I. W. W. were held responsible and put in jail. A party of citizens later attacked the jail and lynched one of the prisoners. In March, 1920, seven of the men were convicted of complicity in the murders and imprisoned in the county jail at Montesano, Washington.

CENTREVILLE, town in Virginia which was evacuated by the Southern troops in the early part of the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1861-1862 (December-March; Virginia).

CENTRUM, Catholic political party in Germany. See GERMANY: 1900-1909; RIGHT, LEFT AND CENTER.

"CENTURIES OF SILENCE," term for the interval between the Old and New Testaments. See JEWS: B. C. 433-332.

CENTURIES, Roman, division of the army. See COMITIA CENTURIATA; EQUESTRIAN ORDER.

CENTURION, the officer commanding one of the fifty-five centuries or companies in a Roman legion of the empire. See LEGION, ROMAN.

CENTURY CLUB, New York. See CLUBS: 19th-20th centuries; New York.

CEORL, a common freeman, as distinguished from a privileged freeman (eorl), in the Anglo-Saxon social order. See ÆTHEL; ENGLAND: End of 6th century; EORL.

CEPEDA Y AHUMADA, Teresade (1515-1582), Spanish poetess. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1500-1600.

CEPHISSUS, Battle of (1311). See CATALAN GRAND COMPANY.

CERAMICUS OF ATHENS.—The Ceramicus was originally the most important of the suburban districts of Athens and derived its name from the potters. "It is probable that about the time of Pisistratus the market of the ancient suburb called the Ceramicus (for every Attic district possessed its own market) was constituted the central market of the city. . . . They [the Pisistratidæ] connected Athens in all directions by roadways with the country districts: these roads were accurately measured, and all met on the Ceramicus, in the centre of which an altar was erected to the Twelve Gods. From this centre of town and country were calculated the distances to the different country districts, to the ports, and to the most important sanctuaries of the common fatherland. . . . [In the next century—in the age of Pericles—the population had extended to the north and west and] part of the ancient potters' district or Ceramicus had long become a quarter of the city [the Inner Ceramicus]; the other part remained suburb [the Outer Ceramicus]. Between the two lay the double gate or Dipylum, the broadest and most splendid gate of the city. . . . Here the broad carriage-road which, avoiding all heights, ascended from the market-place of Hippodamus directly to the city-market of the Ceramicus, entered the city; from here straight to the west led the road to Eleusis, the sacred course of the festive processions. . . . From this road again, immediately outside the gate, branched off that which led to the Academy. . . . The high roads in the vicinity of the city gates were everywhere bordered with numerous and handsome sepulchral monuments, in particular the road leading through the outer Ceramicus. Here lay the public burial-ground for the citizens who had fallen in war; the vast space was divided into fields, corresponding to the different battle-fields at home and abroad."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 2, and bk. 3, ch. 3.

ALSO IN: W. M. Leake, *Topography of Athens*, sect. 3.

CERAMIO, Battle of (1080). See ITALY (Southern): 1000-1000.

CERCHI, family in Florence which was the origin of the Bianchi political party. See FLORENCE: 1205-1300.

CERDIC, or Cedric (d. 534), founder of West Saxon kingdom. See ENGLAND: 477-527.

CERDONIANS, a sect of Gnostics which took its name from Cerdon, a Syrian who held that there were two first causes, one good, one evil. The evil principle was the Creator of the world; the good principle was the unknown Father of Jesus Christ. Later followers of the heresy gave the Creator an intermediate position between the good and evil first causes. Cerdon and his adherents rejected the entire Old Testament, the Acts of the Apostles, the Apocalypse, and all of the gospels (excepting a part of St. Luke. Parts of some of St. Paul's epistles were accepted. The name Cerdonians early gave way to that of Marcionites, so called from their leader Marcion, a pupil of Cerdon.

ALSO IN: J. C. Ayer, Jr., *Source book for ancient church history*, p. 103.

CEREMONIAL, one of the eleven Sacred Congregations of the Roman Catholic Church. See VATICAN: Present-day papal administration.

CERESTES, or Kerestes, Battle of (1596). See HUNGARY: 1595-1606.

CERIGNOLA, Battle of (1503). See ITALY: 1501-1504.

CERINTHIAN.—"One of the earliest of the judaizing Gnostics was Cerinthus, supposed to be a native of Alexandria, who is described as a contemporary and opposer of the Apostle John at Ephesus. His system contained a large admixture of Ebionitism. Yet he distinguished the maker of the world from God and the earthly Jesus from the heavenly Christ, who was connected with him in a temporary union."—G. P. Fisher, *History of the Christian church*, p. 76.—See also EBIONISM; GNOSTICS.

CERISOLES, Battle of (1544). See FRANCE: 1532-1547.

CERNAVODA, a city on the right bank of the Danube, in the Dobrudja, Rumania. It is on the railroad from Bucharest to Constanza; was taken by the Bulgar-Germans in 1910. See WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan Theater: c, 6, ii.

CERRO GORDO, Battle of (1847). See MEXICO: 1847 (March-September).

CERVANTES SAAVEDRA, Miguel de (1547-1616), Spanish novelist and dramatist. His plays and interludes are many in number, but his genius was not essentially dramatic. His great and lasting work is "Don Quixote" (published about 1605), which contributes one of the great comic figures of the world's literature, and is the epitaph of medieval chivalry, as well as a minutely detailed picture of sixteenth century life. See SPANISH LITERATURE: 1500-1680.

CERVERA Y TOPETE, Pascual, conde de Jerez, marqués de Santa Anna (1839-1909), Spanish admiral and statesman. Placed in command of the squadron sent to America at the outbreak of the Spanish-American war; defeated in battle of Santiago harbor. See U. S. A.: 1898 (April-June); 1898 (July 3).

CERVIGNANO, town in the Austrian Alps, southwest of Gorizia, taken by the Italians in 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: d.

CESARINI, one of the powerful families of Rome. See ROME: Modern city: 1600-1656.

CESCHI, Fra Giovanni, grand master of Order of St. John. See HOSPITALIERS OF ST. JOHN OF JERUSALEM: 1879.

CESENA, city in the province of Forli, Italy, scene of a massacre in 1372 by Hawkwood and the White Company; taken by the Venetians in 1503. See ITALY: 1343-1393; VENICE: 1494-1503.

CESEPDES Y BORGES, Carlos Manuel de (1810-1874), Cuban insurgent. In 1868 he was chosen president of the newly-proclaimed republic; but in 1874 was killed in a skirmish with the Spaniards. See CUBA: 1868-1878.

CESS, a word corrupted from "assess," signifying a rate, or tax; used especially in Scotland.

CESTI, Marc' Antonio (c. 1620-1660), Italian composer. A pupil of Carissimi. Chapel master in Florence 1646, in papal choir 1660, and vice chapel master in Vienna 1666-1669. Composer of opera and influenced its development in Italy. Manuscripts preserved in libraries at Rome; Paris and Oxford. See MUSIC: Modern: 1607-1734.

CETTE, a French Mediterranean port, about 100 miles west of Marseilles, to which as a port it ranks second on the south coast. It has a large wine trade.

CETTINJE, a small town of Jugo-Slavia, formerly capital of Montenegro; taken by the Austrians, January 13, 1916. Population, about 6,000. See BALKAN STATES: Map.

CEUTA, seaport in Morocco and military and convict station of Spain. It occupies the site of

an old Roman city called "Ad Septem Fratres." Later the city was captured by the Vandals, then by the Byzantines under Justinian, by the Goths, and finally (711), by the Arabs. In 1415 it was taken by the Portuguese under Prince Henry the Navigator, but yielded to Spain in 1580. See AFRICA: Ancient and Medieval civilization: Arab occupation; PORTUGAL: 1415-1460.

CEVENNES MOUNTAINS, France, the region of the Camisard (French protestant) uprising against Catholic oppression. See FRANCE: 1702-1710.

CEYLON: Location and size.—"Ceylon is situated between 5° 56' and 9° 50' north latitude, and between 80° and 82° east longitude; and, from the shape and position of the island, it has, with no less beauty than truth, been compared to a pearl-drop on the brow of the Indian continent. Its length is about 276 miles, its breadth about 103, and its circumference is about 900. The superficial area is nearly 24,000 square miles." The estimated population at the end of 1919 was 4,757,596. "The island is bounded on the north-[west] by the Gulf of Mannar, by which it is separated from the main land [southern India], and the Indian Ocean bounds its other shores."—H. C. Sirr, *Ceylon and the Cingalese*, pp. 218-219. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Extent; INDIA: Map.

Earliest history (B. C. 600-A. D. 1796).—First settlers.—Reign of Tissa.—Introduction of Buddhism.—Tamil wars.—Portuguese and Dutch conquests.—"About 600 B. C. the ancestors of the Sinhalese race swarmed into Ceylon from Bengal, and speedily made it their own. Of earlier inhabitants whom they supplanted, a few fast-disappearing remnants linger in the wilds, and are called Veddahs. The Sinhalese settled the country, founded towns, and made great tanks and irrigation works. They had large buildings profusely adorned with carved stone, at a time when the inhabitants of Britain knew no grander habitations than huts of wattle and mud."—L. B. Clarence, *Ceylon (British Empire series, v. 1, p. 434.)*—"In Asoka's time the ruler of Ceylon was Tissa, who began to reign about 251 B. C. It is reported that there existed a friendship between these two, since Tissa, without ever having seen the King of Magadha, had conceived an ardent admiration for him, owing to a description of his person and deeds. Directly after his accession to the throne, Tissa sent, therefore, an embassy to Asoka, and an embassy was sent to him in return. The latter is said to have come with the object of communicating to Tissa Asoka's Buddhist creed. In any case, it was from Asoka's kingdom that Buddhism was introduced into Ceylon. . . . At the beginning of the third century A. D., a tooth of the Buddha was brought as a relic from India to Ceylon, and a magnificent place was built for its reception. The holy tooth was removed later on to Pollunaruwa, which became the capital in the eighth century A. D.; and finally it was sent to Candy, where a spurious one (for the original tooth was destroyed) is venerated to the present day. In all important respects Buddhism remained unchanged in Ceylon from the early days, and its history is mainly that of changing circumstances (of which there were many), for it was closely bound up with the history of the Sinhalese rulers and their kingdom. . . . A fall in the political power of its patron meant invariably a corresponding fall in the position of Buddhism; whereas a more powerful and prosperous ruler added new lustre to religion. After a rapid declension, a great revival took place during the reign of the mighty ruler Parakrama-Bahu (in the twelfth century). But after the

Portuguese had laid a heavy hand on the island in the sixteenth century—to be displaced and robbed of their plunder later on by the Dutch, from whose hands Ceylon passed yet again to the British in 1796—Buddhism lost more and more of its ancient splendour. It still remained an important factor in the intellectual life of the island within its natural limits."—H. Hackmann, *Buddhism as a religion*, pp. 64-70.—"The Sinhalese were not long undisturbed in the island. After them there came in some Tamil invaders from Southern India, and between these two races there was much fighting. At last, in the sixth century A. D., the Sinhalese power waned rapidly; the Tamils overran the land, and the Sinhalese capital fell into their hands. Once, in the twelfth century, a strong Sinhalese king arose, who beat the Tamils back, and for a while restored the old Sinhalese power. He repaired their ancient buildings, added great works of his own, and even made successful foreign expeditions. . . . When he did there was no one strong enough to take his place, and the glory of the Sinhalese nation departed, never to return. At last the Sinhalese retreated into the southerly parts of the island, and the Tamils settled in the north, and so the two races dwelt apart when in 1505 a European invader first appeared. This was the Portuguese, who appeared on the west coast, attracted by the prospect of obtaining spice, especially cinnamon. They, with much bloodshed and savage cruelty, succeeded in establishing a string of forts and settlements all round the coast, especially on the west and south-west. They worked for two objects—to get spice, and to propagate their own religion. . . . They held these coast settlements, with pretty constant fighting, for about 150 years, but never got any permanent footing inland, and, commercially, the settlements cost them far more than they brought in. . . . The Portuguese were about 150 years in the island, and then, the Dutch turned them out. The Dutch held the settlements for about another 150 years, and then, in 1796, we [the British] turned them out. They, also, never gained any footing away from the coast. They strove hard to make a profitable trade in spice; and did all they could to efface all traces of the Portuguese and their religion, for they detested both with a hatred not to be wondered at in men whose forefathers had gone through blood and fire in the days of Philip the Second and the Inquisition. Their fortifications and churches and canals still remain, and they introduced into their settlements their own Roman-Dutch law."—L. B. Clarence, *Ceylon (British Empire series, v. 1), pp. 435, 436.*

1796-1848.—British rule.—In 1796 we [the British] succeeded to these coast settlements, but the interior was still unsubdued. . . . At first our new possession was placed under the East India Company; but that arrangement, though certainly the most natural, did not work smoothly. The Company's Civil Service was not then what it afterwards became. The officers entrusted with the administration of the Ceylon settlements were neither honest nor discreet. The Sinhalese rose in revolt, and when the revolt had been subdued the settlements were withdrawn from the Company's government, and made into a Crown colony under the Colonial office. Nearly twenty years afterwards, in 1815, we obtained possession of the rest of the country. . . . Until 1833 the interior and the coast settlements were separately administered, but then the whole island was placed on one footing. The form of government is in theory much the same as that of the Indian Presidencies. . . . Soon after the annexation of the interior a determined

revolt took place among the Kandyan Sinhalese. . . . The revolt was suppressed, but with difficulty, and at the expense of laying waste a great deal of country. After this task the opening up the country with roads and bridges was undertaken with great vigour; . . . roads soon overspread the island. There are now something like 4,000 miles of roads, and very good roads they are. In the wake of the roads followed public works of all sorts, and finally railways. There are now 300 miles of railway, and more in contemplation. The last attempt at native revolt was in 1848, and now that the country has become thoroughly opened up, revolt grows more and more unlikely. Even when India was shaken by the Mutiny, Ceylon remained tranquil."—*Ibid.*, pp. 437-441.—See also BRITISH EMPIRE: Treaties promoting expansion: 1815.

1915.—Serious riots.—Explanation by a native.—"Ceylon had up to [1915] . . . been very free from the type of political unrest which had long prevailed over a large part of India, but in June serious riots occurred, which were at least partly political in character. The riots broke out in Kandy, but spread to Colombo and other towns, and martial law had to be proclaimed in five provinces of the island. The rioting, which was almost exclusively confined to the Singalese—the Tamil coolies and Indian residents taking no part in the outbreak—was partly religious in its origin; the disturbances commenced on Buddha's birthday and the rioters attacked and looted the shops of the Indian Moslems. The fact that the riots broke out simultaneously in more than one place and that the natives attempted to interrupt railway communications pointed, however, to a definite plan for a concerted rising. The districts affected were kept under martial law for three months, and many of the Mohammedan shopkeepers returned in disgust to India."—*Annual Register*, 1915, pp. 294-296.—"The intolerance and aggressiveness of a small section of the Muhammadans known to the Sinhalese as 'Hambayas' (boatmen), and their insistence on the religious processions of the Sinhalese Buddhists passing in silence before their mosques in Gampola and Kandy, were the earliest of the causes of the recent riots in Ceylon, which began on the 29th May and ended on the 5th of June, 1915. . . . To understand still better the true dimensions of the riots, we have to remember that the present population of Ceylon is 4,220,000, and that, if as many as 20,000 rioters be said to have roused fear in 200,000 persons, the remaining four millions were passive spectators from a safe distance. It should also be borne in mind, in order to realise the intentions of the rioters, that even the very wicked among them did not raise a finger against Government Officers or other Europeans, or their property, and that they were not bent on killing anyone. Disloyalty and treason were not in their hearts. The rioters had no guns or ammunition to fight the forces of the Government, as the house-to-house search made by the military in towns and villages proved; and they had neither the means nor the sympathy of the respectable and well-to-do people to molest the Moors beyond a few minutes in each of the disturbed places."—P. Ramanathan, *Riots and martial law in Ceylon*, 1915, pp. 1, 52, 53.

ALSO IN: E. Tennants, *History of Ceylon*.—H. W. Cave, *Book of Ceylon*.—A. Clark, *Ceylon*.

1916-1922.—Results of riots.—Arrests and damage.—Constitutional changes.—[Ceylon] "passed through a quiet year, and there was no fresh outbreak of the fighting between the Moslem and non-Moslem elements of the population

which had been so serious in the previous year. Over 100 persons were killed in these riots, thirty-nine being murdered by the Singalese rioters, and sixty-three being killed by the police and troops during the suppression of the rising. Nearly 9,000 persons were arrested during the period of martial law, and 4,855 were convicted. The damage done to property amounted to 6,000,000 rupees [\$2,000,000]."—*Annual Register*, 1916, pp. 305-306. On Oct. 1, 1920, the Imperial Government issued the provisions for amendments to be introduced into the constitution, under which the legislative council was to be reformed to include a majority of unofficial members instead of a majority of official members, as was hitherto the case. As regards the executive council, the governor was instructed to appoint three additional unofficial members, while the modifications in the legislative council involved a considerable extension of the principle of popular election and gave the unofficial members a substantial majority over the official vote. Exclusive of the governor, who presides at the deliberations, the new legislative council numbers thirty-seven members—fourteen official and twenty-three unofficial, nineteen of the latter to be elected by various constituencies, and four nominated. Special powers are reserved to the governor to be exercised in certain emergencies, including authority to appoint not more than three unofficial members to represent interests inadequately provided for. The governor is to have both an original and a casting vote, to be used at his discretion; in the event of a deadlock the governor may declare the passing of any measure to be of paramount importance to the community, in which case the measure may be carried by the votes of the official members alone. There was some opposition to the scheme, particularly on the part of the Ceylon National Congress, which resolved to boycott the measure.

1919-1920.—New educational system.—A board of education was established in 1919 under a new ordinance, which also stipulated that new regulations must be laid before the legislative council for approval before being confirmed by the governor in executive council. The Board is to consist of from 16 to 20 members nominated by the governor and to hold office for three years. The department is under the control of a director, assistant-director, and a staff of inspectors. The vernacular schools operating in 1920 were—895 government schools, 1,868 aided schools, 1,350 unaided schools, besides 278 English and Anglo-vernacular schools. In vernacular schools education is free, while fees are charged in English schools. There are also eighty-four industrial schools. The government gives three scholarships with fares to England. Plans were put forward in 1919 to affiliate Ceylon University College to Oxford University. The construction of a new Royal College was begun in 1920. In the same year there were 446 pupils attending the technical schools of the island.

1921.—British reforms. See BRITISH EMPIRE: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1921: India's representative, etc.

1921-1922.—Decennial census.—The decennial census of Ceylon was taken on March 18, 1921. According to the provisional figures published in 1922, the population showed an increase of 0.5 per cent since the census of 1911, and revealed a total of 4,504,283, exclusive of the military and shipping personnel. These latter two classes were returned as numbering 6,684. The European residents numbered 8,421; Singalese, 3,016,423; Tamils, 1,120,478; Moors, or non-Malay Mohammedans, 284,704; Burghers, 28,923; Malays, 13,745; Veddahs, 4,402, and 20,500 of other races. The popu-

lation of the principal towns was: Colombo, 244,100; Galle, 39,000; Jaffna, 42,400, and Kandy, 32,000. The provisional statistics regarding adherents of the principal religions state that there were 2,770,000 Buddhists, 982,000 Hindus, 302,000 Mohammedans and 444,000 Christians.

CEZANNE, Paul, French Post-Impressionist. See PAINTING: Europe (10th century).

CHACABUCO, Battle of (1817). See CHILE: 1810-1818.

CHACO, stretch of territory in northeast Argentina, extending also into Paraguay and Bolivia. See PARAGUAY: Name.

CHAD, or Tchad, Lake, a large shallow lake in the Sudan, Africa. It is surrounded by French and British territory. The lake is largely choked with vegetation and is yearly decreasing in area. See AFRICA: Modern European occupation: 19th century; CAMEROONS: Exploration of the interior.

CHÆRONEA, Battles of. See GREECE: B. C. 357-336; MITHRADATIC WARS.

CHAFFARINAS, Zaffarines or Zafarin islands (the *Tres Insulæ* of the Romans, *Zafran* of the Arabs), a group of three small islands lying close to the northeastern coast of Morocco. They were occupied by the Spanish in 1848 just a few days before a French expedition arrived to annex them to Algeria. The central island, Isabella II, is fortified, and the Spanish government is uniting it by breakwaters with the nearby island of El Rey, thus forming an excellent harbor for deep-water vessels.

CHAGAN, identified with the word khan. See KHAN.

CHA'HTA INDIANS. See MUSKHOGEAN or MASKOKI FAMILY.

CHAIT SINGH, raja of Benares, who revolted against Warren Hastings' rule in India. See INDIA: 1773-1785.

CHAKK, tribe of ancient warriors in Kashmir. See KASHMIR.

CHAKRABERTY, Chandra Kanta, Indian doctor in charge of German revolutionary propaganda against the Allies who was tried and convicted in the United States. See U. S. A.: 1914-1917.

CHALCEDON, an ancient Greek city, founded by the Megarians on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, nearly opposite to Byzantium. It was besieged by the Persians in 616. See PERSIA: 226-627.

Council of (451). See ABYSSINIAN CHURCH; CHRISTIANITY: 312-337.

CHALCIDICE, in ancient geography the most important peninsula of Macedonia, jutting out into the Ægean sea. It was settled about the seventh century B. C. by the Euboeans, and its chief cities were Olynthus and Potidea. One of the three projecting peninsulas, in which Chalcidice ends, is the famous Athos, with its huge mountain rising directly from the water's edge to a height of 6,349 feet, where there has been a community of monks since the Middle Ages. See GREECE: Map of ancient Greece.

In Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B. C. 424-421.

CHALCIDICE LEAGUE, union of cities on the Chalcidice peninsula of ancient Greece, of which Olynthus was an important member. The league arose about 421 B. C. but became more prominent after the Peloponnesian War. See GREECE: B. C. 4th century.

CHALCIS AND ERETRIA.—"The most dangerous rivals of Ionia were the towns of Eubœa, among which, in the first instance, Cyme, situated in an excellent bay of the east coast, in a district

abounding in wine, and afterwards the two sister-towns on the Euripus, Chalcis and Eretria, distinguished themselves by larger measures of colonization. While Eretria, the 'city of rowers,' rose to prosperity especially by means of purple-fisheries and a ferry-navigation conducted on a constantly increasing scale, Chalcis, the 'bronze city,' on the double sea of the Bœotian sound, contrived to raise and employ for herself the most important of the many treasures of the island—its copper. . . . Chalcis became the . . . Greek Sidon. Next to Cyprus there were no richer stores of copper in the Greek world than on Eubœa."—E. Curtius, *History of Greece*, bk. 2, ch. 3.—The Chalcidians were enterprising colonists, particularly in Thrace, in the Macedonian peninsula and in southern Italy and Sicily. It was the abundant wealth of Thrace in metallic ores which drew the Chalcidians to it. About 700 B. C. a border feud between Chalcis and Eretria, concerning certain 'Lelantian fields' which lay between them, grew to such proportions and so many other states came to take part in it, that, "according to Thucydides no war of more universal importance for the whole nation was fought between the fall of Troja and the Persian war."—*Ibid.*, v. 1, bk. 2, ch. 1.—Chalcis was subdued by the Athenians in B. C. 506. See ATHENS: B. C. 509-506; EUBŒA.

CHALDEA, CHALDEANS.—"The origin of the Chaldeans is obscure, but some facts concerning them may be considered as fairly well known. They invaded Babylonia from the south, coming from the neighborhood of the Persian Gulf. [See BABYLONIA: Earliest inhabitants.] Whence they had come into the Sea Lands at that point is nearly as well known by a process of elimination. They could not have come from Elam, and they must therefore be settlers from Arabia. From what part of that old home land of Semites they had come is not known. It is, however, clear that they were Semites. They bore Semitic names, as far as any of their names are known to us, and they readily adapted themselves to Semitic customs, whether of religion, government, or social life. [See SEMITES: Primitive Babylonia.] Their appearance in Babylonia was at an early date, and they had gradually spread in scattered communities over a considerable portion of the country, both north and south. In this they form a close parallel to the Aramæans, who belonged, indeed, to the same general wave of migration as themselves, and had early proved dangerous neighbors to the Assyrians."—R. W. Rogers, *History of Babylonia and Assyria*, v. 2, pp. 301-305.—Although the date of their earliest appearance is not known, some of the dynasties of the eleventh century B. C. were probably Chaldean. In 803 B. C. Adadnari III was receiving tribute from Chaldean princes and between 812-783 B. C. the term "Mat-Kaldu" was applied to all Babylonia.—See also BABYLONIA: Early (Chaldean) monarchy.

"The chief stronghold of the Chaldeans was the territory known as the Sea Lands. This country was somewhat larger than the alluvial lands about the mouths of the rivers, as it apparently included a strip of territory of unknown extent along the Arabian coast of the Persian Gulf. It had a government and a history of its own, running back through the centuries, of which, however, only fragments are known to us. That part of its history which is known is little more than a story of a half-nomad, half-agricultural and pastoral people who kept up a running fire of efforts to possess themselves of the rich lands and wealthy cities of their more fortunate Babylonian neighbors. The other Chaldean communities have left

even less mark of their individuality upon history. They formed, indeed, principalities, which the boastfulness of Assyrian kings has elevated into large kingdoms and endowed with great armies, and with forces which could only be overcome by the might of the great god Asshur. Like their more numerous fellows in the Sea Lands, these also were anxious chiefly to find a leader who could give into their hands the possessions of the Babylonians. Any prince of one of these small states or communities who could win battles over the native Babylonians was sure of a following of Chaldeans generally, and not merely of the men of his own community. This was the surest way of coming out of the limitations of a petty principedom in Bit-Yakin, or in the Sea Lands, and of becoming the king of Kaldi Land. A man who could gain the title of king of Babylon or of king of Sumer and Accad would stand so much above his fellow-princes among the Chaldeans that he might well be called by the lesser title of king of Kaldi. This fact goes far to explain the constant attempts of Chaldean princes upon Babylon. They were not moved by a sentimental appreciation of the glories of Babylon and its ancient royal titles, as were Tiglathpileser III and Sargon. They thirsted for power over the Babylonians because it brought wealth and ease, and with these headship among their own Chaldean peoples. This leadership among the Chaldeans had, however, more than once wrecked their hopes, when by contact with Babylonians they had learned more of the beauty and dignity of Babylonian civilization and come to recognize in the title an expression not so much of wealth as of honor, a headship in civilization. From such ideas they were dragged down by the Chaldean population, who thirsted after the wealth and demanded that they should receive the well-cultivated lands and the city property. These demands had been measurably granted by Merodach-baladan, and as a direct consequence of this compliance his new rule was promptly shattered by the Assyrians, and Chaldean supremacy was postponed."—*Ibid.*—Merodach-baladan, prince of Bit-Yakin, the ancient capital of the Sea Lands, took Babylon in 721 B. C. and held the title of king of Babylon until 709 B. C. He made a second attempt to take the city in 702 B. C., but was driven out by the powerful Assyrian, Sennacherib.—"As we have already said, however, the Chaldeans had not disappeared during the period of the Assyrian supremacy over Babylonia. They existed in great numbers in Babylonia, and were only awaiting the day when they should be able to produce the man strong enough to seize or to create a favorable opportunity, as Merodach-baladan had done, by which they might again rule. Of the Chaldean communities which had not been absorbed by the Babylonians the kingdom or principality of the Sea Lands was at this time still the largest and strongest. North of it were a number of Chaldean tribes, among which Bit-Silani, Bit-Sa'alli, and Bit-Sala had long been the most prominent, for their names find mention in the inscriptions of Tiglathpileser III. Indeed, were it not for his records and the Annals of the later Assyrian kings, we should know even less than we do of the Chaldeans. The Babylonian inscriptions, devoted to temples, palaces, and canals, ignore their very existence, and when they came to dominion themselves they acted in all things as Babylonians. Above these tribes going northward were the communities of Bit-Amukkani, out of which came Ukin-zer, and of Bit-Adini, which lay just south of the city of Babylon. Even here the line of Chaldean communities did not cease, for the tribe

of the Bit-Dakkuri was established north of the great capital city. These Chaldean communities, though they were Semites, were, nevertheless, alien communities. They did not, as a rule, intermingle readily with the Babylonians, or they would all long since have been absorbed. Though settled in a land which had been tilled for many centuries, they still remained half-nomads. The land was not overpopulated, and if they had desired to settle down as quiet and peaceable agriculturists, there would have been plenty of room for them. They did not accept this opportunity, but over and over again had been disturbers of the peace, eager to gain the complete control, and desirous not of making a destiny for themselves, but wishing to rob the Babylonians of that which the industry of ages had accumulated by slow and painful steps. In the attainment of this purpose they had been defeated before the Assyrians. There was now a larger hope, for Assyrian vitality was gone and the whole vast empire was falling to pieces. . . . Babylonian vitality was also at the lowest ebb, and could offer no effectual resistance to any sharp blow delivered by a strong arm. But, though the Chaldeans must have known of the evident decay of Assyria, they were too wily to rise again in rebellion in an inopportune time. They could not be sure that Asshurbanapal [668-c. 626 B. C.] did not possess resources which might be directed against them with crushing force, and they well knew that no movement of his was tempered with mercy."—R. W. Rogers, *History of Babylonia and Assyria*, v. 2, pp. 301-305.—"But as so often before, so it was now, change of rulers gave opportunity to a Chaldean to grasp the throne of Babylon. From 625 the lists designate NABU-APLU-UISUR, 625, or, as the name has come down to us through the Greeks somewhat distorted, as other names and facts delivered to us from the same source, Nabopolassar. He was a Chaldean, but we do not know which was his native state. He is the first of the last dynasty of Babylon, which raised her again to the leading power of Western Asia and extended her dominion once more as far as the Mediterranean. In the uninterrupted struggle between Assyria and the Chaldeans over Babylon the latter were eventually victors, after their efforts were repeatedly thwarted for a couple of centuries. Babylonia was not Chaldean. The Chaldean migration had reached its goal and therewith also its end. . . . But this result was not won through an awakening of the power of the Babylonian people. Babylon was, as she had been for centuries, in the hands of conquerors who sought historical eclat for their power through the ancient renown of this home of culture. In the centuries of conflict between Assyrians and Chaldeans the oft defeated but undeterred intruder won in the end. Nebuchadnezzar [son of Nabopolassar], before whom Palestine now trembled, was a Chaldean. The Old Testament, also, in its contemporary records, designates these representatives of the last Babylonian dynasty as Chaldeans."—H. Winckler, *History of Babylonia and Assyria*, pp. 125, 126; 315.—See also BABYLONIA: Later empire.

Wise men of the East.—Skill in astrology.—Discoveries in mathematics and astronomy.—"The Chaldeans were devout believers in astrology, a form of superstition into which an astronomical religion like Sabeism is very apt to degenerate. For once it is taken for granted that the stars are divine beings, possessed of intelligence, and will, and power, what more natural than to imagine that they can rule and shape the destinies of men by a mysterious influence? This influence was supposed to depend

on their movements, their position in the sky, their ever changing combinations and relations to each other; under this supposition every movement of a star—its rising, its setting, or crossing the path of another—every slightest change in the aspect of the heavens every unusual phenomenon—an eclipse, for instance—must be possessed of some weighty sense, boding good or evil to men, whose destiny must constantly be as clearly written in the blue sky as in a book. If only one could learn the language, read the characters! Such knowledge was thought to be within the reach of men, but only to be acquired by the exceptionally gifted and learned few, and those whom they might think worthy of having it imparted to them. That these few must be priests was self-evident. They were themselves fervent believers in astrology, which they considered quite as much a real science as astronomy, and to which they devoted themselves as assiduously. They thus became the acknowledged interpreters of the divine will, partakers, so to speak, of the secret councils of heaven. Of course such a position added greatly to their power, and that they should never abuse it to strengthen their hold on the public mind and to favor their own ambitious views, was not in human nature. Moreover, being the clever and learned ones of the nation, they really were at the time the fittest to rule it—and rule it they did. . . . The three great branches of religious science—astrology, incantation and divination—were represented by three corresponding classes of 'wise men,' all belonging, in different degrees, to the priesthood: the star-gazers or astrologers, the magicians or sorcerers, and the soothsayers or fortune-tellers. . . . When the Babylonian empire ceased to exist and the Chaldeans were no longer a nation, these secret arts continued to be practised by them, and the name 'Chaldean' became a by-word, a synonym for 'a wise man of the East,'—astrologer, magician or soothsayer. They dispersed all over the world, carrying their delusive science with them, practising and teaching it, welcomed everywhere by the credulous and superstitious, often highly honored and always richly paid. Thus it is from the Chaldeans and their predecessors the Shumiro-Accads that the belief in astrology, witchcraft and every kind of fortune-telling has been handed down to the nations of Europe, together with the practices belonging thereto, many of which we find lingering even to our day among the less educated classes. The very words "magic" and 'magician' are probably an inheritance of that remotest of antiquities. One of the words for 'priest' in the old Turanian tongue of Shumir was *imga*, which, in the later Semitic language, became *mag*. The *Rabmag*—'great priest,' or perhaps 'chief conjurer,' was a high functionary at the court of the Assyrian kings. Hence 'magus,' 'magic,' 'magician,' in all the European languages, from Latin downward. [See PRIESTHOOD: In Semitic religions (non-Jewish).] There can be no doubt that we have little reason to be grateful for such an heirloom as this mass of superstitions, which have produced so much evil in the world and still occasionally do mischief enough. But we must not forget to set off against it the many excellent things, most important discoveries in the province of astronomy and mathematics which have come to us from the same distant source. To the ancient Chaldeo-Babylonians we owe not only our division of time, but the invention of the sundial, and the week of seven days, dedicated in succession to the Sun, the Moon, and the five planets—an arrangement which is still maintained, the names of our days being merely that; there were days set apart and kept holy, as

days of rest, as far back as the time of Sargon of Agadê; it was from the Semites of Babylonia—perhaps the Chaldeans of Ur—that both the name and the observance passed to the Hebrew branch of the race, the tribe of Abraham. George Smith found an Assyrian calendar where the day called *Sabattu* or *Sabattuv* is explained to mean 'completion of work, a day of rest for the soul.'—Z. A. Ragozin, *Chaldaea*, pp. 233-236.—See also ASTRONOMY: Early History.

Ancient architecture. See ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: Mesopotamia.

Monetary system. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient Egypt and Babylonia.

CHALDIRAN, Battle of (1514). See BAGDAD: 1303-1638; TURKEY.

CHALLENGER, corvette sent out by the British government in 1872-1876 for oceanic exploration. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: Map of Antarctic regions.

CHALLONER, Richard (1601-1781), English Catholic prelate, author of numerous devotional works including a revision of the Douai Bible. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: Bible used in Roman Catholic churches.

CHALON-SUR-SAONE, an ancient city of east-central France, eighty miles north of Lyons. In the sixth century was the capital of Burgundy; in 1814 offered stout resistance to the Austrians.

CHALONS-SUR-MARNE, a city of north-eastern France, about twenty-five miles south-east of Rheims. In 451 Attila was defeated between Châlons and Troyes; in the thirteenth and fifteenth centuries the town was the scene of conflict; in 1856 Napoleon III established a large camp nearby; in 1870 Marshal MacMahon formed here the army of Châlons which later capitulated at Sedan; in 1914 the Germans captured the city and held it until the battle of the Marne.

Battle of (271). Among the pretenders who aspired to the Roman imperial throne—"the thirty tyrants," as they were called—of the distracted reign of Gallienus, was Tetricus, who had been governor of Aquitaine. The dangerous honor was forced upon him, by a demoralized army, and he reigned against his will for several years over Gaul, Spain and Britain. At length, when the iron-banded Aurelian had taken the reins of government at Rome, Tetricus secretly plotted with him for deliverance from his own uncoveted greatness. Aurelian invaded Gaul and Tetricus led an army against him, only to betray it, in a great battle at Chalons (271), where the rebels were cut to pieces.—E. Gibbon, *History of the decline and fall of the Roman empire*, ch. 11.

Battle of (451). See BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 423-455; HUNS: 451.

CHALUKYA, Indian dynasty which ruled in the Deccan. See INDIA: B. C. 240-A. D. 1200.

CHALUS, a castle near Limoges in south-central France. In 1199, while besieging it, Richard I of England was mortally wounded by a bolt from a cross-bow.

CHALYBES.—The Chalybes, or Chalybians, were an ancient people in Asia Minor, on the coast of the Euxine, probably east of the Halys, who were noted as workers of iron.—E. H. Bunbury, *History of ancient geography*, ch. 22, note A.

CHAMAVI, Germanic tribe. See BRUCTERI.

CHAMBALA, a town of (former) German East Africa, occupied by the British in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VII. African theater: a, 13.

CHAMBERLAIN, Austen (1863-), English statesman, son of Joseph Chamberlain; 1895-1900, civil lord of admiralty; 1902-1908, postmaster-gen-

eral; 1903-1905, chancellor of the exchequer; 1915-1916, secretary of state for India; 1918, member of war cabinet; 1919, again became chancellor of the exchequer.

CHAMBERLAIN, Daniel Henry (1835-1907), governor of South Carolina, 1874-1876; succeeded in checking political corruption during his administration. See **SOUTH CAROLINA**: 1873-1877.

CHAMBERLAIN, Joseph (1836-1914), English statesman. Thrice mayor of Birmingham; 1880-1885, president of board of trade; 1886, president of local government board; 1895-1903, secretary of state for colonies, during which time he presided over the colonial conferences of premiers. His main aims were to develop the resources of the colonies and to bring them into closer relation with the mother country. He advocated colonial preference, resigning his office in 1903 to promote tariff reform.—See also **ENGLAND**: 1804-1895 (March-September); 1900 (November-December).

Birmingham caucus plan. See **CAUCUS**: **England**: Development of the caucus.

Controversy with the government of the South African republic. See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1806 (January-April); 1806-1807 (May-April).

Parliamentary investigation of Jameson raid. See **SOUTH AFRICA, UNION OF**: 1897 (February-July).

Correspondence with South Australia. See **AUSTRALIA**: 1902.

Address at Imperial Conference of 1902. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1902.

Tariff reform advocated. See **ENGLAND**: 1903 (May-September); **TARIFF**: 1903-1906.

Antagonistic relations with Lloyd-George. See **ENGLAND**: 1905-1906.

CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE, Congress of (1909), meeting of members from the British empire at New South Wales. See **BRITISH EMPIRE**: Colonial and imperial conferences: 1909 (September).

CHAMBERSBURG, borough and county seat of Franklin county, Pennsylvania. During the Civil War it was burned by the Confederates, July 30, 1864, upon the citizens' refusal to pay ransom. See **U. S. A.**: 1864 (July: Virginia-Maryland).

CHAMBORD, Henri Charles Ferdinand Marie Dieudonné d'Artois, comte de (1820-1883), duc de Bordeaux, French prince, grandson of Charles X, called "Henry V." In 1873, a monarchist majority of the National Assembly offered him the throne as Bourbon Legitimist. He agreed to certain of the conditions but refused to accept the tricolor flag in place of the white standard of the Bourbons, symbol of absolutism and divine right.

CHAMERY, village of France southwest of Rheims, occupied by the Allies in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: h.

CHAMICOCO, South American Indian tribe. See **GUCK OR COCO GROUP**.

CHAMORRO, Salvador, president of the Nicaraguan Chamber of Deputies; representative at the Peace Conference. See **VERSAILLES, TREATY OF**: Conditions of peace.

CHAMORRO-BRYAN TREATY, a treaty between Nicaragua and United States concerning the canal route. See **NICARAGUA**: 1913-1916.

CHAMPAGNE (Latin, *Campania*), country of the plains, a large district in the north of France. In the middle years of the revolt that dethroned the Carolingians and raised the Capetians to a throne which they made the throne of a kingdom of France, Count Herbert of Vermandois allied

himself with the party of the latter, and began operations for the expanding of his domain. "The Campaign of Rheims, the 'Campania Remensis'—a most appropriate descriptive denomination of the region—an extension of the plains of Flanders—but not yet employed politically as designating a province—was protected against Count Herbert on the Vermandois border by the *Castrum Theodorici*—Château Thierry. . . Herbert's profuse promises induced the commander to betray his duty. . . Herbert, through this occupation of Château Thierry, obtained the city of Troyes and all the 'Campania Remensis,' which, under his potent sway, was speedily developed into the magnificent County of Champagne. Herbert and his lineage held Champagne during three generations, until some time after the accession of the Capets, when the Grand Fief passed from the House of Vermandois to the House of Blois."—Sir F. Palgrave, *History of Normandy and England*, v. 2, p. 192.—See also **FRANCE**: Maps of medieval period: 1154-1360.—The province ceased to be independent in 1314 when Count Louis Hutin, eldest son of Philip the Fair and Joan of Navarre (who was heiress of Champagne), became Louis X of France. The modern departments of Ardennes, Aube and Haute-Marne, Marne, part of Aisne, Seine-et-Marne, Yonne and Meuse have been formed from the old province. The country is drained and watered by the Aisne. The Oise, the Marne and the Seine. The wine known as champagne is chiefly produced in Aube, Ardennes, Haute-Marne and Marne.

1911.—Revolt of wine growers. See **FRANCE**: 1911.

1915.—Battle of Champagne. See **WORLD WAR**: 1915: II. Western front: a, 1; i, 1; i, 7; i, 8; i, 9; j, 4; j, 6; j, 8.

1917.—Scene of German attack. See **WORLD WAR**: 1917: II. Western front: b, 2.

1918.—Region of fighting. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: II. Western front: g, 9; g, 14.

CHAMPIGNEUILLES, village of France north of Nancy, captured by the Americans in 1918. See **WORLD WAR**: 1918: Western front: v, 10.

CHAMPIONNET, Jean Etienne (1762-1800), French general, commander of Neapolitan forces. See **FRANCE**: 1798-1799 (August-April).

CHAMPION'S HILL, Battle of. See **U. S. A.**: 1803 (April-July: On the Mississippi).

CHAMPLAIN, Samuel de (1567-1635), French explorer and pioneer; explored the St. Lawrence river and Bay of Fundy; 1603, established a colony at St. Croix; 1608, as lieutenant governor founded Quebec; and 1611, opened a trading post at the present Montreal (see **CANADA**: 1611); discovered Lake Champlain, explored the Great Lakes region and took an active part in several battles with the Iroquois Indians. See **CANADA**: 1603-1605; 1608-1611; 1611-1612; 1612; 1615-1616; 1616-1628.

CHAMPLAIN, Lake: 1609.—Its discovery. See **CANADA**: 1608-1611.

1776.—Arnold's naval battle with Carleton. See **U. S. A.**: 1776-1777.

1814.—Macdonough's naval victory. See **U. S. A.**: 1814 (September).

1909.—Tercentenary celebration of the discovery. See **NEW YORK**: 1909.

CHAMPLAIN CANAL. See **BARGE CANAL, New York State**.

CHAMPOLLION, Jean François (1700-1832), French Egyptologist; 1821, first deciphered Egyptian hieroglyphics; 1824, sent by the French government to study the museums of Italy and appointed director of the Egyptian museum at the

Louvre; 1828, conducted a scientific expedition to Egypt and upon his return became professor of Egyptology at the Collège de France. See ALPHABET: Deciphering the hieroglyphics; HIEROGLYPHICS, EGYPTIAN; PHILOLOGY: 12.

CHAMPS DE MARS, or **Champs de Mai**.—When the Merovingian kings of the Franks summoned their captains to gather for the planning and preparing of campaigns, the assemblies were called at first the Champs de Mars, because the meeting was in earliest spring—in March. "But as the Franks, from serving on foot, became cavaliers under the second [the Carolingian] race, the time was changed to May, for the sake of forage, and the assemblies were called Champs de Mai."—E. E. Crowe, *History of France*, ch. 1.—See also FRANCE: 1791 (July-September); PARLIAMENT OF PARIS.

CHAMPS ELYSEES, the fashionable promenade of Paris. It extends about 1 1/3 miles, from the Place de la Concorde to the Arc de Triomphe de l'Etoile. It was laid out by Marie de Medici in 1616.

CHANAK, a fort on the east shore of the Narrows of the Dardanelles. In 1915 it was unsuccessfully bombarded by the Allied fleet in an attempt to force the passage of the strait.

CHANCAS, South American Indian tribe. See PERU: Paternal despotism of the Incas.

CHANCELLOR, Richard (d. 1556), an English navigator and explorer. In 1553 he was pilot-general of Sir Hugh Willoughby's expedition of several ships to find a northeast passage to China. Chancellor was the only one to bring his ship through (the crews of the others all perished); he continued the voyage to the White Sea, entered the northern Dvina, and travelled thence overland to Moscow, where he obtained trade concessions from the tsar, Ivan the Terrible. Chancellor was drowned on a second voyage to that region.

CHANCELLOR: British.—"The name [chancellor], derived probably from the cancelli or screen behind which the secretarial work of the royal household was carried on, claims a considerable antiquity; and the offices which it denotes are various in proportion. The chancellor of the Karolingian sovereigns, succeeding to the place of the more ancient referendarius, is simply the royal notary; the archi-cancellarius is the chief of a large body of such officers associated under the name of the chancery, and is the keeper of the royal seal. It is from this minister that the English chancellor derives his name and function. Edward the Confessor, the first of our sovereigns who had a seal, is also the first who had a chancellor; from the reign of the Conqueror the office has descended in regular succession. It seems to have been to a comparatively late period, generally if not always, at least in England, held by an ecclesiastic who was a member of the royal household and on a footing with the great dignitaries. The chancellor was the most dignified of the royal chaplains, if not the head of that body. The whole secretarial work of the household and court fell on the chancellor and the chaplains. . . . The chancellor was, in a manner, the secretary of state for all departments."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 11, sect. 121.—"In the reign of Edward I. we begin to perceive signs of the rise of the extraordinary or equitable jurisdiction of the Chancellor. The numerous petitions addressed to the King and his Council, seeking the interposition of the royal grace and favour either to mitigate the harshness of the Common Law or supply its deficiencies, had been in the

special care of the Chancellor, who examined and reported upon them to the King. . . . At length, in 1348, by a writ or ordinance of the 22d year of Edward III, all such matters as were 'of Grace' were directed to be dispatched by the Chancellor or by the Keeper of the Privy Seal. This was a great step in the recognition of the equitable jurisdiction of the Court of Chancery, as distinct from the legal jurisdiction of the Chancellor and of the Courts of Common Law; although it was not until the following reign that it can be said to have been permanently established."—T. P. Taswell-Langmead, *English constitutional history*, pp. 173-174.—"The Lord Chancellor is a Privy Councillor by his office; a Cabinet Minister; and, according to Lord Chancellor Ellesmere, prolocutor [chairman, or Speaker] of the House of Lords by prescription."—A. C. Ewald, *Crown and its advisers*, lecture 2.

ALSO IN: E. Fischel, *English constitution*, bk. 5, ch. 7.

"The Lord High Chancellor of England corresponds to the Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court in some respects, and to our Vice-President in others. He is the highest judicial officer of the realm, as well as the presiding officer of the House of Lords. The Lord Chancellor, however, has other important functions which the American officials do not possess. He is always a member of the Cabinet, and usually, though not of necessity, a member of the House of Lords. It is customary to elevate a commoner to the peerage when appointed to this office. The post is one of great dignity and carries with it important patronage."—T. F. Moran, *English government*, p. 75.—"The judges of the county courts are appointed, and may be dismissed by the Lord Chancellor, who may, with the rule Committee of the judges make rules for their procedure."—W. R. Anson, *Law and custom of the constitution (Crown, v. 1, p. 270)*.—"The Chancery Division [of the High Court of Justice] consists of the Lord Chancellor, who presides, and five judges. . . . All the judges of the High Court (twenty-one in all) are appointed by letters patent under the Great Seal, on the advice of the Chancellor."—*Ibid.*, p. 268.—"He is responsible for the appointment of the judges of the High Court, for the placing of the names on the Commission of the Peace, and for their removal in case of need. . . . Besides his duties as a judge, and his responsibility for many judicial and some ecclesiastical appointments, the Chancellor is the head of the office in which his first duties began. . . . It is in the Crown Office in Chancery that the Great Seal is for most purposes affixed. . . . [See EQUITY LAW: 1461-1483: Jurisdiction of chancery.] The Chancellor is directly responsible in all cases for the use of the Great Seal [see EQUITY LAW: 506]. The ultimate expression of the will of the sovereign. . . . He is, however, only Chancellor for Great Britain. . . . There is a Lord Chancellor for Ireland."—*Ibid.*, v. 2, pp. 154, 155.—See also EQUITY LAW: 1066-1154, 1272-1307 and 1348.

Of the Exchequer.—In England in the reign of Henry III (1216-1272), "was created the office of Chancellor of the Exchequer, to whom the Exchequer seal was entrusted, and who with the Treasurer took part in the equitable jurisdiction of the Exchequer, although not in the common law jurisdiction of the barons, which extended itself as the legal fictions of pleading brought common pleas into this court."—W. Stubbs, *Constitutional history of England*, ch. 15, sect. 237.—"The Chancellor of the Exchequer is the responsible head of the Treasury Department. He corresponds,

in a general way, to our Secretary of the Treasury, but performs some duties which in the United States fall to the Committee on Ways and Means in the House of Representatives [but now the Bureau of the Budget]. He must provide for the necessary expenditure of the government, and must control the details of that expenditure. He must first make an estimate of the amount of money necessary to carry on the government for the year, and must then devise methods for raising the required sum. This is the preparation of the famous 'Budget.' . . . The Chancellor of the Exchequer is always a member of the House of Commons, since money bills must originate in that chamber. The holder of the office is, of necessity, one of the most influential members of the Cabinet. The leadership of the House of Commons was often associated with this office, especially before the press of business became so great as to make such a combination burdensome."—T. F. Moran, *English government*, pp. 72-75.

German imperial.—"Within the domain of Imperial government the place filled in other political systems by a ministry or cabinet [was, under the imperial government], occupied by a single official known as the *Reichskanzler*, or Chancellor. When the constitution of 1867 was framed Bismarck sought to secure for the new federal government a high degree of administrative unity, and at the same time to provide for himself a place of becoming dignity and power, by giving the Chancellor no colleagues, and by making him responsible solely to the Bundespräsident. The plan tended, of course, toward a thoroughgoing centralization in Imperial affairs and an utter negation of anything in the nature of cabinet government. The subject was reopened for discussion in 1871, and the liberal elements in the constituent Reichstag forced a modification, of such a sort that when the constitution assumed final form it contained not merely the stipulation, 'The Imperial Chancellor, to be appointed by the Emperor, shall preside in the Bundesrath and supervise the conduct of its business,' but also the following provision: 'The decrees and ordinances of the Emperor shall be issued in the name of the Empire, and shall require for their validity the countersignature of the Imperial Chancellor, who thereby assumes the responsibility for them.' Speaking broadly, the functions of the Chancellor [were] twofold. The first [arose] from his position within the Bundesrath. Not only [did] he represent in that body, as . . . his Prussian colleagues, the king of Prussia; he [was] vested with the chairmanship of it and with the supervision of its business. He fixed the dates of its sessions. Through his hands passed all communications, and proposals, from the states as well as from the Reichstag, addressed to it, and he [was] its representative in all of its external relations. In the name of the Emperor he lay before the Reichstag all measures enacted by the Bundesrath; and as a member of the Bundesrath, although not as Imperial Chancellor, he appeared on the floor of the Reichstag to advocate and explain proposed legislation. Measures . . . enacted into law [became] binding only after they [had] been proclaimed by the Chancellor, in the name of the Emperor, such proclamation being made regularly through the official organ known as the *Reichsgesetzblatt*."

The Imperial Chancellor was, in addition, the principal administrative official of the empire. The entire administrative authority was centralized and gathered in his hands. The various departments of marine, foreign affairs, telegraphs, etc., had a

status totally unlike that of corresponding branches of other governments. They were merely bureaus of the imperial chancellery, and their heads formed in no sense a collegiate ministry or cabinet. Each official in charge of a department was directly responsible to the chancellor. There has been a mass of incoherent controversy regarding the nature of the responsibility which the imperial chancellor assumed when he countersigned decrees and ordinances of the emperor.

"The truth is that most of the discussion merely befogs a situation which to the unbiased observer is perfectly clear. . . . In the sense in which the ministers of England and France are responsible, the German Chancellor [was] not responsible at all. He [was] answerable in all matters to his Imperial master, who [could] instruct, admonish, censure, or remove him at any moment. But, whatever theories may be spun upon the subject, other responsibility, in practice, he had none. The Imperial government has always been able to do business without for a moment admitting the right of the Reichstag to unseat the Chancellor or any of his subordinates by an adverse vote. The Chancellor, may of course, be criticized, and the proposals which he introduces may be defeated; expediency may even require his removal by his Imperial master; but he has never felt obliged to retire merely by reason of lack of support in the legislative chamber, as would a British or a French minister similarly situated. This does not mean that the blocking of a government program may not tend to produce the practical effect of a parliamentary vote of 'want of confidence.' It means simply that the Chancellor, in such a case, is under no admitted obligation to resign. The retirement of Chancellor von Bülow in 1909 was more nearly involuntary than that of any of his three predecessors; but persons most conversant with the circumstances agree that it was intended to involve no acknowledgment of responsibility to the nation's elected representatives. The situation was simply one in which legislation had become impossible because the Chancellor was unwilling to enter into a compromise with the Conservative-Clerical majority in the Reichstag on his proposed taxation of inheritances and other financial reforms."—F. A. Ogg, *National governments and the World War*, pp. 461-465.—See also GERMANY: 1910 (March).—From the foundation of the empire to its fall there have been eight chancellors (1) Prince Bismarck, 1871-1890; (2) Count Caprivi, 1890-1894; (3) Prince Hohenlohe, 1894-1904; (4) Prince von Bülow, 1904-1909; (5) Dr. von Bethmann-Hollweg, 1909-1917; (6) Dr. Georg Michaelis, July 14-November 2, 1917; (7) Count Georg von Hertling, November 3, 1917-September 30, 1918; (8) Prince Maximilian of Baden, September 30, 1918-November 9, 1918.

German national.—By the Republican constitution adopted July 31, 1919, by the National Assembly at Weimar it was provided that: "Art. 52.—The administration of the Government shall consist of the National Chancellor and the Government Ministers. Art. 53.—The Chancellor, and at his suggestion the Ministers of the Government, shall be appointed and dismissed by the President of the Republic. Art. 54.—The Chancellor and the Government Ministers shall require the confidence of the Reichstag for the fulfillment of their office. Any of them must withdraw in the event that the Reichstag by explicit resolution withholds its confidence. Art. 55.—The Chancellor shall reside in the Government Administration and shall conduct its affairs in accordance with an order of business,

which shall be determined by the Administration and approved by the President of the Republic." On March 28, 1920, Herman Müller was appointed the first national chancellor.

CHANCELLOR'S ROLLS, records of the Norman court. See **EXCHEQUER**.

CHANCELLORSVILLE, Battles of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April-May; Virginia).

CHANCERY COURT. See **CHANCELLOR**: British; **EQUITY LAW**: 449-1066; 1330; 1394; 1422; 1461-1483; 1558; 1601; 1603-1625; **COURTS**: England: Origin of the Court of Equity.

CHANDARNAGAR, or Chandernagore, a French river settlement in India, located twenty miles above Calcutta. Was once of commercial importance; twice captured by the English and twice restored to French possession; since 1816 uninterruptedly held by the French, who also retain four coast settlements in India.

CHANDRAGUPTA MAURYA (321-296 B. C.), ruler of India. See **INDIA**: B. C. 327-312; B. C. 312; B. C. 240-A. D. 1290.

CHANEERS, Indian tribe. See **SIQUAN FAMILY**.

CHANG CHIH TUNG (1837-1909), viceroy of China. See **CHINA**: 1898 (June-September); **EDUCATION**: Modern: 19th century: China; **OPium PROBLEM**: 1900-1906.

CHANG HSUN, Military governor of the province of Anhevei, leader of a vast private army, who for a time in 1917 controlled the government at Peking. See **CHINA**: 1916-1917.

CHANG TSO-LIN, Manchurian general, leader of the forces of northern China opposed to the central government at Peking. See **CHINA**: 1920: Leading parties; Failure of victorious generals, etc.; 1920 (December); 1921-1922; 1922 (April-May).

CHANGARNIER, Nicolas Anne Théodule (1793-1877), French general in command in Algeria. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1830-1846.

CHANGTSIN-TIEN, a town a short distance south of Peking, China, the theater of fighting between Chang and Wu. See **CHINA**: 1922 (April-May).

CHANNEL, English, Airplane flights over. See **AVIATION**: Important flights since 1900: 1910.

CHANNEL ISLANDS, group of islands situated in the English channel and belonging to Great Britain. Their combined area is about seventy-five square miles with a population of 96,899 in 1920. They lie from ten to thirty miles west of the peninsula of Cotentin. The shortest distance between the islands and the English coast is fifty miles. The principal individual islands are Alderney, Guernsey, Sark and Jersey and around these four the smaller islands are grouped. The northern group includes Alderney, Burhou and the angry Casquets where William, son of Henry I was supposed to have perished. To the southwest of these lies the group about Guernsey, to the east of Guernsey lies Sark with Herm and Jethou, and to the southeast of Sark is Jersey. "As regards the export trade of the Channel Islands, it has been summarized as consisting of 'Granite, for paving purposes; fruit and vegetables; fish and crustaceans; cows and heifers.' The stone is chiefly from St. Sampson, Guernsey; early potatoes mainly from Jersey, tomatoes grown under glass from Guernsey, grapes and pears from both islands. . . . Owing to their early connection with Normandy these islands alike in language, literature, laws, and customs have retained much that affords opportunity of interesting study to the ethnologist, philologist, the lawyer, and the student of history."—P. E. Amy, *Channel Islands*, pp. 21, 27.

Early history.—Abundant proof of a prehistoric race is extant in the form of megalithic monu-

ments, cromlechs, menhirs and mounds, but very little has been left of the Roman invasion. Christianity was introduced in the middle of the fifth century. "The Northmen made frequent incursions in the ninth century; and in 912 Charles the Simple, who then ruled France, weakly ceded the Province of Neustria and Dukedom of Normandy to Rollo who left his mark in more ways than one."—*Ibid*, p. 34.—"For the reign of the Conqueror and the three which succeeded it . . . the allegiance of the Islands alternated, being English under William the First, Norman under Rufus, English under Henry the First and Norman again under Stephen. . . . With Henry II the allegiance reverted to its original course . . . and sovereign of the Islands was as the successor of William I and Henry I, King of England and Duke of Normandy. . . . With John a new era begins." He gave a constitution to Guernsey which was "to insular Normandy . . . what the Magna Carta is in England. . . . Under Henry III, the islands were still part of the dowry of Henry II held by England. With Edward III a better state of things began." By definite orders "from the reign of Edward III till the reign of William III, the Channel Islands were one and all free from foreign aggression. . . . The transfer of 1688 was not only from Normandy to England but from the reign of Catholicism to the region of Protestantism."—D. Austed and R. Latham, *Channel Islands*, pp. 353-359, 365.—In the reign of "George III, two more attempts were made upon Jersey by the French. . . . The French Revolution did not affect the islands except that many refugees were there hospitably received. . . . During the last thirty years of the eighteenth century many forms of dissent were introduced and developed. John Wesley visiting the islands in 1787, whilst the English Independents had a Chapel in Guernsey as early as 1706. . . . Printing was introduced in 1784, and several newspapers were founded."—P. E. Amy, *Channel Islands*, pp. 37-38.

More recent history.—"Since the peace of 1814 the history of the Channel Islands has been that of a thriving and progressive population sufficiently isolated to be free from the political storms which visited England, and sufficiently in contact with both England and France to partake of the movement by which the civilization of the present (nineteenth) century is distinguished. Its details, however, connect themselves with the history of particular institutions, and the biography of particular individuals rather than that of the Islands in general."—D. Austed and R. Latham, *Channel Islands*, p. 407.—The Channel Islands are administered according to their own laws and customs and are an interesting example of home rule. They include the two bailiwicks of Jersey and Guernsey with adjacent islands. Jersey has a separate legal existence. The islands are governed by a lieutenant-governor appointed by the crown and a "bailliff" or native chief magistrate also appointed by the crown. These two executives are assisted by the "states" or legislative assembly composed of "jurats." The lieutenant-governor has the right of veto but no vote in the assembly. Judicial affairs are managed by a royal court composed of the bailiff and jurats. In 1905 a law was passed for the island of Guernsey making it necessary for aliens to have the approval of the lieutenant-governor and of the royal court in order to acquire, lease or occupy immovable property.—See also **Jersey and Guernsey**.

CHANNEL PORTS, a term applied to three of the French seaports on the English channel, namely Dunkirk, Calais and Boulogne. During the

World War they were objects of German ambition (see *WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: u, 1*), the purpose being to hamper and harass the British; but the coast of France and the channel ports were never reached by the German armies. See *BREST: 1914-1918; CALAIS: 1875-1911; WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: d*.

CHANNEL TUNNEL.—The proposal to construct a tunnel under the bed of the English channel between Great Britain and France is more than a century old. From time to time careful investigations as to the geology and continuity of the strata have been carried out, in the course of which about 7,000 borings and soundings were taken under the guidance of experts. It has been established that the strata on both sides of the channel are identical, and that at one time an isthmus had existed, which had been cut through by a river from the North sea, thus forming the English channel. It had also been found that under the grey chalk was gault, a series of lower cretaceous beds of clay and marl, a clay very similar to the London clay, which could easily be tunneled. "Geographically a tunnel under the Strait of Dover will be unimportant by comparison with the Panama and Suez canals; commercially no great new avenues in the relations of whole continents will be opened up; and even politically the results will hardly be commensurate with either the hopes or the alarms which friends and foes of the scheme have in past years expressed on the subject. Nevertheless, the boring of a Channel tunnel will still mark a new and important stage of world progress; and from an engineering point of view it will of course rank high among the feats accomplished by human skill and labor. As in the case of many other schemes which appeal to the imagination, the conception of a Channel tunnel is French. It was suggested to the First Napoleon by a French engineer named Mathieu, and shortly after the Peace of Amiens the Emperor proposed it to the then British Ambassador in Paris, saying: 'This is one of the great things we should do together?' The Ambassador's reply is not on record; but it has taken England more than a hundred years to look upon the proposal with favor. And even yet it is not altogether certain that British public opinion is quite satisfied that the 'Charing Cross to Bagdad' of the advocates of the tunnel is so alluring a phrase as the 'splendid isolation' which so long stood the opponents of the scheme in good stead. . . . Horatio Bottomley . . . put a question to the House to which Bonar Law gave the offhand reply that he was in communication with the Prime Minister on the subject of approaching the French Government with a view to beginning immediately the construction of the tunnel in order to find work for discharged soldiers. . . . During the war, opinion in favor of the tunnel grew under the stimulating influence of arguments that had it existed in 1914 the British Expeditionary Force could have reached the front many precious days earlier; had it existed between then and 1919 the whole problem of supporting, supplying, and reinforcing Britain's western armies would have been incalculably lightened, and the German submarine campaign would have lost a serious part of its sting. Even now, however, it is rather pertinently pointed out that, had the Channel tunnel been in existence in 1914, German military strategy would undoubtedly have been different, and instead of making Paris their first objective the Kaiser's armies would have been directed to securing the territory in which the Channel tunnel had its French exit. If the argument is pursued, it will become evident that a rather good case can

be made out against the tunnel on the very same premises as those upon which a case is made out for it."—London correspondent, Mar. 25 (*New York Times*, Apr. 13, 1919).

1875.—Beginning of organization for work.—"This long debated project has at length emerged from the region of speculation, and is entering the stage of actual experiment. On this side of the Channel a company has been formed to carry out the work, and on the other side the French Minister of Public Works has presented to the Assembly a bill authorizing a French Company to cooperate with the English engineers. The course which, as at present fixed, will be taken by the proposed tunnel lies between the two points which are nearest each other on the two coasts, and to which the railway systems of England and the Continent respectively converged."—*Annual Register*, 1875.—The English company received parliamentary sanction to undertake certain preliminary works at St. Margaret's bay.

1876.—First actual work on the tunnel.—The preliminary work commenced at Sangatte, near Calais, about May. "Shafts were sunk to a depth of 40 meters, and the work was rapidly carried out by day and night. . . . The tunnel has definitely been commenced."

1880.—Concession renewed.—The concession for the preliminary works of the Channel tunnel, originally granted for five years in 1875, was renewed by the French government for three years. The English company on the other side of the Channel, was wound up.

1883.—The question of the Channel tunnel referred to a committee of both Houses of Parliament, which reported adversely on the scheme.

1884-1887.—Bills rejected.—Channel tunnel bills of 1884, 1885, and 1887 were defeated in the House of Commons.

1913.—Channel tunnel proposal revived.—Premier Asquith informed a deputation that the matter had been referred to the Committee of Imperial Defence and was under consideration in other government departments.

1914 (May).—French support and construction.—British opinion.—"The French and English engineers have meanwhile perfected their plans: they estimate that it will take seven years to complete the Tunnel, which will be a double one of two tubes each of 20 feet diameter driven parallel and about 20 feet apart, and that a further tunnel for motor traffic will follow. The French government support the enterprise whole-heartedly, and the French railway, which is one of the wealthiest and most powerful in the world, will construct their half and find one-half of the cost. The total cost will be £16,000,000, and the half to be found by England will be £8,000,000 spread over seven years. . . . The railways propose to run a half-hourly service of specially built trains to Paris with special services to Switzerland and the Riviera; and the great European expresses to Berlin, Vienna, Rome, and Madrid will in time start from London, which will then be truly the metropolis of Europe."—A. Fell, *Position of the channel tunnel question in May, 1914*, pp. 4-6.

"That the stupendous folly of connecting Great Britain with the Continent of Europe may never be undertaken is the prayer of the oldest admiral in the British Navy."—Admiral A. De Horsey, *National defence vs. channel tunnel, 1914*.—"It is not generally known that the two chief objections of Lord Wolseley have been met already. He said the Tunnel entrance at Dover would require two forts with garrisons to command it. These forts have been already erected by the government, and

have a garrison of two thousand men for the defence of the Admiralty Harbour at Dover, and they command the proposed tunnel entrance. The second objection was that the British fleet, although in full command of the channel, would have no power to destroy the tunnel, and the French troops, after capturing Dover and the forts, without the tunnel being destroyed, could pass through the tunnel in safety under the keels of our ironclads, which would be unable to interfere with their passage. Plans revised to meet this point provide for the tunnel to emerge from the cliffs on the French shore, and for the line to traverse a viaduct on the seashore and then plunge again into the cliffs. This exposed viaduct would be open to destruction by the guns of the fleet, and could not be repaired under months. The question of an open viaduct is the one which is now [May, 1914] being debated in military circles. . . . In any case, Lord Wolseley's point is completely met. His other objections are largely sentimental. . . . In Lord Wolseley's day France was our only possible invader; now she is our best friend, and we are her best customer. The present grouping of the powers was not anticipated by him. Whilst this grouping continues the tunnel must be, it is allowed, both in peace and in war, a strategic and commercial blessing to both countries. If the grouping should change, whatever the changes may be, the tunnel will always be an advantage to us, unless France should join the group opposed to us, and in that case in time of war the tunnel would be closed as well as the channel steamship service."—A. Fell, *Channel tunnel in 1914*, pp. 11-18.

1919.—**Military opposition withdrawn.**—"The completion of the oft proposed Channel Tunnel connecting England and France is being seriously contemplated, as was revealed in a recent statement made in the British House of Commons, and the matter is even now under discussion between the British and French authorities in Paris. . . . If the project is at last carried through, it will be to the great satisfaction of Sir Arthur Fell, M. P., chairman of the House of Commons Channel Tunnel Committee, who has watched over the interests of the project for many years now. In a recent interview with a representative of The Christian Science Monitor, Sir Arthur stated that the military opposition which had held up the undertaking for such a long time has now been withdrawn, and that there is every prospect that the scheme will go forward. . . . All the data which had been compiled previous to the outbreak of war with regard to the tunnel, still holds good, with the exception of that relating to the cost. It is now estimated that between £20,000,000 and £25,000,000 will be required, in place of a previous estimate of £15,000,000 to £18,000,000. . . . Five years is the period named for purposes of construction of the tunnel, and its construction will absorb a great amount of the labor that is now being freed from the army. It is proposed that the excavation shall be performed by revolving cutters, fixed in Greathead shields, the debris being removed from the face of the chalk by high-speed endless belts, so arranged as to deliver their loads direct into wagons without the necessity of any further manual labor. More workmen will be employed outside the tunnel, in the construction of accommodation for the workers, in the building of supply lines, on the necessary power station, and in making alterations to the existing railways."—*Christian Science Monitor*, May 2, 1919.

CHANNING, William Ellery (1780-1842),

American Unitarian preacher and author. In 1819 he forsook the Calvinistic theology and espoused the Unitarian doctrine with such vigor and ability that he was termed "the apostle of Unitarianism." He was the author of a number of books and treatises.

CHANOS, or Chanases, South American aborigines. See URUGUAY: Aborigines.

CHANSON DE ROLAND, early French epic poem. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1050-1350.

CHANSONNIERS, Medieval. See MUSIC: Medieval: 12th-14th centuries.

CHANSONS, French folk-songs. See MUSIC: Folk music and nationalism: France.

CHANTILLY, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (August-September: Virginia); End of General Pope's campaign.

CHANTRY PRIESTS.—"With the more wealthy and devout [in the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries] it was the practice to erect little chapels, which were either added to churches or enclosed by screens within them, where chantry priests might celebrate mass for the good of their souls in perpetuity. . . . Large sums of money were . . . devoted to the maintenance of chantry priests, whose duty it was to say mass for the repose of the testator's soul. . . . The character and conduct of the chantry priests must have become somewhat of a lax order in the 16th century."—R. R. Sharpe, *Introduction to "Calendar of wills in the Court of Husting, London," v. 2*, p. viii.

CHANTRY SCHOOLS. See EDUCATION: Medieval: 4th-15th centuries.

CHANUTE, Octave (1832-), American inventor. See AVIATION: Langley and Maxim experiments; Development of airplanes and air service: 1880-1900.

CHAONES, Greek tribe. See EPIRUS; HELLAS: Hellenes.

CHAUUANONS, Indian tribe. See SHAWNESE, SHAWNEES OR SHAWANONES.

CHAPANEC, Indian tribe. See ZAPOTEC, MIXTECS, ZOQUES, etc.

CHAPPE, Claude (1763-1805), French inventor. See ELECTRICAL DISCOVERY: Telegraphy and telephony: Telegraph: 1753-1874.

CHAPULTEPEC, a small hill close outside the city of Mexico. It was occupied by the Aztecs in the thirteenth century; about 1785 Galvez, viceroy of Mexico, began the erection of a palace upon the hill. During the war with the United States, it was the scene of a three days' battle (1847); it is now the residence of the Mexican president. See MEXICO: 1847 (March-September).

CHARAIBES. See CARIBS.

CHARCAS, Las.—The Spanish province which now forms the republic of Bolivia. Also called, formerly, Upper Peru, and sometimes the province of Potosi. See BOLIVIA: 1533-1809.

CHARCOAL-BURNERS, Italy. See CARBONARI.

CHARCOT, Jean Baptiste Etienne Auguste (1867-), French Antarctic explorer. See ANTARCTIC EXPLORATION: 1908-1910.

CHARDIN, Jean Siméon (1690-1779), French painter. See PAINTING: French painting.

CHARES (fl. 3d century B.C.), Rhodian sculptor. See RHODES, ISLAND OF: B.C. 304; SCULPTURE: Hellenistic period.

CHARIBERT I, king of Aquitaine, 561-567. Charibert II, king of Aquitaine, 628-631.

CHARIOT CORPS, ancient Egyptian army. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 2.

CHARIOT RACES, Roman. See CIRCUS, FACTIONS OF THE ROMAN.

CHARITIES

Definition and points of interest.—The term "charities" is commonly used to denote the activities, organizations and institutions by means of, or through which relief is given to the needy. In studying the various forms of relief, four definitions may well be kept in mind: public relief is that which depends upon taxation for its funds, while private relief depends upon voluntary contributions; indoor relief is administered within the walls of institutions, where the recipients must live, while outdoor relief is given outside of institutions, and leaves the recipients free. One should also distinguish between poverty, which is simply the state of being in need, and pauperism, which is the state of depending for the relief of need upon charity, particularly upon the funds of benevolent associations or the public poor fund. The following survey shows the development of charities in a number of countries and from early times. In reading it the student will be especially interested in noting the modern method of educating children out of the ways of poverty, and of keeping up the self-respect of those to whom relief is given.

AUSTRALASIA

1897-1905.—Private charities.—Destitute asylums.—"Australasia has a liberal amount of private charities. New South Wales had in 1900 40 metropolitan and 49 country benevolent associations recorded, with a combined expense of £37,138, which furnished outdoor and other relief to 33,553 persons out of a population of one and one-third millions. The Government aided 65 of these societies to the amount of £24,979. South Australia has one in ten of the population of Friendly societies, Victoria, one in fifteen. There were in 1897 in Australasia 3,306 branches of friendly societies with 276,772 members, or 6.24 per cent. of the population with a revenue of £1,012,608. Of these Victoria had 1,088; New South Wales, 817; Queensland, 328; South Australia, 487; Western Australia, 68; Tasmania, 130; New Zealand, 388. These societies and associations generally have their own independent boards, yet cooperate by exchanging reports and information frequently. . . . Movements toward establishment of 'clearing-houses' are also noted. The Melbourne Charity Organization Society promoted recently a conference which represented 26 charitable societies, which formed an agreement to establish a common register of those helped 'for mutual protection against imposition.' . . . Australasia is well supplied with institutions for indoor relief. In the Commonwealth of Australasia 11,614 were cared for in Destitute Asylums in one year; (including New Zealand), 12,794, at a cost of £308,315. All large centers have institutions for the destitute managed on a practically uniform plan. The government of the colony generally grants half the cost, remainder comes from local sources. Adelaide Asylum (for destitute) answers for the whole colony and the state (South Australia) contributes the entire expense. The cost per inmate is annually about £15. Official salaries take but a small proportion of the income. The condition of admission is a *bona fide* inability to earn a livelihood. 'There is no social stigma attached to the inmates of these institutions. . . . The work of providing a shelter free from the idea of shame for people thus circumstanced is consid-

ered in a high spirit of public duty, and not as an act of municipal or state obligation. [The Australians] are careful not to sap the dignity of manhood and womanhood in their methods of ministering to the needs of those who become destitute. They have not copied the professional charity of the old world in dealing with their unfortunate fellows.' Western Australia had three charitable institutions, two in Perth, one at Fremantle, supported by public funds, with 659 inmates (December 31, 1902). New Zealand has nineteen benevolent asylums for indigent persons, with 1,167 inmates."—C. R. Henderson, *Modern methods of charity*, pp. 308-310.

1920.—New Zealand hospitals.—"New Zealand hospitals, though controlled by local Hospital boards, are liberally subsidized by the Central Government. Partly in consequence of this, and partly because persons of independent property are infrequent, it is very difficult to obtain voluntary support. Large donations are uncommon. According to the Journal of Public Health the Dominion is 'one of the few countries where people are gradually tending to a form of state socialism, and where a resident can easily forget all social responsibility.' With a few exceptions, the voluntarily supported hospital does not exist."—*Charity Organization Review*, Sept., 1920, p. 80.

AUSTRIA

1716-1764.—Relief principles of Charles VI and Maria Theresa.—"A patent of the 17th January, 1724, contains a clear and systematic account of the principles which Charles VI. followed on this subject. (1) Throughout the whole country 'below the Enns' general and particular inspections were to be had several times a year, with a view to abolishing begging. Beggars arrested should be examined, those who did not belong to the place sent home and referred to the local authority, whose duty it was to find work on the roads or elsewhere at moderate wages for those who could do it, and provide maintenance for the infirm. (2) Workhouses were to be set up both in Vienna and in the country, where orphans and other poor of both sexes, in separate places, were to be taught to read, write, and cipher, as well as to do some kind of useful handiwork, such as spinning, knitting, making cloth, or caps, for a small sum. (3) and (4) There was to be a special house for old soldiers, and another for persons afflicted with incurable diseases. (5) Periodical collections were to be made in churches and houses, and the proceeds to be partly distributed among the deserving poor, partly employed in building a new hospital. Future receipts by way of fines should serve to form a permanent fund for the poor.

"Similar provisions are met with in numberless ordinances of the times. In 1716 it was ordered that no marriages should be celebrated, except where the parties could produce from their local authorities a certificate of sufficient means; and if married couples fell into poverty where such a certificate had been issued, that the issuer should find them maintenance and suffer severe additional punishment. In addition, the same authorities were forbidden to erect small houses to be rented by the poor. We next come to a law of Maria Theresa, of the 22nd November, 1754. In this the poor are divided into three classes: (1) Those

persons who have settled in an hereditary territory, and have regularly acquired citizenship, or as inhabitants without residence have followed their trade or profession, and thus helped to bear their public burden till their distress began. (a) It is laid down as to those persons, that the citizens, in case they fall into poverty, shall be cared for in their place of abode at the expense of the city or place, or in hospitals, wherever such are to be found. (b) The mere inhabitants resident in one place for ten or more years, are to be provided for in the same way as actual citizens; but, if they have not remained in one place for ten years, they are to be sent to their birthplace. (2) Those who have been in service to a commune, or a private person, in one place for ten years. These are to be provided for by the local commune, or, if during the whole time they served the lord of the place, by the lord for the time being without assistance from the commune. (3) Those who have been away from their birth-place for ten years, or more, but have in the meantime lived in different places, are to be sent to their birth-place.

"Earlier enactments against begging, and as to the removal of beggars to their homes, were renewed. The patent of the 28th of March, 1750, ordered the erection and endowment of houses for invalid soldiers after the plan of that already built in Pesth, and the Empress by the patent of the 24th March, 1764, had in view the establishment of a foundling hospital. The prohibition to marry, by the Emperor Charles VI., in the case of persons without means, was renewed by Maria Theresa, in the patent of July the 1st, 1764, with the addition that in case of disobedience both husbands and wives should be punished, and the men fit for service sent to the army."—J. F. Kleinwächter, *Austria, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 133-135.

1783-1909.—Provincial laws of domicile.—Principles of poor relief.—Funds available.—Elberfeld system.—"The first attempt at systematic and uniform relief of the poor was instituted in 1783 by parochial relief. Under this scheme poor relief was administered by the priest of each parish, assisted by the elected guardians, and all the accounts had to be published. By a law made in 1789 it was enacted that any person who had resided in a parish for ten years should be entitled to support there, while others should be sent back to the place of their birth. The originally wide scope of parochial poor relief was thus narrowed down to that of a purely local institution. No further legislative change of any importance took place till the law of domicile was passed in 1863. By a series of provincial laws passed between 1869 and 1883 the parochial system of poor relief was entirely abolished in Upper and Lower Austria, Carinthia, Carniola, and Silesia. Special laws in various provinces regulate the nature of the provision to be made, while the law of domicile lays down the general principles of poor relief. Thus, any person who cannot obtain the necessary means of subsistence, either from the members of their family or from any unions, guilds, or benefit funds, upon which they may have a claim, are entitled to assistance, in the first instance, from the commune; secondly, from the district; thirdly, from the province to which they belong. Every person desirous of receiving poor relief must apply for it in person. If the applicant has not a settlement in the commune, the authorities are bound to undertake his immediate relief and ascertain in which commune he has a settlement, from which said commune compensation for his maintenance may be obtained. In the

case of persons having a settlement in the commune *Gemeinde*, it is necessary to prove that their families are unable to support them, and that they have no legal claim on anyone else. The assistance must consist of board and lodging, and, in case of sickness, medical attendance and medicines also. In the case of the mentally afflicted, they must be maintained in a public institution; orphans must be maintained and educated. Persons who die in a state of destitution must be buried at the expense of the commune. The funds available for poor relief are derived from voluntary contributions, and such sources as the poor's third of the property left by intestate secular priests, and certain percentages on the proceeds of voluntary sales. These funds are variously augmented in the different provinces—for example, by the proceeds of theatre taxes and game licenses. Should these sources be exhausted, the commune of origin must make provision. By the erection of houses for forwarding vagrants to their proper communes, a great step was taken towards the suppression of begging. Besides poorhouses and poor relief, there exists in many provinces, by custom or constitutional rule, the practice of assigning the poor, in respect of board and lodging, to each of the resident householders in fixed succession. The Elberfeld system, which is the prevailing type of poor law administration in Germany, was first introduced into Austria in 1889, in which year it was adopted by the town of Trautenuau, in North Bohemia. . . . The success of the Elberfeld system was repeated at Trautenuau. The attention of the Government was drawn to the experiment, and in 1890 the Minister of the Interior published an official account of the system for the information of local authorities. Although the subject was eagerly taken up for a time, it did not receive a wide extension, owing to the difficulty of carrying on the Elberfeld system without clashing with the law of domicile. Nevertheless, each year saw it adopted by some town of importance: for instance, Salzburg (1893), Linz (1899), Innsbruck (1897), Graz (1899)—in every case with satisfactory results."—G. Drage, *Austria-Hungary*, pp. 147-149.—Under a system called the Pharrarmen-institute, Austrian private charitable funds are administered by public officials. According to Mr. C. R. Henderson, there were in 1898, 951 endowments in Vienna, which were officially administered, and in addition 136 private societies whose members devoted large sums to the aid of the poor. In addition the Katholische Lands-Wohlthätigkeits-Komitee in lower Austria, founded in 1900, bent its energies toward unifying Catholic charitable relief and educational agencies, and introducing economy and efficiency in their administration.

1921.—"Poor relief in Austria is based on the home law of 1863. . . . [It] consists of the grant of the necessities of life, including the costs of sickness, nursing and burial, and of education of the poor under age. Claims of the poor to any special kind of provision are not acknowledged. The poor relief comes into force only when no other kind of aid is administered. In the relief of the poor numerous persons are engaged as volunteers. . . . Pecuniary aid is the last to be rendered, nevertheless it has in the course of time become one of the principal forms of help in . . . outdoor relief. The existing institutions for indoor relief which provides homes for the poor and aged, are not numerous enough to receive all those needing them. . . . A person may receive aid in a community other than that to which his parents belonged only after a ten years' residence. . . . The public poor relief finds its complement in in-

stitutions and societies of voluntary poor relief."—R. Bartsch, *Government organization for social aid in Austria* (*Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science*, November, 1921, supplement, pp. 64, 65).

BELGIUM

1650-1793.—Private benevolence.—French Revolutionary reforms.—“The principles of the Belgian Poor Laws have been much changed in the course of time. Until nearly the middle of the sixteenth century the care of the poor was left entirely to private benevolence; neither State nor commune took any concern in erecting or administering charitable foundations, which were governed by irresponsible bodies appointed by the founders.

The [French] Constituent Assembly [whose decrees affected Belgium after the latter had been conquered by France], by the decrees of the 4th August, 1789, and 13th and 10th February, 20th and 22nd April, 1790, abolished tithes, suppressed the monasteries, confiscated church property, but did not immediately do away with the hospitals and charitable institutions, or with those religious orders who devoted themselves to the care of the sick. These were retained provisionally, but the management of the institutions was placed in the hands of lay officers, under the superintendence of the civil power. Private persons might still, however, contribute to the endowment of these charities; but before long, a committee, appointed by the Constituent Assembly to draw up a plan for more lasting arrangements, laid down the following maxims: (1) The Government is not bound to supply all the unemployed with regular work; its task is to make opportunities for work more frequent and more attainable, for it is quite difficult enough to find able-bodied men an opportunity of working. (2) The nation is bound to assist those who, through age or infirmity, are unable to gain the necessities of life. (3) Begging must be suppressed with the utmost energy.

“The work begun by the Constituent Assembly was continued by the Legislative Assembly. A committee was again appointed to decide on the principles which should govern the organization of public poor-relief. Its members, influenced by the tendencies prevalent at that time, embodied in their report of the 13th June, 1792, far more radical opinions than the last, *i.e.*: (1) Every person must maintain himself by labour if he is capable of working; everyone has a right to relief if he is incapable of working. (2) No one can demand more than the absolute necessities of life. (3) As society cannot exist without the labour of its members, idleness and begging ought to be severely punished; but such punishment is not justified if the nation does not offer work to those who have no other opportunity of obtaining it. (4) The support of the poor is a national burden, for the pauper belongs to the whole nation, and not to solitary individuals. This was giving the pauper a legal claim either for work or relief, and at the same time making the duty of providing work or relief compulsory on the nation. The Legislative Assembly was dissolved before there was time to put this new theory into practice; but on the 18th of August, 1792, a decree had been passed suppressing all religious confraternities, even those which were exclusively occupied with the management of hospitals. It was therefore left to the Convention to carry on the work of the Legislative Assembly, and the following vote was passed on the 24th of June, 1793: Public relief of the poor is a sacred duty; society is bound to care for the

existence of its members in misfortune; work must be provided for those capable of it, and the necessities of life for those who are incapable.”—A. Emminghaus, *Belgium, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 240-243.

1792-1910.—Influence of French Revolution.—Bureaus.—Orphanages.—Asylums.—Labor Colonies.—“The local responsibility created in 1790 continues to the present day, and rests with about three thousand local bodies, which act practically without central control. The committees for the relief of poverty are of two kinds, both nominated by the communal councils. By far the more important are the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*, of which, with very few exceptions, one is found in each of the 2627 communes into which Belgium is divided. The work of these is supplemented by the *Commissions des Hospices*, of which there are only 334. With unimportant exceptions, they confine their attention to indoor relief, and their responsibility for this is limited by the capacity of the buildings which they administer. All other poor-relief falls upon the shoulders of the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*. In the great majority of communes, where there is no *Commission des Hospices*, the *Bureau de Bienfaisance* undertakes the administration of all poor-relief, both indoor and outdoor. The history of poor-law legislation during the last century has been little more than a melancholy record of attempts made by those responsible for defraying the cost of caring for the poor to transfer the burden to other bodies. There has been but slight progress in developing such scientific treatment of the difficult problems calling for solution as would lead towards the reduction of pauperism. As a result of the efforts made to transfer financial responsibilities there are now no less than six different bodies which share the cost of poor-law relief. Mention has been made of the *Commissions des Hospices* and the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance*. If these have not funds sufficient, the deficiency must be met from the exchequer of the commune itself.

In order to distribute the burden fairly among rich and poor communes, a Common Fund has been established in each province, to which all its communes must contribute sums varying according to their population and income. The Common Fund constitutes the fourth source from which funds for the relief of the poor are drawn. The fifth and sixth are respectively the Province and the State. The exact proportion which each of these six bodies is called upon to pay depends upon the character of the relief to be given; whether, for example, it is for pauper-lunatics, for the aged and infirm, or for foundlings. . . . The granting or refusal of relief is left absolutely and without appeal to the local administrators of public charity; but in practice no destitute person can be refused admission at least to the quasi-penal labour colonies at Hoogstraeten and Merxplas. The cost of maintenance of those admitted is charged to the communes to which they belong.

One of three different systems [of administration of relief] is generally adopted. Under the first of these the *Commissions des Hospices* themselves conduct, through a secretary, all business matters connected with the *hospices* under their authority. They also appoint all lay members of the staff, but the direct care of the inmates is handed over to a religious order, whose members receive from the *Commission* a fixed salary, usually from £8 to £12 a year. Under the second system the financial management, as well as the personal care of the inmates, is largely handed over to a religious congregation, which furnishes the *Commissions des Hospices* with monthly ac-

counts of the expenditure incurred. The third system, which is universally practised in the case of communes where there is no *Commission des Hospices* (i.e., in seven-eighths of the communes of Belgium), as well as in some where there is one, is to send those persons who require indoor relief to be cared for in convents or in *hospices* situated in other communes, where places are vacant. Many convents in Belgium are willing to undertake work of this kind at fixed rates, which are so low as to render competition from public authorities practically impossible. . . . 'Why,' it may be asked, 'should the Church be willing to undertake this responsibility upon such low terms?' The answer is that the administration of charity is regarded by Catholics as a sacred duty. They consider that charity should be administered by the Church, and that the atmosphere of the institutions in which indoor relief is given should be religious. In order to create this atmosphere hundreds of devoted women consecrate their lives to superintending the *hospices* for scarcely any payment beyond the bare cost of very simple living.

"Orphanages are usually attached to a convent. There, again, remarkably low charges are made. The convent of Heule in West Flanders offers to receive orphans at £3 a year. Other orphanages will accept them at prices ranging from £6 a year upwards. If, however, those who send the orphans to the institutions undertake that they shall remain till they reach their majority, the charges are considerably lower. Some orphanages take the children for nothing, others at fees varying from £4 to £6 per annum. These figures refer to the Flemish provinces. The number of orphanages is much smaller in the Walloon provinces, and the charges made are higher, as in the case of the *hospices*. The low charges are, however, largely accounted for by the great amount of work performed by the inmates. Every convent is a busy centre of industry, sewing, corset-making, glove-making, lace-making, and laundry work being the chief occupations. Much of what has been said about orphanages applies also to lunatic asylums, the control of which has passed almost entirely into the hands of the *Frères de la Charité*, who are willing to undertake the care of the insane at fees which defy competition. For many years a large proportion of the insane in Belgium have been boarded out among the peasants in Gheel, in the province of Antwerp, and Lierneux, in the province of Liège. They live as members of the family, giving such help as they can in field work. . . .

But the practice of boarding out the insane in this manner tends to decline, for the Catholics now receive them into asylums at very low fees. . . . A word must be said with reference to the large labour colonies at Merxplas and Hoogstraeten. These are not under the control either of the *Bureaux de Bienfaisance* or of the *Commissions des Hospices*, but are managed directly by the State. . . . In Belgium vagrancy and mendicity are penal offences, and all persons found homeless or begging and without visible means of support, may be arrested and sentenced by a police court to detention at either Hoogstraeten or Merxplas. [for terms of from two to seven years]. When these institutions were inaugurated nearly a century ago, and also when their organization was remodelled in 1891, it was hoped that they would lead to the gradual reclamation of the vagrant class. This hope has not been fulfilled. So far from being reduced, the number of entries is increasing year by year. . . . During their term of confinement at Merxplas the inmates have the opportunity of earning a small wage, part of

which may be spent in little luxuries purchasable at the canteen, and the rest saved until they go out. . . . An institution such as Merxplas, harbouring over five thousand men—men describable only as human wreckage, governed by military discipline and patrolled by soldiers carrying loaded muskets—is not the place in which an atmosphere favourable to moral reform can be created, no matter how earnest may be the efforts of the officials. These State institutions, in an ever-increasing degree, are developing into permanent asylums for those ruined by drink, for the indolent, the incapable, and the old. . . . So far we have dealt only with poor-relief paid for from public funds. There is, however, in Belgium as in other countries, an enormous amount of charitable relief other than that granted by public bodies. In view of the fact that the various poor-relief authorities administering public funds make use of private institutions in which to board out the paupers for whom they are responsible, it is impossible in Belgium to draw [a] sharp line between public and private charity. Paupers maintained from the public Exchequer frequently occupy the same institutions as people cared for at the cost of the Church or of private benefactors, or even paying for their own board and lodging."—B. S. Bowntree, *Land and labour: Lessons from Belgium*, pp. 467-469, 482-483, 486-490.

1921.—Child welfare.—"In Belgium the preservation of child life is engaging the attention of her statesmen. The organizations existing for this purpose before the war were discouraged by the Germans, but nevertheless in the occupied territory the *Comité National du Secours* quickly grouped them together into the *Oeuvre Nationale de l'Enfance*, and started in addition *consultations du nourrissons* and *gouttes de lait* (baby dispensaries and milk stations) for 90,000 children below the age of three and *continues* for supplying refreshment to 22,000 mothers. . . . Attention is drawn to the lamentable influence which the conditions arising out of the German occupation . . . had on the youth of Belgium. 'These long years of oppression say M. Vandervelde and his colleagues, lived in misery, idleness and deception and of excessive gains easily acquired through equivocal trafficking, have left their mark on juvenile mentality. Side by side with the material restoration of the country there is the more arduous and more essential task of the restoration of conscience.' The *Oeuvre Nationale de l'Enfance* has been established on a permanent legal basis by an act of Parliament."—*Charity Organization Review*, June, 1921; p. 249.

CHINA

B. C. 1122.-A. D. 1912.—Beginnings of institutional charity and social legislation.—Poor laws.—Scope and character of Chinese philanthropy.—"During the Chow dynasty (1122-255 B. C.), the state periodically gave relief to orphans in spring and summer, and during the Han dynasty (206 B. C.-25 A. D.), an emperor ordered state support of neglected children and children of poor families with supply from the public granaries. During the Sung dynasty (960-1260 A. D.) public lands were devoted to the cultivation of grains, which went to fill public granaries established in all districts; buildings were erected for the reception and care of cast-away children. An emperor of the Yuan dynasty (1260-1368 A. D.) in 1271 ordered alms-houses to be built for the shelter of the poor. In 1659, Emperor Sun-chi issued an edict in which desertion or destruction

of infants was severely condemned. He observed therein that it seemed strange to him that while the beasts of the field and the fowls of the air cherished their young, rational beings should want to destroy their daughters; that the destruction of infant life was a blacker crime than robbery, for all creatures were ordained of Heaven to live. In 1711, Emperor Kang Hsi ordered the establishment of founding hospitals throughout the empire. A private hospital that was established two years after this date at Shanghai survives to this day. In 1724, a government alms-house was opened at Canton; and in 1739, Emperor Kien Lung ordered it to feed 4,676 destitute persons. In 1783, the same Emperor reprinted the edict of 1659, condemning persons committing infanticide to be punished with 100 blows and exile for a year and a half. In 1805 (9th year of Kia King), a private charities society, at Shanghai, the Hall of United Benevolence, was formed; since then, it has had an unbroken career. In 1873, a proclamation encouraging care and preservation of infant life was issued by the provincial authorities of Hupeh. The above account of the beginnings of institutional charities and social legislation is far from being a complete statement of what took place during the years mentioned; it is intended only to serve as an indication of the development of practical philanthropy in China. The [modern] law of China recognizes the right to relief of those dependent persons, who may be classed as the 'worthy poor.' . . . In illustration of the activities of central charities societies . . . we may cite those of the Hall of Benevolence of Chefoo: The seventeen forms of activities are (1) Non-interest loans to the poor; (2) Burial facilities for the poor; (3) Waste-paper collection; (4) Assisting shipwrecked persons; (5) Fire protection; (6) Aid to widows; (7) Reception of deserted infants; (8) Free supply of books to the poor who are desirous of reading; (9) Free education for poor children; (10) Orphanage; (11) Industrial school for poor girls; (12) Refuge for the cure of opium-habit; (13) Refuge for the homeless sick; (14) Hospital work; (15) Refuge for the poor in winter; (16) Free kitchen; (17) Vaccination. Chinese philanthropy may be divided into three general groups: I. Charity, in the strict sense of the word, meaning disinterested aid to the poor; II. Mutual Benefit, or the method of relief and protection by reciprocal efforts; III. Civic Betterment, or the promotion of public welfare through voluntary co-operation on the part of the inhabitants. There are other activities which are benevolent in nature, such as the humane treatment of animals, which cannot be included in the above division. But as far as the human content is concerned, Charity, Mutual Benefit and Civic Betterment succinctly describe the character and scope of Chinese Philanthropy."—Yu-Yue Tsu, *Spirit of Chinese philanthropy*, pp. 24-26, 29, 30.

CZECHO-SLOVAKIA

1916-1921.—Charities in Prague.—Care of children.—"Cooperation between different agencies and between private and public agencies was lacking in effectiveness and also in joint action to prevent causes of misery so far as individual cases were concerned. . . .

"Protective care for mothers and infants had since 1916 been organized for the whole city by a benevolent association with broad vision and persistent effort. It maintained infant clinics, mostly in school rooms and in one branch had developed health service for mothers and children. . . .

Institutional care for dependent children . . . varied in value. . . . Children were grouped without sufficient regard to age, mental and physical condition or need for material aid. Responsibility for public care was divided between federal government, province and city; a municipal bureau for the welfare of dependent children was administered in too bureaucratic a spirit. The allowance made for children boarded out in foster homes varied in the communes composing Greater Prague. Correctional institutions for juvenile delinquents were in many cases too far removed from the capital to make possible a very close administrative cooperation. The training they provided was too uniform and insufficiently related to the individual talents of the children committed to them. On the whole, these institutions compared favorably with those in other countries. . . .

"Social medical agencies in Prague were especially lacking in cooperation. . . . Prague suffered from a 'startling' lack of nurses, and both hospitals and ambulatoria were very inadequate. For the physically handicapped, all except war invalids, the responsibility assumed by the government was very slight. In practice neither the city nor provincial governments lived up even to the relatively meager duties placed on them in this respect under the old Austrian law."—M. E. Hurlbutt, *Social care for individuals (Survey, June 11, 1921, p. 344)*.—"The Child Relief, for which there was appropriated in the budget of 1920 the sum of 12,000,000 Czech crowns, is one of the best organized social welfare agencies in the republic. The problem to be faced in this work is how to bring about the best cooperation between public relief and the relief work of various private organizations that have been established for many years and are in most cases doing splendid work. Some of the voluntary organizations have selected special fields of activity. The Ceskoslovenska Péce o dite (the Czecho-Slovak child relief) was organized by the American Relief Administration through the initiative of Herbert Hoover with the object of securing immediate help for children suffering from malnutrition, and has been feeding more than half a million Czecho-Slovak children for eighteen months [prior to November, 1921] and providing warm clothing for 100,000 of the neediest children, and quantities of cod liver oil for tuberculous children. It has established 2,700 kitchens in all parts of the republic and will continue feeding at least 200,000 of the children until the harvest of 1921. The Czecho-Slovak Society for the Protection of Mothers and Nurslings is giving milk and medical attention to babies until their second year, and advice and support to nursing mothers and pregnant women. The society, with the help of the American Red Cross and the American Relief Administration, has established several model milk stations. The Bohemian Land Commission for Child Relief in Prague and Brno, and the German Land Commission with its headquarters in Liberec, Brno and Opava, with their district commissions (in Moravia with the aid of societies for the protection of orphans), pay special attention to neglected, destitute and abnormal children and give necessary care in their institutions. In Moravia and Carpatho-Russia, the sections of the Czecho-Slovakian Red Cross for Child Relief do the same work. . . .

"There is still great need of modern institutions for children but funds are lacking. Of about 15,000 tuberculous and scrofular children in the republic, only 1,512 are cared for in hospitals and sanatoria. There are about 4,000 crippled children in the republic and only two institutions for them. One of

these, the institute of Dr. Jedlicka for crippled children, has done wonders in the short time of its existence. The care of imbecile children is at its very beginning. A central organization will be created in a short time. Great need of an institution is particularly felt in Carpatho-Russia, where 'Grandmother' Babushka is developing great activity to secure an asylum for imbecile children. Some existing institutions for the blind, and deaf and dumb children in Czecho-Slovakia, owing to the lack of funds, cannot meet their demands. A central organization for the blind and a central organization for the deaf and dumb in Czecho-Slovakia will soon resume their functions. There are five institutions in the republic for those children whose moral educations have been neglected. . . .

"Attached to the Ministry of Social Welfare is a central organization for the care of children in the summer months which, in cooperation with various voluntary societies, is sending children from large towns to the country, either to individual families, or to fresh air camps."—B. Stepanek, *Social and economic problems (Czecho-Slovakia)*, Survey, June 11, 1921, p. 352.

DENMARK

1683-1905.—State obligation admitted.—Law of settlement.—Old-age relief.—Poor fund.—"The fundamental principle of the Danish Poor Law is that every destitute person has a right to relief. In no other country is this right expressly affirmed, although in England it is tacitly admitted, as providing for those who are unable to provide for themselves is declared to be the duty of the State. Nor is it only in recent days that this right has been recognized in Denmark. According to tradition, it was conceded in very early times; and it was certainly affirmed, with all due solemnity, in 1683. 'He who cannot maintain himself or those dependent on him'—so runs the law passed in that year—has the right to relief at the cost of the community, providing there be no other person responsible for his maintenance.' The community must grant relief to all applicants who require it; they have not the power to refuse to support those who cannot support themselves. This is a point on which every Poor Law ever passed in Denmark is quite explicit. But although they must grant relief, the law allows them to attach conditions to what they grant. 'In order that the Poor Law authorities may secure the right spending of the relief given, that they may compel paupers to be industrious, and prevent their committing offences and indulging in vices which would defeat the object for which the relief is granted, the said authorities are vested with special rights of surveillance and control over all who receive poor relief.' Further, 'in order that the burden entailed by the universal right to support shall not become altogether too heavy to be borne, the law secures to them'—*i.e.*, to the Poor Law authorities—"the right to exercise very great power over all who receive support.' By the law of 1801, on which the present relief system is founded, it is expressly enacted that 'he who receives relief must submit to the restraints'—"to the hemmings in of his personal liberty,' would be a more exact rendering of the term—"which the law imposes.' And the framers of the law have taken good care to make these restraints, restraints of a kind to which no man submits willingly. So ingeniously indeed, have they done their work, that, when the recipient belongs to the worthless class, what they give with one hand they, in a measure

at least, take away with the other. Under the new system the old right is left intact. Every Dane has still the right in case of need to be supported by the community, if he cannot, or will not, support himself. Only, if he avails himself of this right, he forfeits at one fell swoop many other rights; for, assuming he is not qualified to be a pensioner, he becomes a pauper, and in his part of the world a pauper is a bondsman. And this is only just; for in Denmark it very rarely happens that any one is a pauper except by his own fault. One of the most interesting features of the Danish relief system is the infinite trouble that is taken to prevent any person who deserves a better fate from becoming a pauper owing to misfortune, temporary distress, illness, or accident."—E. Sellers, *Danish poor relief system*, pp. 7-9.

"Every town or commune is primarily responsible for its own poor, but for its own poor alone. If, therefore, a destitute person applies to the authorities for relief, the first question that arises is whether he has, or has not, a right of settlement in their district. This can easily be decided, as the Danish law of settlement is very simple. Every child has a right of settlement in the place where, at the time of his birth, his father—or, if illegitimate, his mother—had a right of settlement; and this he keeps until he has acquired another. Until he has completed his eighteenth year, he acquires a settlement wherever his father—or, if illegitimate, his mother—acquires a settlement; and after that age wherever he himself resides uninterruptedly for five years, providing that during these years he does not receive poor relief. Once the settlement question decided, the authorities have to find out whether the applicant has not some relative bound to support him. Here again their task is no difficult one, for by Danish law the cases in which persons can be compelled to support others are limited. A man is responsible for the maintenance of his wife, and for that of his children, grandchildren, step-children, and adopted children until they are eighteen. He is also responsible for half the cost of the maintenance of his own illegitimate children; and, oddly enough, for half the cost of the maintenance of any illegitimate children his wife may have. On the other hand, he is not responsible for the maintenance of his parents or grandparents, and he cannot be compelled to contribute one penny towards their support. A woman is responsible for the maintenance of her children, grandchildren, stepchildren, and adopted children until they are eighteen; and also for that of her husband. A husband, however, cannot himself claim maintenance from his wife; it must be claimed for him by the Poor Law authorities. Thus no one, unless a married woman, a married man, or a child, can legally have a claim for support on any one but the authorities."—*Ibid.*, 15-17.—"According to the wording of the law, in order to obtain old-age relief an applicant must be 'without the means of providing himself or those dependent on him with the necessaries of life, or with proper treatment in case of illness'; and this, certain jurists argued, when it first came into force, meant that he must be destitute; that he must, in fact, if he had any little savings, spend them before relief could be given to him. Had this interpretation of the law been allowed to stand, the result would of course, have been disastrous, as, instead of any encouragement being offered to thrift, a premium would have been placed on unthrift. The Minister of the Interior, however, being a practical man, made short work of it, promptly decreeing that this was not what the law meant, whatever it might

say. But even when the destitution test was set aside, the Act was still open to the approach of offering no direct encouragement to thrift, as it requires that the relief granted 'must always be sufficient for the support of the person relieved.' Thus the more a man had the less was given to him. In some districts, indeed, the authorities, in fixing the amount of the old-age relief any applicant was to receive, simply deducted from the relief he would have received, had he been penniless, the income derived from his savings. Even in Copenhagen one-half of the income was deducted. In 1902, however, there was added to the law a new and most valuable clause, which effectually put an end to this unsatisfactory state of things by enacting that, in fixing the amount of the relief to be granted to an applicant for old-age relief, the local authorities 'must leave out of consideration any income or house accommodation he may possess from private sources up to the value of 100 kroner (£5 11s. 1d.) [about twenty-five dollars] a year; also that the said authorities may, should they in the circumstances deem it advisable, also leave out of consideration any income which he may have from an annuity, a legacy, a pension, or any dwelling accommodation which he may possess, provided their value, in addition to the support he may obtain from private sources, does not exceed 100 kroner.' Thus the law as it now stands does offer a direct inducement to save, at least until a capital large enough to yield a yearly income of £5 11s. 1d. has been obtained. An indirect inducement it has always offered, it must be remembered; as, unless a man has something to fall back upon, it is not probable that he will be able to get through the perilous years between fifty and sixty without receiving pauper relief. And if he has received pauper relief, even though it be only one penny, during the ten years that precede his application for old-age relief, this relief cannot be granted to him."—*Ibid.*, 67-69.

"Before dealing with the question as to what expenditure is entailed on Denmark by her poor under the new system, some explanation must be given of the sources from which she obtains the money wherewith she defrays it. There is no one rate levied exclusively for the poor in Denmark; indeed, it is only when the money obtained from other sources proves insufficient, that recourse is had to the rates. Every town or commune has a Poor Fund, the money of which is derived from whatever sources the local authorities fix upon, supplemented when necessary by grants out of the rates. In Copenhagen the Poor Fund consists of the yield of a tax on theatrical representations—5 per cent. on the gross receipts if the company is Danish, and 10 per cent. if it is foreign; of a tax of ¼ per cent. on the value of all real property sold in the city; of certain fines imposed by the city courts; and of the income from certain old endowments and bequests. As Copenhagen ranks both as a town and a county, all that it spends on its poor it must provide for itself, out of the Poor Fund and the rates; and it is the same in the case of the 'trading towns.' In other towns, however, as well as in rural communes, there are, in addition to the ordinary poor funds, two other funds, the County Poor Fund and the County 'Repartition' Fund, from which, in certain circumstances, money is obtained for Poor Law purposes. The 'Repartition' Funds owe their existence to an arrangement by which, about a hundred years ago, local authorities commuted their claim on certain grants out of the royal purse for the right to levy a local land tax. The control

of the Repartition Fund, as well as of the County Fund, is in the hands of the County Council. These funds now derive their income from the local land tax, which is assessed according to the yield per acre; from a tax of ¼ per cent. on the yield of all the public auctions held within the county; from certain fines imposed by criminal courts, as well as from registration fees for forming companies, dissolving partnerships, etc., and the interest on certain invested funds, supplemented by yearly grants out of the communal funds. The county funds are devoted to defraying the cost of the relief of the poor in so far as it affects the county as a whole; and also to making grants in aid to communes and towns which have more than their fair share of pauperism to contend against. They supply the money for building and maintaining penal workhouses, hospitals, and other county Poor Law institutions, as well as for the expenses entailed by the precautions taken to prevent the spread of infectious diseases. In Denmark the State pays the salaries of all medical officers, and also defrays half the cost of the inmates of lunatic and idiot asylums. The Free Funds of which mention has already been made, obtain their income from gifts, bequests, the money from the church boxes, and the price paid for licences to give public balls and other entertainments. They are reserved for helping the respectable poor in temporary distress, and can never be used for Poor Law purposes. As old-age relief has nothing whatever to do with pauper relief, the cost of it cannot be defrayed out of the Poor Funds. By the law of 1891 it was enacted that one-half the expense incurred by the communes in connection with old-age relief should be paid by the State out of the yield of the beer tax; but that the amount of the State grant should not exceed 2,000,000 kroner (£111,110). Since then, however, this limit has been removed, and the State now pays one-half the cost of the relief, no matter what the amount may be. The local authorities defray the other half out of the local rates."—*Ibid.*, pp. 83-86.

ALSO IN: G. Strachey, *Denmark (Poor laws in foreign countries)*.

1891-1914.—Loss of privileges incurred by receipt of Poor relief.—Private charities.—"A number of persons receiving 'poor-help' live . . . in their own homes, and others are put out on board, as are also many children whose parents are not at the same time receiving 'poor-help.' [Under the law of 1891] persons receiving 'poor-help' forfeit, temporarily at least, various privileges; they lose their Parliamentary and municipal suffrage; they are not allowed to marry . . . without special permission; and they are subjected to supervision and restrictions of other kinds. . . . The loss of the various rights need not be continuous; for if five years elapse after the receipt of any 'poor-help,' the privileges can be restored. Moreover, support given under certain circumstances and for certain purposes does not carry this odium at all; this is the case, for instance, with help towards medical and funeral expenses, and help given to seriously afflicted persons, imbeciles, the blind and deaf, people suffering from tuberculosis and lupus, and other serious diseases. In the streets of Copenhagen one often sees gangs of men in dark uniform, the inmates of the Ladegaard, a municipal workhouse, who keep the streets of Copenhagen clean. . . . The individuals receiving 'poor-help' are circumspcctly sifted, so that respectable old and infirm people are not troubled, when it is possibly avoidable, with the presence of drunkards and disorderly

persons. Private charity often takes the shape of independent funds or legacies, the revenues from which go either to some institution or to a distinct class or group of supplicants, confined either to a certain locality, vocation, or family. Some of the legacies are very important and comprehensive in their scope, others almost touching in the sentiment of which they are the outcome. There are thousands and thousands of these *Legater*, with a capital ranging from several hundred thousand to a few pounds, and their number is being increased almost every week. There is also a continuous growth in the number of charitable societies, which in innumerable ways help those in need, and amongst the many good features of these societies is the cheapness of their working and administration. As regards hospitals, homes for the blind, deaf, and dumb, and for imbeciles, lunatic asylums, and special homes and institutions for men and women in want of temporary help and care, Denmark yields to no country."—J. Brochner, *Danish life in town and country*, pp. 215-217. —The mothers' pensions law which went into effect January 1, 1914, "provides that aid can be given to mothers whose income is below a certain amount, but graduated according to the number of dependent children, the highest amount being given on account of children under two years of age. It provides also that in certain circumstances the allowance may be given on account of children up to 18 years of age. This law also provides certain minimum requirements as to the fitness of the mother and home conditions. The continuance of the aid is conditional upon the mother not receiving poor relief. Half of the amount of aid is borne by the state and the other half by the commune in which the mother has a permanent residence."—J. L. Gillin, *Poverty and dependency*, p. 376.

1921.—Care of cripples.—"In Denmark there is a centralized society which is concerned with the care of all educable cripples. This society maintains an active orthopedic hospital, an ordinary school and a trade school. The three together form an ideal cripple institution. The State contributes towards both treatment and education."—*Survey (Graphic) Nov. 26, 1921*, pp. 311, 312.

ENGLAND

827-1553.—Anglo-Saxon poor relief.—Part played by the monasteries.—Act of 1536.—Restraint of vagabondage.—"It is a characteristic fact in English history, that although after the union of the seven kingdoms [the heptarchy], the care of the poor was for centuries left in the hands of the Church, the duty was, nevertheless, imposed by the State. The bishop was obliged by a law of King Egbert, A. D. 827, to provide, so far as his means allowed, food and clothing for the poor and infirm who were not able to earn it by their own labour; and we here find for the first time that the title to relief is made to depend upon specific conditions. Again, though in France the Church of its own accord devoted a portion of the tithe to poor relief, in England the same course was made obligatory (law VI. of King Ethelred, A. D. 1014) on the bishop by the civil power. We are not, however, to suppose that the Church ceased to be the voluntary medium of good works, or to stimulate the endowment of foundations for the poor, or gave up the administration of the property of charities."—A. Emminghaus, *England, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 6-7.

"It has been often said and often denied that

the monasteries supplied the want which the poor law, two generations after the dissolution of these bodies, enforced. That the monasteries were renowned for their almsgiving is certain. The duty of aiding the needy was universal. Themselves the creatures of charity, they could not deny to others that on which they subsisted. . . . It is possible that these institutions created the mendicancy which they relieved, but it cannot be doubted that they assisted much which needed their help. The guilds which existed in the towns were also found in the country villages. . . . They were convenient instruments for charity before the establishment of a poor law, and they employed no inconsiderable part of their revenues, collected from subscriptions and from lands and tenements, in relieving the indigent and treating poor strangers hospitably. . . . Before the dissolution of the monasteries, but when this issue was fairly in view, in 1536, an attempt was made to secure some legal provision for destitution. The Act of this year provides that the authorities in the cities and boroughs should collect alms on Sundays and holy days, that the ministers should on all occasions, public and private, stir up the people to contribute to a common fund, that the custom of giving doles by private persons should be forbidden under penalty, and that the churchwardens should distribute the alms when collected. The Act, however, is strictly limited to free gifts, and the obligations of monasteries, almshouses, hospitals, and brotherhoods are expressly maintained. . . . There was a considerable party in England which was willing enough to see the monasteries destroyed, root and branch, and one of the most obvious means by which this result could be attained would be to allege that all which could be needed for the relief of destitution would be derived from the voluntary offerings of those who contributed so handsomely to the maintenance of indolent and dissolute friars. The public was reconciled to the Dissolution by the promise made that the monastic estates should not be converted to the king's private use, but be devoted towards the maintenance of a military force, and that therefore no more demands should be made on the nation for subsidies and aids. Similarly when the guild lands and chantry lands were confiscated at the beginning of Edward's reign, a promise was made that the estates of these foundations should be devoted to good and proper uses, for erecting grammar schools, for the further augmentation of the universities, and the better provision for the poor and needy. They were swept into the hands of Seymour and Somerset, of the Dudleys and Cecils, and the rest of the crew who surrounded the throne of Edward. It cannot, therefore, I think, be doubted that this violent change of ownership, apart from any considerations of previous practice in these several institutions, must have aggravated whatever evils already existed. . . . The guardians of Edward attempted, in a savage statute passed in the first year of his reign, to restrain pauperism and vagabondage by reducing the landless and destitute poor to slavery, by branding them, and making them work in chains. The Act, however, only endured for two years. In the last year of Edward's reign [1553] two collectors were to be appointed in every parish, who were to wait on every person of substance and inquire what sums he will give weekly to the relief of the poor. The promises are to be entered in a book, and the collectors were authorized to employ the poor in such work as they could perform, paying them from the fund. Those who refused to aid were to be first ex-

horted by the ministers and church wardens, and if they continued obstinate were to be denounced to the bishop, who is to remonstrate with such uncharitable folk."—J. E. Thorold Rogers, *Six centuries of work and wages*, v. 2, ch. 15.

1553-1601.—**Local poor rate.**—The church boxes were filled by voluntary contributions. But a policy of compulsion was by degrees introduced, until at last under Elizabeth (1572) a local poor rate was established. This compulsion is not the logical result of a want of means for supporting the helpless poor; but is attributable to the fact that those able to work were so numerous that their case could not be efficaciously dealt with by the repressive policy employed to meet it, and recourse was had on their account also to the church boxes. The object was to keep their numbers down. Warning and punishment of all kinds were employed with this view. Branding, bond-service, death itself were the penalties for refusing to work. . . . The third stage in which the care of the poor is regulated in a systematic manner, and made the business of civic society, was reached in England much sooner than elsewhere, perhaps because a check was sooner put in that country to the indiscriminate method employed by the Church."—A. Emminghaus, *England, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 6-10.

"There are a few bequests for the sick in various places, as at Dartmouth in 1505 to provide the poor with meat, fire, and candles in their sickness, and after their death with shrouds; there are some small money bequests for the bedridden; a few lazarus houses also. Thus, in 1538, John Gilbert left a house for lepers at Newton Bushell, because great numbers were then infected with that disease. A lazarus house may have served almost as a general hospital since leprosy was a common name for several distinct diseases."—B. K. Gray, *History of English philanthropy*, p. 27.

"In the beginning of Elizabeth's reign (5, cap. 3) the unwilling giver, after being exhorted by the bishop, is to be bound to appear before the justices, in quarter sessions, where, if he be still obdurate to exhortation, the justices are empowered to tax him in a weekly sum, and commit him to prison till he pays. . . . There was only a step from the process under which a reluctant subscriber to the poor law was assessed by the justices and imprisoned on refusal, to the assessment of all property under the celebrated Act of 43 Elizabeth [1601], cap. 3. The law had provided for the regular appointment of assessors for the levy of rates, for supplying work to the able-bodied, for giving relief to the infirm and old, and for binding apprentices. It now consolidates the experience of the whole reign, defines the kind of property on which the rate is to be levied, prescribes the manner in which the assessors shall be appointed, and inflicts penalties on parties who infringe its provisions. It is singular that the Act was only temporary. It was, by the last clause, only to continue to the end of the next session of parliament. [See also EQUITY LAW: 1601; ENGLAND: 1558-1603.] It was, however, renewed, and finally made perpetual by 16 Car. I., cap. 4. The economical history of labour in England is henceforward intimately associated with this remarkable Act. . . . The Act was to be tentative, indeed, but in its general principles it lasted till 1835. . . . The effect of poor law relief on the wages of labour was to keep them hopelessly low, to hinder a rise even under the most urgent circumstances."—J. E. Thorold Rogers, *Six centuries of work and wages*, v. 2, ch. 15.

1683-1747. — **Jewish charities.** — **Doles.** — "Scarcely had the Jews begun to settle in England before they took up that part of the responsibility of a civilized community, which consists in provision for its unfortunate members. Jewish names take their place in the lists of charitable donors. Abraham Jacobs (d. 1683), Benjamin Isaacs, Abraham Lopez Pereira, are a few of the many who, having prospered in their life, did not forget to leave some bequest for the poor after their death. But there are more important monuments. The first synagogue was opened in London in 1662; two years later a Spanish and Portuguese Jews' School was founded, and this was followed by an Orphanage, also for the Jews from the Iberian Peninsula, in 1703; a charity for defraying the costs of circumcising the poor, and a hospital for the aged and sick and for lying-in women in 1747. In the first instance these foreign immigrants were dependent on English hospitality, but they quickly began to organise their own charities for their own poor. Their efforts, which attracted the attention and received the support of native philanthropists, exercised in their turn a reciprocal influence through the stimulus they gave to the imitative faculty, and established the first model of one special form of hospital which was to play a considerable part in the social economy of the poor."—B. K. Gray, *History of English philanthropy*, pp. 156-157.

"By far the most numerous charities are those that provide small gifts of money, food, clothes, fuel, or some other commodity. How numerous they were, not only in the sixteenth century, but throughout our history, is suggested by the heavy and largely unsuccessful efforts of the Charity Commissioners to divert them to less mischievous uses. Some specimens may not be without interest as suggesting the social manners of the period. There were three little table boards at Exeter, which were to be covered with linen cloths and the loaves to be set out before the church service for distribution at its close. One, John Peter, left 20s. a year for the poor of each of twenty parishes in Devon. Another gift is to twelve poor women, for frocks of frieze, meat for their bodies, and smocks of new linen cloth. Gifts of fuel, 'sea cole' as it was known, are also frequent. There is a grim feeling in a bequest of shrouds for prisoners who should suffer at Ryngswill at Exeter. An Exmouth charity, of which I have come across no other instance, is that of Th. Browne, mariner, who left £4 for the purchase of two milch kine for the poor of the parish. The gifts are to be bestowed, at Christmas, midsummer, mid-lent, some anniversary or saint's day, frequently on All Souls', and there is an occasional clause withholding the benefit from tipplers and haunters of taverns."—*Ibid.*, pp. 21-22.

1774-1784.—**Society of Universal Good Will.—Relief of foreigners.**—"The Society of Universal Good Will, which in the magnificence of its aim recalls the 'All men free and equal' of the American Declaration, or the 'Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity' of the French Revolution, had nevertheless a very humble origin. The Scots who resided in and near Norwich were in the habit of celebrating the festival of St. Andrew 'with some degree of cheerfulness and merriment.' In the year 1774 it was found that, after paying all expenses, there remained a balance of 3s. 6d. The company being 'in good humour,' supplemented this by a collection of 10s., the money to be kept for helping any distressed Scot in the course of the year. This modest fund was the beginning of the Scots Society, and the Scots Society, founded

in 1776, became in 1784 the Society of Universal Good Will. It had several imitators. The aim of the Norwich fraternity embraced all such poor people in distress as were not entitled to parochial relief. Scots first, then foreigners from other parts of England, then natives of the world. A Turk was relieved in 1781, wanderers from Barbary and Denmark in 1783; and in the course of ten years above a thousand people from no less than eighteen countries. On one occasion a number of Lascars left destitute in England served to punctuate the need for this universalising of schemes of charity. A new want, a new method of relief, a fresh opportunity of imposture, such is the monotonous repetition of history. The president of the Scots Society, it is true, made a popular point when he affirmed that people would not come here from abroad merely to avoid starvation in a foreign land. He carried his audience with him, but the reports of the society are sufficient evidence that what would not happen sometimes did happen; or at least, that if people did not seek in emigration relief from starvation at home they did find by emigration the means of livelihood in England from those who had no opportunity of checking a plausible tale of distress."—*Ibid.*, pp. 160-170.

1782.—Charities for the sick.—"As early as 1782, the Rev. Mr. Dolling, vicar of Alderham, was concerned with the perils of maternity in a parish that had no midwife. He raised a subscription in order to send a woman for three months to a lying-in hospital at Store Street, in London. On her return she attended the labourers' wives at a charge of 2s. 6d., never had an accident, and saved the poor rate. This method of assistance was adopted in numerous other villages, and the services of the nurse were supplemented in some instances by the provision of maternity bags. The garments were made by the children at the schools for the poor. We have already seen how charity needlework acted as a mischievous competition to force down women's wages. Here we have rather to note how the new supply was in response to or created a new demand. Its remote effect on the labour market may have been bad, but in the first place this work was not for sale, and it was largely in addition to the previous manufactures of the village. We meet also with sick clubs for women, in which, for a payment of 1½d. a week, sick pay was given—3s. a week for three months and then 1s. The Rev. William Herringham's plan at Ongar was different. He provided for the use of the sick bed-linen, wrapping gowns, 'a large easy wicker chair with a head to it,' and a candlestick with a pannikin attached for heating liquid in."—*Ibid.*, p. 236.

1782-1834.—Gilbert's act.—Disastrous changes in Poor Law.—Views of Malthus.—Influence of Bentham.—Frugality banks, forerunners of savings bank system.—"It was not until 1782 . . . that the first step in the wrong direction was made, by an Act of Parliament (generally called from its framer Gilbert's Act), which allowed the guardians of the poor in each parish to find work near his house for any person out of employment, and to add to his wages from the parish funds if he had not quite sufficient to maintain himself. This was followed fourteen years later by a far more disastrous piece of misplaced philanthropy. In the early days of the great French war distress was rife everywhere, and one of the methods taken to alleviate it was to establish a system of giving a regular system of 'grants in aid of wages' for all poor laborers."—C. W. Oman, *England in the nineteenth century*, pp. 84-85.—Malthus, the great

economist, "showed himself an uncompromising opponent of the English Poor Law as it then existed [1798]. Speaking of the famous 43rd of Elizabeth [see above] he declares that one of its clauses is 'as arrogant and as absurd as if it had enacted that two ears of wheat should in future grow where one only had grown before. Canute, when he commanded the waves not to wet his princely foot, did not in reality assume a greater power over the laws of nature.' Since public assistance cannot create wealth, it cannot either keep alive a single pauper. 'It may at first appear strange, but I believe it is true, that I cannot by means of money raise the condition of a poor man . . . without proportionately depressing others in the same class.' . . . Not only does he condemn charity in the way of almsgiving, but also the practice of giving work for charity's sake. He admits an exception in the case of education, of which everybody can partake without making anyone else the poorer. . . . He demands the gradual abolition of the Poor Laws and of every kind of systematic assistance which offers to the poor any kind of help upon which they can always reckon. . . . Though he failed to remove the Poor Laws, the effect of his teaching is clearly seen in the Poor Law Amendment Act of 1834."—C. Gide and C. Rist, *History of economic doctrines* (tr. by R. Richards), pp. 135-136, footnotes.—Jeremy Bentham had a tremendous influence upon the change in the Poor Laws. He mocked at the whole system of poor relief. He introduced into English thought a new philosophy—the pain and pleasure theory and the utilitarian principle of "the greatest happiness of the greatest number." These views of Bentham's naturally conflicted with the existing attitude toward poverty. Among the "reforms advocated by Bentham . . . was the reformation of the Poor Laws, on the guiding principle of utilizing the able-bodied pauper and suppressing the mendicant or 'sturdy beggar.' In this relation, he was the first to sketch a system of education for pauper children, and to suggest the institution of 'Frugality Banks,' which has developed into the 'Savings Bank' system of to-day. . . . Pauper children . . . seemed to him to claim the attention of the State in a very special degree. . . . He wished to raise these unfortunates out of the grade of outcasts, to which they had been hitherto condemned, and to fit them for being good and profitable subjects of the King. For this purpose he urged the necessity, first of all, of laying in them the foundation of good habits, which could not be done apart from moral teaching. It was . . . a matter of personal character. . . . There next was needed training in other ways suitable to the circumstances. As being indigent children destined to make their living by some kind of manual labour, it was necessary to instruct them in a trade as means of livelihood."—W. L. Davidson, *Political thought in England from Bentham to John Stuart Mill*, pp. 82, 86-87.

ALSO IN: T. F. Fowle, (*English*) *Poor law*.

1796.—Society for improving the condition of the poor.—"In 1796, Sir Thomas Bernard founded The Society for Bettering the Conditions and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor. The original meeting of the society was at Mr. Wilberforce's Old Palace Yard, and its scope was declared to be 'everything that concerns the happiness of the poor.' The method adopted was to search and 'disseminate useful and practical knowledge with regard to the poor,' and to co-operate in all plans for their improvement. Reports were solicited from correspondents in various parts of the

country; they were to contain first-hand information only, and to be brief and clear. In the general plan of these reports they consist of two sections, one giving information, followed by another containing remarks. Let us, writes Bernard in another place, make 'inquiry into all that concerns the poor, and the promotion of their happiness, a science—let us investigate practically and upon system.' In addition to the work of Bernard and some others in the matters more especially of institutional charity, important contributions to a science of poverty, and consequently of poor relief, had been made by several inquirers, and above all by Eden, in his 'State of the Poor.' The mention of Eden's great work suggests rather the larger science, sociology, than the more restricted matter of philanthropy. We must confine ourselves to the narrower ground, and even in it other interesting suggestions crop up to which we must turn our attention before finally seeking to gather up the result and meaning of this epoch of reflection."—B. K. Gray, *History of English philanthropy*, pp. 278-279.

1818-1919.—Private charities.—Charity commissioners.—Care of children.—Religious institutions.—"The most important private charities in England are endowed charities. These include not only foundations for educational and religious purposes, but also for private alms-houses, for pensions for the aged poor, for relief of the sick, for fuel, food, and clothing, and for gifts in money, or doles. Many of these endowments are very ancient, having been created in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, and even earlier. Thus most of the endowments for private almshouses, which are very numerous, were created in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries during the incipience of the Poor Law, when the Government encouraged such gifts to supplement public relief. . . . In 1818 a commission was appointed to investigate endowed charities, which finally completed its report in 1837. This report enumerated 28,820 charitable endowments, whose gross aggregate income was over £2,000,000 annually and which held in possession over 523,000 acres of land. Since then the number and extent of charitable foundations have increased enormously. It is, indeed, probable that the endowments of the nineteenth century exceed in extent those of all the previous centuries combined. . . . Judicial and administrative control over endowments has in recent years become an important public question. It has been a difficult matter to harmonize many of the ancient endowments with the conditions of modern life. . . . To meet these conditions a Board of Charity Commissioners was established in 1853, and has since then had its powers considerably enlarged. This is primarily a board with inspective and supervisory powers, rather than a board of control. Through a staff of inspectors the commissioners inspect the bulk of charitable endowment annually. The light thus thrown on the working of endowments has of itself done much to effect their improvement. The charity commissioners have the further important power of remodeling arrangements for the administration of a charitable endowment in certain cases. . . . The secularization of the relief system which followed the Reformation did not destroy the charitable activities of the Church. . . . Many of the endowed charities are, in effect, church charities, since the controlling trustees are church authorities—church wardens, vicars, bishops, or other church officials. Some of the ancient endowments were confiscated or secularized during the reign of Henry VIII, but many more remained in-

tact under practical church control. . . . The more recently established charities of the English Church, . . . partake of the broad and enlightened humanitarianism of the nineteenth century, and cover almost every object of philanthropic endeavor. Thus in the field of the care of the sick the Church maintains seventy-four cottage hospitals and eight special hospitals; thirty-four convalescent homes for men and women, twenty-three for women and children, twelve for children only, and eight for gentlewomen—all of these institutions being conducted on a charitable basis. Besides, to care for the sick poor in their own homes the Church has twenty-six institutions which train and send out visiting nurses. . . .

"Among the most successful and extensive charities of the Church of England are those which are included in the 'Reformatory and Refuge Union.' Such is the Children's Aid Society which had aided, up to 1895, over 11,000 dependent and neglected children. Such also is the Church of England Society for Providing Homes for Waifs and Strays. This society has eighty-five homes, all of small size, the largest having a capacity of not more than forty. In 1895 these homes contained 2,250 children, besides which 540 were boarded out in families, 165 placed in service, and twenty-four assisted to emigrate. Finally, the Reformatory and Refuge Union includes the twenty-six reformatory and industrial schools for boys and the nineteen similar institutions for girls maintained by the Church of England. All of these schools are certified by the local Government Board as fit to receive children committed by magistrates. . . . Closely allied to this work is that of the Church Penitentiary Association . . . [which] maintains forty-four 'penitentiaries' or homes for penitent fallen women. In these days they are kept from three months to three years and fitted to return to normal social life. . . . Next after the Church of England, the greatest development of charitable activities among English religious denominations is to be found in the Roman Catholic Church. . . . In the field of general relief work, the most extensive and important organization is the St. Vincent de Paul Society. This society adopts wholly modern methods in its relief work. It investigates carefully all cases applying for aid, it keeps a record of these cases, it co-operates with other relief societies, and it sends visitors to the homes of the poor. The society has branches in all large cities, and in the larger cities many local branches. In London alone there are, for example, twenty-nine of these local branches, or 'committees,' of the St. Vincent de Paul Society. There are several other societies for the relief of the aged poor, like the Benevolent Society for the Relief of the Aged and Infirm Poor, . . . [which] grants pensions to poor Catholic persons above the age of sixty. The Little Sisters of the Poor have as their special object the care of the aged poor in institutions. They are by far the most important organization engaged in this special branch of philanthropic work. They have twenty-eight houses in England, many of them being large institutions. . . . In the field of the care of the sick poor the Catholic Church has in England eighteen hospitals and convalescent homes conducted on a charitable basis. It maintains also eleven societies for nursing the sick poor in their own homes, and a number of homes for incurables. The various sisterhoods devote themselves largely to the nursing of the sick and the education of poor children. . . . The Church maintains in England eleven Poor Law Schools for boys and twenty-five for girls which have been certified by

the Local Government Board as fit to receive dependent children committed to them by the boards of guardians. It has also five certified reformatories for boys and two for girls for the reception of delinquent children between twelve and sixteen, guilty of serious offenses. For delinquent children under fourteen, guilty of minor offenses, the Church maintains twenty-seven certified industrial schools, fifteen for boys and twelve for girls. In England dependent, neglected, and delinquent children of Catholic parentage must by law be committed to these certified Catholic schools. In addition to such schools, the Catholic Church in England has about forty other schools, orphanages, or homes, for boys or girls.

"Among the newer religious denominations in England, none have attempted more extensive philanthropic work than the Salvation Army.

In 1890 General Booth published his book, 'In Darkest England and the Way Out,' in which, after picturing the condition of the poorer classes of London, he proposed his plan of removing the more wretched of them to the country and rendering them self-supporting through agriculture. He estimated that he could make this plan a success if £1,000,000 were donated. The money was soon forthcoming, and this formed the nucleus for the now extensive charities of the Army. According to the report of the English division of the Salvation Army for the year 1900, the Army had in England twelve farm colonies, comprising 25,562 acres, with 650 colonists. These colonies were connected with similar farm colonies in English countries across the sea for the purpose of assisting emigration.

In addition to this strictly industrial work, the Army has many other charities. It has 188 shelters and food depots, providing sleeping accommodations for 14,041 homeless men and women.

Again, the Army has 132 slum posts, and maintains ninety-four rescue homes for fallen women. The children's homes and day nurseries supported by the Army number seventeen.

It has eleven homes for ex-convicts through which 1,626 discharged prisoners passed in 1900 with satisfactory results in 1,393 cases [see also Salvation Army]. The scope of this article will not permit any attempt at description of this vast network of private secular charities. An illustration or two will suffice to indicate their character. An example of such a charity founded by private initiative is the 'National Incorporated Waifs' Association,' or 'Dr. Barnardo's Homes,' as it is popularly called. This organization exists for the rescue and care of neglected and dependent children. It has connected with it some forty different institutions in England which care for over 3,000 children, besides three emigration depots in Canada. Its chief method of child-saving is through placing out dependent children in homes, especially in Canada, and since its founding by Dr. T. J. Barnardo, it has thus placed out over 10,000 children."—*Public relief and private charity in England (University of Missouri Studies, v. 2, no. 2, Dec., 1903, pp. 67-75, 78).*

1834.—Report of the commission on the Poor Law.—Parliament passes bill amending the Poor Law.—A commission was appointed in 1833 to report upon the ways in which the old system might be reformed. The influence of Bentham is clearly shown in the argument of the report. "All men seek pleasure and avoid pain. Society ought to secure that pain attaches to anti-social, and pleasure to social conduct. This may be done by making every man's livelihood and that of his children normally dependent upon his own exertions, by separating those destitute persons who cannot do

work useful to the community from those who can, and by presenting these last with the alternative of voluntary effort or painful restriction."—G. Wallas, *Human nature in politics*, p. 156.—"In February, 1834, was published perhaps the most remarkable and startling document to be found in the whole range of English, perhaps, indeed, of all social history. It was the Report upon the administration and practical operation of the Poor Laws by the Commissioners who had been appointed to investigate the subject. . . . It was their rare good fortune not only to lay bare the existence of abuses and trace them to their roots, but also to propound and enforce the remedies by which they might be cured."—T. W. Fowle, *Poor law, ch. 4.*—"The poor-rate had become public spoil. The ignorant believed it an inexhaustible fund which belonged to them. To obtain their share, the brutal bullied the administrators, the profligate exhibited their bastards which must be fed, the idle folded their arms and waited till they got it; ignorant boys and girls married upon it; poachers, thieves, and prostitutes extorted it by intimidation; country justices lavished it for popularity, and guardians for convenience. This was the way the fund went. As for whence it arose—it came, more and more every year, out of the capital of the shopkeeper and the farmer, and the diminishing resources of the country gentleman. . . . Instead of the proper number of labourers to till his lands—labourers paid by himself—the farmer was compelled to take double the number, whose wages were paid partly out of the rates; and these men, being employed by compulsion on him, were beyond his control—worked or not as they chose—let down the quality of his land, and disabled him from employing the better men who would have toiled hard for independence. These better men sank down among the worse; the rate-paying cottager, after a vain struggle, went to the pay-table to seek relief; the modest girl might starve, while her bolder neighbour received rs. 6d. per week for every illegitimate child. Industry, probity, purity, prudence—all heart and spirit—the whole soul of goodness—were melting down into depravity and social ruin, like snow under the foul internal fires which precede the earthquake. There were clergymen in the commission, as well as politicians and economists; and they took these things to heart, and laboured diligently to frame suggestions for a measure which should heal and recreate the moral spirit as well as the economical condition of society in England. To thoughtful observers it is clear that the . . . grave aristocratic error . . . of confounding in one all ranks below a certain level of wealth was at the bottom of much poor-law abuse, as it has been of the opposition to its amendment. . . . Except the distinction between sovereign and subject, there is no social difference in England so wide as that between the independent labourer and the pauper; and it is equally ignorant, immoral, and impolitic to confound the two. This truth was so apparent to the commissioners, and they conveyed it so fully to the framers of the new poor-law, that it forms the very foundation of the measure. . . . Enlightened by a prodigious accumulation of evidence, the commissioners offered their suggestions to government; and a bill to amend the poor-law was prepared and proposed to the consideration of parliament early in 1834. . . . If one main object of the reform was to encourage industry, it was clearly desirable to remove the impediments to the circulation of labour. Settlement by hiring and service was to exist no longer; labour could freely enter any parish where it was wanted, and leave it for another parish which might, in its turn, want

hands. In observance of the great principle that the independent labourer was not to be sacrificed to the pauper, all administration of relief to the able-bodied at their own homes was to be discontinued as soon as possible; and the allowance system was put an end to entirely. . . . Henceforth, the indigent must come into the workhouse for relief, if he must have it. . . . The able-bodied should work—should do a certain amount of work for every meal. They might go out after the expiration of twenty-four hours; but while in the house they must work. The men, women, and children must be separated; and the able-bodied and infirm. . . . In order to a complete and economical classification in the workhouses, and for other obvious reasons, the new act provided for unions of parishes. . . . To afford the necessary control over such a system . . . a central board was indispensable, by whose orders, and through whose assistant-commissioners, everything was to be arranged, and to whom all appeals were to be directed. . . . Of the changes proposed by the new law, none was more important to morals than that which threw the charge of the maintenance of illegitimate children upon the mother. . . . The decrease of illegitimate births was what many called wonderful, but only what the framers of the law had anticipated from the removal of direct pecuniary inducement to profligacy, and from the awakening of proper care in parents of daughters, and of reflection in the women themselves. . . . On the 14th of August, 1834, the royal assent was given to the Poor-law Amendment Act, amidst prognostications of utter failure from the timid, and some misgivings among those who were most confident of the absolute necessity of the measure. . . . Before two years were out, wages were rising and rates were falling in the whole series of country parishes; farmers were employing more labourers; surplus labour was absorbed; bullying paupers were transformed into steady working-men; the decrease of illegitimate births, chargeable to the parish, throughout England, was nearly 10,000, or nearly 13 per cent.; . . . and, finally, the rates, which had risen nearly a million in their annual amount during the five years before the poor-law commission was issued, sank down, in the course of the five years after it, from being upwards of seven millions to very little above four.”—H. Martineau, *History of the Thirty Years Peace*, v. 2, bk. 4, ch. 7.—See also ENGLAND: 1834-1839.—In 1838 the Act was extended to Ireland, and in 1845 to Scotland.—T. W. Fowle, *Poor Law*, ch. 4.—“The new Poor Law was passed by Parliament in 1834; and the oversight of its administration was placed in the hands of a special board of commissioners, then known as the Central Poor Law Board. This board, which was not represented in Parliament, was continued until 1847. In that year it was reconstructed and placed under the presidency of a minister with a seat in the House of Commons—a reconstruction putting it on a political level with the Home Office and the other important Government Departments at Whitehall. The Department was henceforward known as the Poor Law Board, and continued to be so named until 1871, when there was another reconstruction. This time the Poor Law Board took over from the Home Office various duties in respect of municipal government and public health, and from the Privy Council the oversight of the administration of the vaccination laws and other powers, and its title was changed to that of the Local Government Board. Since then hardly a session of Parliament has passed in which its duties and responsibilities have not been added to, until at the present time the

Local Government Board is more directly in touch with the people of England and Wales than any other Government Department. There is not a village in the land which its inspectors do not visit or to which the official communications of the Board are not addressed.”—E. Porritt, *Englishman at home*, ch. 2.

ALSO IN: M. Eden, *State of the poor, or history of the labouring classes.—First Report of the Poor Law Commission, 1834.*—C. S. Loch, *Charity and social life; Old age pensions and pauperism.*—T. Mackay, *State and charity.*—S. and B. Webb, *Prevention of destitution.*—Current files of *Charity Organization Review.*—G. Nicholls, *History of the English poor law.*—F. Peck, *Social wreckage.*

1869.—Establishment of the Charity Organization Society.—“A second system of charity, characteristic of modern methods and forming a distinct contrast to the relief methods of antiquity and medieval times, is the Charity Organization Society, a private charity. The reform movement in public charitable administration, initiated by the successful Hamburg-Elberfeld system, spread to England where, in 1860, the Charity Organization Society of London was formed. This society aimed at organizing the existing charities of the city, public and private, in order that the work of relief might be carried on in a spirit of harmonious coöperation. It tried to check the evil of overlapping relief, and to repress and prevent pauperism by means of investigation, follow-up work, and restoration of the destitute to independence by self-help. [See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Feeble-minded.] Since 1877, when Buffalo established the first Charity Organization Society in the United States, the system has spread to the chief cities of this country. The first step towards the organization of private relief was the establishment of Relief Societies to take the place of indiscriminate almsgiving by individuals. Then came the period of Associations for Improving the Condition of the Poor. These associations attempted the permanent elevation of those in need, but failing to keep in view this desirable end, degenerated into the practice of giving indiscriminate relief. They were not educational, provided no adequate safeguards against deception, and neglected the supervision of recipients of aid. Finally, comes the Charity Organization Movement.”—F. S. Chapin, *Historical introduction to social economy*, pp. 286-287.

1896-1909.—Report of royal commission.—Increasing pauperism.—In December, 1905, a royal commission, composed of nineteen men and women of distinguished ability and of special qualifications for the service, was appointed in Great Britain, “to inquire—(1) Into the working of the laws relating to the relief of poor persons in the United Kingdom; (2) into the various means which have been adopted outside of the Poor Laws for meeting distress arising from want of employment, particularly during periods of severe industrial depression; and to consider and report whether any, and, if so, what modification of the Poor Laws or changes in their administration or fresh legislation for dealing with distress are advisable.”

After three years of laborious investigation, making “more than 800 personal visits to unions, meetings of boards of guardians, and institutions in England, Scotland, and Ireland,” as well as examining over 1,300 witnesses, the commission submitted an elaborate report in February, 1909. Its findings as to the present working of the poor-laws and the relief-systems of the United King-

dom, and its recommendations for reform, cannot be summarized with any clearness in such space as can be given to the subject here; but there is a startling significance in what it shows of the increase of pauperism and of the public cost of poor relief in late years. It appears from the returns of the local government board that the mean number of paupers in 1906, 1907 and 1908, was at a higher level than it had been for 31 previous years. Excluding, however, these three especially bad years, it is found that throughout the period 1896-1906 there were 24,000 more paupers than in the period 1888-1896, and 7,000 more than in the period 1880-1888. In discussing the report the London *Times* remarks: "Further examination even diminishes the meagre consolation these figures afford as to the results of a generation of effort at reducing pauperism. Comparing the period 1896-1906 with 1871-80, there has been a decrease of 3.9 per cent. in the total number of paupers, but this decrease has been accompanied by a large increase of male pauperism and is due entirely to the large decrease in the number of children, whose numbers have decreased by 18 per cent., and a small reduction in the number of women, whose numbers have decreased by 2 per cent. The decrease in these two classes so affects the total as entirely to conceal an absolute increase of 18 per cent. in the number of male paupers. Even in regard to the children, at any rate during the last 15 years, the decrease has been almost wholly in rural unions, and in the children of widows, and there has been a general increase in the number of children of able-bodied men.

"Further, so far as figures are available, they show a greater proportionate increase in the number of paupers during the working years of life than in the very young or the very old. Taking only the able-bodied in health, we find that in the period 1896-1906 in metropolitan unions the indoor paupers have increased by 38 per cent. and the outdoor by 137 per cent.; in urban unions the indoor by 24 per cent. and the outdoor by 133 per cent.; and in the whole of England and Wales the indoor by 21 per cent. and the outdoor by 49 per cent. In London alone 15,800 more paupers are being maintained than in the eighties, and the rate per 1,000 of the population, which used to be below that for England and Wales, has risen above it."

As for expenditure, it was some £8,000,000 in the year 1871-72, and £14,000,000 in the year 1905-06. Summing up the general situation with regard to this expenditure, the commission says: "We find that, whilst the expenditure per inhabitant has increased from 7s. 0¼d. to 8s. 2¾d. since 1871-72, and is only 7¼d. less than it was in 1834, the expenditure per pauper has increased from £7 12s. 1d. to £15 12s. 6d. in the same period. The country is maintaining a multitude of paupers not far short of the numbers maintained in 1871-72, and is spending more than double the amount upon each individual. The increased expenditure has done little towards diminishing the extent of pauperism. Such advance as the nation has made has been accomplished at an enormous cost, and absorbs an annual amount which is now equivalent to nearly one-half of the present expenditure upon the Army. It may be urged that the rate of pauperism has diminished from 31.2 per 1,000 in 1871-79 to 22.2 per 1,000 in 1896-1905, and this is certainly a matter for congratulation, but it has been the result of the large increase in the population rather than of any considerable reduction in the number of paupers."

This discouraging result has occurred notwithstanding the fact that the nation is spending £20,-

000,000 more in education than in 1831, and £13,000,000 more in sanitation and the prevention of disease than in 1841; notwithstanding the fact "that money wages in the nineties were 10 per cent. above those of the eighties, and 30 per cent. above those of the sixties," and notwithstanding the fact that "there has been a considerable flow of the working classes from the lower paid occupations to the higher paid industries."

The recommendations of the commission include a scheme for a permanent system of public assistance for the able-bodied, which contemplates the establishment in every district of four coöperating organizations: (a) An organization for insurance against unemployment, to develop and secure (with contributions from public funds) the greatest possible benefits to the workmen from coöperative insurance against unemployment; (b) a labor exchange established and maintained by the Board of Trade to provide efficient machinery for putting those requiring work and those requiring workers into prompt communication; (c) a voluntary aid committee to give advice and aid out of voluntary funds especially to the better class of workmen reduced to want through unemployment; (d) a public assistance authority representing the county or county borough and acting locally through a public assistance committee to assist necessitous workmen under specified conditions at the public expense. The report adds that it must be a fundamental principle of the system of public assistance that the responsibility for the due and effective assistance of all necessitous persons at the public expense shall be in the hands of one, and only one, authority in each county and county borough—viz., the public assistance authority. The report of the minority members of the commission—four out of the seventeen—is almost as long as the majority report. It recommends a radical change in the whole system of poor relief. It does not approve the institution of new officials in place of the guardians. The minority consider, however, that "registrars of public assistance" should be appointed by the county councils. Among their duties should be the recording of all assistance given to the poor. As for the problem of unemployment the minority believe that one of the chief functions of a labor exchange as recommended by the majority, should be to dovetail seasonal occupations so that employment would be continuous. Mothers of young children should receive public assistance so that they shall not have to work in order to support their families. Public works should be so arranged by the government as to employ more labor in times of trade depression, and less labor when private business and trade are flourishing. The minority do not approve compulsory government insurance against unemployment, but recommend government subsidies of trade unions which provide for such insurance.

1898-1922.—King Edward's Hospital Fund.—This fund, originally known as the Prince of Wales's Hospital Fund, which is used to assist in the upkeep of the London hospitals, dates from the Diamond Jubilee of Queen Victoria (Sixtieth anniversary of her reign). In order to create a fund for the hospitals of London, King Edward VII, then Prince of Wales, proposed to the general public that in commemoration of the Diamond Jubilee of a long reign, a sum should be raised, which could be used for this purpose. He called especially for new contributors, and desired that the new fund should not interfere with the raising of two other important funds, the Metropolitan Hospital Sunday Fund (the name of which shows its origin), and the Hospital Saturday Fund, raised

by contributions of one shilling each from shop workers. The response to the appeal was generous beyond expectation. The Prince hoped that from £100,000 to £150,000 might be raised yearly, but the first year £227,000 was subscribed and of this £56,800 was carried to a reserve fund for lean years. By 1907 the reserve and contributions had reached a point where permanent organization was necessary, and on the advice of the then president of the fund, King George V, incorporation was applied for and obtained. Under the constitution, the governing body consists of a general council and a president, who must be a brother, son or grandson of the reigning sovereign. It is now [1922] under the presidency of Edward, Prince of Wales, who succeeded his father, King George. The fund is managed on the best business principles. An annual distribution is made on the recommendation of the Distribution and Convalescent Homes Committees, and is used for very definite objects, such as maintenance, reduction of debts, removal of hospitals to better or more suitable sites, amalgamations, equipment, the opening of additional beds, and aid to country convalescent Homes and Sanatoria for tuberculosis patients, who take in London sick. The invested funds [known as the King's Fund] had grown to such an extent by 1920 that £250,000 were applied during that year to tide the hospitals over the economic crisis which had seriously affected their annual returns from contributions. This amount was added to the yearly distribution of £200,000 which is ordinarily made.

ALSO IN: H. C. Burdett, *Hospitals and charities (Year Book of Philanthropy and Hospital Annual, 1910, 1921)*.

1907.—Small Holdings Act. See ENGLAND: 1907-1908.

1919-1921.—Proportion of population in receipt of relief.—Child welfare.—Treatment of tuberculosis.—Relief of the blind.—Health visitors and district nurses.—“The practice of making a census of the persons in receipt of poor law relief which had been interrupted during the war years was resumed in 1920. “The following particulars are derived from that census. . . . The total number of persons in receipt of relief on the night of the 1st January, 1920, was 576,418. This number is 1.5 per cent. of the estimated population. . . . 80.7 per cent. of the men in receipt of relief, 74.9 per cent. of the women, and 10.2 per cent. of the children were suffering from sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity. A further 2.1 per cent. of the men and 0.5 per cent. of the women were relieved on account of the ill-health of a dependent. . . . 311,656 (54.1 per cent.) of the total number of men, women and children in receipt of relief were suffering from sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity. 177,589 (68 per cent.) of the persons in receipt of relief who are classified as ‘Other persons’ *i.e.*, persons *not* suffering from sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity) were children. Widows and other husbandless women having dependent children form a large proportion of the adult ‘Other persons’ who are in receipt of relief. . . . 82,666 (41.5 per cent.) of the 199,086 persons suffering from sickness, accident, or bodily infirmity were relieved in institutions, and 116,420 (58.5 per cent.) were relieved in their own homes. Of the 112,570 persons suffering from lunacy or some other form of mental infirmity, 107,920 (95.9 per cent.) were relieved in institutions, and 4,650 (4.1 per cent.) were in receipt of relief in their own homes. Of the persons *not* suffering from sickness, accident, or bodily or mental infirmity, 79,983 (30.2 per

cent. of the total of 264,762) were relieved in institutions, and 184,779 (69.8 per cent.) were in receipt of relief in their own homes.”—*First Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1919-1920, p. 3, pp. 7-9.*—“Considerable progress [has been] made in the work undertaken by local authorities and voluntary agencies for the physical welfare of expectant and nursing mothers and young children. Peace conditions have rendered possible a certain amount of adaptation of premises, if not of actual building, for the purpose of maternity homes and centers and similar institutions. Local authorities have taken advantage of these improved circumstances and of their powers under the Maternity and Child Welfare Act of 1918 to develop the provision which they began to make before and during the war for attending to the health of mothers and young children. . . . The powers and duties of the Board of Education with regard to children under 5 years of age were transferred to the Ministry of Health as from 1st October, 1919. This order had the effect of placing under the jurisdiction of the Ministry a large number of Centres originally known as Schools for Mothers. . . . The great majority of these Centres now receive children up to the age of 5, and most of them are open to expectant and nursing mothers as well as to children. . . . In one or two towns there are consultation centres opened one afternoon a week and attended by an Assistant Medical Officer, who refers any ailing women and children discovered at these Centres to a central clinic, opened each morning, and dealing with school children as well as with children under five and expectant and nursing mothers. . . . The accommodations for the in-patient treatment of children under five in general and special hospitals supported by voluntary contributions has been supplemented in the course of the development of Maternity and Child Welfare schemes in various ways. In Maternity and Child Welfare Centres which receive a large number of children the Medical Officer examines some who for some cause which is not immediately apparent are not making satisfactory progress. About 12 Centres have provided observation beds in which these children can be kept until the reason why they are not thriving is ascertained and a remedy for their condition can be applied. . . . The problem of dealing with children whose parents cannot make a satisfactory home for them, and who have not become chargeable to the Poor Law, presents many difficulties. To a large extent they are looked after by charitable agencies, who provide homes for them or board them out with foster-mothers, and it is well known that a great deal of excellent work is done by these agencies. To an increasing extent, however, such children are coming under the care of local authorities in connection with Maternity and Child Welfare work, and while the main provision for them, apart from the Poor Law, is still made by voluntary societies, local authorities have not only in some cases themselves undertaken the arrangements for securing to them healthy conditions of life, but have also in still more instances made contributions to voluntary bodies in respect of their maintenance.”—*First Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1919-1920, pt. 1, pp. 44, 49, 50, 51, 53.*—“The provision of treatment for tuberculosis as a benefit under the National Health Insurance Acts . . . [has been changed]. Insured persons . . . will continue to receive domiciliary treatment from their insurance practitioners, but the responsibility for provision of residential treatment for insured, as well as for non-insured, persons now rests with County

and County Borough Councils and not with Insurance Committees. . . . The number of Centres rose during the year [1920-1921] by 183 to a total of 1,780, 1,068 provided by Local Authorities and 712 by voluntary agencies; the Health Visitors at work increased from 3,000 to 3,215, the time devoted by them to these functions being approximately equivalent to the whole time of 1,617; a somewhat larger proportion of births in London and in County Boroughs was attended (during 1910) by registered midwives; and their assistance is now estimated to be available to 68 per cent. of the rural population. . . . Under the Blind Persons Act, 1920, persons so blind as to be unable to perform any work for which eyesight is essential become eligible for old age pensions at the age of 50; County and County Borough Councils are required to frame schemes by August, 1921, for the promotion of the welfare of blind persons in their areas; and a measure of supervision is extended to charities of which a principal purpose is to secure assistance for the blind. . . . The number of Health Visitors at work was increased during the year . . . and the total number of women so acting on the 31st March, 1921, was 3,215. Of these 1,021 were also School Nurses, or held some similar office under the Local Authority, and 1,302 others did not give their whole time to the Local Authority, of whom 937 are district nurses engaged in health visiting in rural districts. Approximately the equivalent of the whole time of 1,617 women is devoted to health visiting. . . . During the year new courses of training in the curriculum prescribed by the Board of Education for the training of Health Visitors were started at King's College for Women, Bedford College for Women, Battersea Polytechnic, Liverpool School of Hygiene, and in Wales, University College of South Wales and Monmouthshire, Cardiff. The qualifications possessed by the Health Visitors now at work are those of a trained nurse (about 74 per cent.), a midwife (about 83 per cent.), a Sanitary Inspector's Certificate (about 18 per cent.), and the special certificate for Health Visitors of an examining body approved by the Department (about 24 per cent.). Most of the present Health Visitors possess more than one certificate, and it is now the practice of the Department to require in the case of new applicants the possession of more than one such qualification, pending the supply of women who have obtained certificates under the new regulations of the Board of Education. The duties of a Health Visitor are not yet of a stereotyped nature. They are mainly concerned with the care of children under five not living in institutions. . . . During the year further efforts have been made to secure universal compliance with Article IV of the Poor Law Institutions Order, 1913, which requires the removal of healthy children over the age of three from workhouses. A few backward Boards of Guardians have still, however, failed to fulfil their obligation in this respect."—*Second Annual Report of the Ministry of Health, 1920-1921, pp. 5, 6, 22-23, 134.*

FRANCE

511-1553.—Medieval relief.—Royal assistance.—Shift of responsibility from clergy to laity.—“In early times the bishops and clergy were the only dispensers of alms to the poor. The first council of Orleans, held during the reign of Clovis, in the year 511, ordained that the whole income of the church should be devoted to the maintenance of public worship, the support of the

clergy and the poor, and the ransom of captives. A later council, held in the same city in 549, ordained that criminals should be visited in the prisons every Sunday, by the archdeacon and provost, who should supply their wants at the expense of the church, and further, that the bishops should take particular care of the lepers. The council of Tours, held in 566, denounces as murderers of the poor, all who shall appropriate to their own use the property of the church; and if they persist in their evil courses, ‘after three warnings, we will all assemble, and in concert with our bishops, priests, and clergy, since we have no other arms, we will proclaim from the choir of the church, against such murderers, the 108th Psalm, to draw upon them the malediction of Judas, that they may die not only excommunicated, but accursed.’ The second council of Macon, held in 585, ordained that ‘The bishops should recommend to all the virtue of hospitality; and to enable them better to practice it themselves, they should harbor no dogs in their houses, lest access thereto should be less free to the poor.’ The synod of Auxerre soon afterwards recommended to the faithful, in order that their devotions should be more acceptable, that they should make gifts to those poor persons whose names should be registered in the church records. In the year 540, the council of Orleans confirmed the establishment of a hospital at Lyons, founded by Childebert and his queen. Before the end of the same century, Paris had established the Hospital of St. Julien Le Pauvre, and Reims and Auterre each possessed a similar institution. Before the close of the next century nearly every considerable town had its hospital, while Paris possessed several. As early as the reign of Charlemagne they were classified for the reception of five kinds of inmates,—the poor, the sick, the orphans, the aged, and children. To meet the large expenditures required for the relief of the poor, the ransom of captives, and the support of hospitals, the clergy received vast benefices. Following the example of Constantine and his successors, the Merovingian kings were most liberal in their grants to the clergy. Clovis, for instance, gave to the church at Reims as much land as St. Remy could ride around during the royal nap at noon, and this grant was made in accordance with the prayer of the inhabitants, who preferred to be vassals to the church rather than to the king. Childebert and his Queen Uthugoth, as before stated, built and endowed the hospital at Lyons, and their example was followed by their subjects, who conferred large sums in public charity. From the reign of Pepin in 752, the first of the second or Carolingian race of kings, the clergy ceased to be the exclusive almoners to the poor. Under Charlemagne, in 809, the following became the law of the kingdom: ‘The counts must take care of the poor; each must feed his own poor. Let no one despoil the poor of the little which remains to him. The widow, the orphan, and the helpless, are placed under the protection of the king, as they are under God. They should enjoy legal peace, and the cause in which they are interested should be judged with especial care and diligence. Advocates should be given to the poor to prevent oppression and deception by the rich. To insure the execution of these charitable measures, *missi dominici*, charged with full powers, will go forth, and visit all parts of this vast empire.’

“Notwithstanding these enactments, the church continued to be the source from whence flowed the streams of public charity, and Charlemagne himself was prodigal in his gifts. During

the wars and confusion which followed the death of that monarch, all organized institutions for the relief of the poor had nearly disappeared. On the approach of the year 1000, which in the popular mind was fixed upon as heralding the end of the world, and to be preceded by wars, famine, and the prevalence of the *feu sacré* or St. Anthony's fire, large sums were bestowed in public charity, while wills and deeds in favor of hospitals and other charitable institutions were headed by the inscription, '*Adventante mundi vespero.*' With the crusaders came the diseases incident to large armies thrown upon a foreign shore without commissariat or discipline, and exposed to the vicissitudes of climate, and the pangs of hunger and thirst. The principal diseases thus brought were the leprosy and scurvy, and scarcely a town or village was without some kind of hospital or refuge for patients afflicted with the disorder first named. In the twelfth century, according to official statements, no less than nineteen thousand hospitals and retreats were opened in Europe for lepers. With the increase of these establishments came abuses in the administration of funds, and consequent edicts in favor of reform from the councils of Paris held in 1212, and from those of Arles and Ravenna held during the same century. Upon the complaint of Durant, Bishop of Mende, the council of Vienne, held in 1312, appointed laymen to aid in managing the hospitals and public establishments, called Clementine, in honor of Clement V., who presided over the council. It does not appear that the poor gained by the change of organization, as frequent edicts to check flagrant abuses are found during the following centuries. In a royal edict dated at Fontainebleau, December 15, 1543, we read: 'As we have been informed of the great disorders which exist in the lazarettoes and leproseries founded during past ages in our realm by our predecessors, kings, dukes, counts, and other seigneurs, as well as by many other devoted and faithful Christians, cities, chapters, and religious communities, of which the funds have been perverted, the title-deeds and charters lost or stolen by the administrators and governors of the same, who persecute and strangle the sick poor and lepers, and otherwise treat them so cruelly that they are compelled to quit the place and beg through the surrounding towns and villages, and besides do in other ways misapply the revenues, goods, and inheritances of the said hospitals, bequeathing them to their children, relatives, and friends, and other enormous abuses; now, therefore, I give to the bailiffs, seneschals, and judges, the supervision of the said hospitals and lazarettoes, with power to remove the said administrators.' These measures having been found insufficient, Francis I. in 1544 established the '*Bureau Generale des Pauvres,*' which was charged with the duty of levying an annual tax, called '*tax d'aumone,*' or poor-tax, on all princes, lords, towns, and landholders. An edict of Henry II., dated in 1547, ordains that 'Each inhabitant of Paris shall pay a special tax to meet the wants of the poor. But the weekly collections and gifts received in each parish for the relief of the poor, almost innumerable in Paris, are so much diminished, and come in most part from persons in easy circumstances, burghers, and inhabitants of our now cold-hearted city, and it being inconvenient and impossible to continue longer the distribution of alms to the said poor, which have hitherto been weekly distributed,—a matter which causes us great regret and displeasure,—Parliament shall appoint commissioners who shall receive the alms and gifts which all liberally-disposed persons shall be in-

clined to give.' By an edict dated in 1553, the general supervision of all the hospitals in the kingdom was given to the grand almoner of France. A few years later Charles IX. authorized the appointment of a joint commission of the clergy and laity to administer the public funds. The gradually increasing influence of the laity in the administration of public affairs, as will be seen by reference to past legislation, is strikingly shown by the act of Henry III., in which it was provided, 'That none shall hereafter be commissioned as administrator for the government of the goods and revenues of the lazarettoes and hospitals, other than simple burghers, tradesmen, and laborers, and not ecclesiastics, gentlemen, archers, public officials, their followers, or persons by them introduced.'—W. R. Lawrence, *Charities of France in 1866*, pp. 14-18.

1532-1873.—Grand Bureau des pauvres.—Bureau of Charity.—'The Grand Bureau des pauvres was the name of the Charitable state institution which corresponded in the capital at the close of the *ancien regime* to our *Assistance publique* today. The origin of the institution is unknown to us and the men of the eighteenth century were no better taught, upon this subject. We find in a memoir, of which the author is perhaps M. U. Tillière, substitute procureur général, who was specially charged towards 1750 with the direction of the charitable establishments, that the Grand Bureau owed its establishment to the necessity which was found at the commencement of the century to take some measures for the relief of a considerable multitude of the poor who begged. In fact, we find an order of the parliament published April 22, 1532, by which the court in forbidding healthy mendicants to beg, ordered that all the mendicants should be arrested that the healthy should be employed in the public works, that the sick and the healthy should be put in different hospitals, that to furnish food and maintenance for both, there should be made a public collection of which the proceeds should be placed in the hands of those who were deputed to take care of the said poor. Charity under the *ancien regime* was always considered as an affair of the police. The occupation of the government was to assure public order, and not to relieve individual miseries. The procureur général had in his department the surveillance and direction of the charitable establishments, notably of the Grand Bureau of the poor, which comprehended three establishments, each of which responded to a distinct end, which possessed a sufficiently large autonomy, but which were under the authority of a common chief, the Procureur Général of the Parlement of Paris, which had a common house, an administration in common, officers in common. . . . These are, the Grand Bureau, properly so-called, which distributed regular resources to the unfortunate, the hospice of the Petites Maisons which received aged indigents and the insane; the hospice of the Trinity which gathered the children, orphans without father or mother, or both, and taught them an occupation. Relief in the course of the seventeenth century could not exceed 5 sous a week for children and 8 sous for adults. In the eighteenth century these last were made the objects of a generous measure; the weekly allocation that they might receive was raised to 10 sous. But that was a maximum that all the poor could not obtain. The relief afforded by the Grand Bureau was insufficient and precarious and if one thinks how little effect would be produced to-day by five or ten francs distributed by the bureau of charity one will understand that the official bureau was not able to struggle against the contemporaneous misery and that there were con-

stituted a certain number of private and local organizations, the parochial companies for example. Mediocre though the alms was, however, many poor, many unfortunates sought for it. The Grand Bureau could not satisfy all the demands—the budget, and still more the regulations forbade. Each parish received an annuity (yearly allowance) which it could use as it would. The number of the poor was estimated in advance, probably each year, by the Procureur Général of each quarter (of the city), figured on the list with a pre-determined contingent. Be the misery more or less, that was of little import. The postulants, whatever their distress, whatever their merit, were reduced to wait for relief until a vacancy occurred. They waited by seniority, if they could not secure favour, and the correspondence shows that favour played as great a part at the end of the eighteenth century as in our day. The number of the inscribed poor was 2,000 at the end of the seventeenth century, in 1690 it was reduced by half. In 1717 it was 1,181, in 1731 it was about the same. The figures are derisory if one thinks of the population of Paris at that time.”—Translated from L. Cahon, *Grand bureau des pauvres*, pp. 12, 18-19.

Under the authority of the Procureur Général and dependent on the Grand Bureau were also the Petites Maisons. The Petites Maisons were designed for the care of the sick poor, the very aged poor, and the insane. They apparently were not well managed, and many abuses crept in. The Trinity was a hospice for orphans where 100 boys and thirty girls were received, and kept until they had learned a trade. This refuge is described as partly convent, partly prison, partly a place of apprenticeship, more singular and more defective than even the Petites Maisons. The Bureaux de Bienfaisance (Bureaus of Charity), establishments, charged with relief at the domicile were created as to cantons, by the law of the year V, and as to communes by that of the year VIII. The law of May 21, 1873, regulates the rights and duties of the administrative commission which governs them; the functions of the members are gratuitous. The resources of the bureaus consist in gifts, collections, legacies, subscriptions, taxes on spectacles, balls and concerts. The poor may receive temporary or annual relief. The injured, the ill, mothers in childbirth and nursing mothers, orphans, have the right to the first only; the second is reserved to the blind, the infirm, the aged of both sexes over 65 years; fathers overcharged with families of small children. These last must prove that they send their children to school, and that they have had them vaccinated. Outside of the allowance of bread, meat, soup and so on, of fire wood, bedding and clothing and small sums of money that the bureaus distribute to the poor, they also look for work for those who are healthy, they furnish to those who are ill, and who prefer home treatment to that of the hospitals, a doctor and medicines. Finally they give outdoor relief to the aged who desire to conserve their family life. As for the composition of the commissions of the hospitals and of the bureaus of charity since the law of 1873 the oldest curé of the commune is a member by right, by the law of August 5, 1870, the presence of ministers of religion in these commissions ceased to be obligatory, although they may be elected or nominated. In virtue of that law the administrative commissions of hospices, hospitals and bureaus of charity are composed of the mayor and of six members. Two members of each commission are elected by the municipal council. The four other members are named by the prefect. In Paris there are twenty bureaus, that is to say one

for each arrondissement. . . . From January 1, 1876, to December 31, 1873, gifts made to the bureaus were valued at 65,293,985 francs and 2,516,977 francs of income.—From *La Grande Encyclopédie*, v. 2, pp. 16, 17.

1796-1851.—Effect of the Revolution.—Treatment of begging.—“Even in the second year [1793-1794] of the Republic some advance was made by deciding where a poor man might ask for relief, and by imposing the duty of giving it on that commune in which the needy person was settled. Then came the laws of the year V., which gave back the property of the charitable institutions, and re-established the ‘Bureaux de Bienfaisance’; finally the law of the 7th Frimaire, V. [November 27, 1796], which, in connection with the royal orders of the 31st October, 1821, and the 6th of June, 1830, and, lastly, with the law of August 7, 1851, forms the foundation of the whole arrangements of the present time. For Paris itself there is an especial legislation. . . . Begging is forbidden, and has been so for centuries. According to resolutions of the Parliament of Paris, of the 29th August and 24th October, 1596, hanging or strangling, without any form of trial, was the punishment for beggars who were caught in Paris after 24 hours. Orders from 1764 to 1777 threatened beggars with the galleys. At last, in 1808, a decree of July 5th ordered that every department should have a ‘dépôt de mendicité’ which, however, has never been completely carried out. Sometimes one of these dépôts, or workhouses, is appointed for several departments, and they have been already established for 59 departments. In 14 more, measures have been taken for establishing them.”—M. Block, *France, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 204-211.

1908.—Lack of public charity.—Private charity.—Assistance Publique.—Bureau de bienfaisance.—Semi-official status of pawnshops.—“The French have this constant incentive to charity: their poor are always with them. There are no Boards of Guardians to look after them, and no workhouses into which they can be put out of sight. There are a few almshouses, or *hospices*, like those at Bicêtre and Nanterre, near Paris, among charitable public institutions, but what are such drops of dew to the thirst of the desert? To the penniless multitude who cannot, or will not, work, there is nothing but private charity or the prison. The blind, the paralysed, the armless and legless plead for alms at church doors and in the public places. Mendicity in public is officially forbidden and is punishable, but it is officially recognized that the cheapest way of dealing with the problem of pauperism is to leave private charity to deal with it. The State cannot afford to be generous with its prison accommodation, which is very inadequate. The tramp who steals something, or breaks a window, in order to get food and a roof over his head in winter, is regarded as an inconvenient humorist. Life in common, which is the rule of French prisons in the case of petty offenders, makes the treatment much the same as that of an English workhouse—possibly more genial; but the honest beggar cannot, by merely wishing it, get himself arrested and admitted as a guest in a State hotel, where there is nothing to pay. He must in some way make himself a public nuisance in order to enforce his claim. To the honour of the French be it said that they have a large stock of private charity for daily use. They are easily moved by the appeals of misery that come before their eyes, and there is a strong sentiment throughout the country against driving a beggar from the door, who only asks for bread.

Such a thing as a poor-rate would be bitterly resented by the public, who would never believe that the money so raised would find its way to those in greatest need of it. They would suspect the official machine of oiling its wheels too freely. . . .

"In the way of official charity there is the permanent organization of Public Assistance under State direction. This keeps up hospitals, takes charge of foundlings and abandoned children, most of whom are placed with peasants and are brought up to agricultural work, buries the pauper, and in other ways performs those unavoidable offices of charity which every State is bound to accept. If the *Assistance Publique* depended upon voluntary gifts, it would not get much; therefore, in addition to what the Budget allows it, it takes a good deal with or without leave. A rather heavy toll, amounting to nine per cent., is levied upon the gross receipts of all theatres (subventioned or not) and other places of amusement. The money that changes hands at racecourses, under the legalized system of betting known as '*Le pari mutuel*,' is also laid under contribution by the Public Assistance, and in this way bad habits are made to serve philanthropic purposes. Religion has always been in France the principal driving force of charitable work. It formed habits of private charity among the people by its influence in the course of ages, and many of those who now repudiate all religious doctrine are faithful to transmitted habits which were a gradual deposit of religion upon the sentiment of generations. The religious orders that devote their efforts mainly to practical charity, such as Les Filles de Saint-Vincent de Paul (popularly known as Sisters of Charity) and the Little Sisters of the Poor, have done a vast work in the past to relieve human suffering and wretchedness, and this is still continued on a reduced scale, and within the narrow limits now tolerated. The series of measures directed against religious orders of late years, inspired in the main by the motive of political reprisals, has had, among other effects, that of increasing the sufferings of the poor, who, victims of evil chance or of their own mistakes, flaws, and vices, have no hope left but in human charity. In all churches collections are regularly made for the poor, the distribution of the money thus obtained being left to the discretion of the *curé*, and in most of the communes throughout the country there is a lay organization called a *Bureau de bienfaisance*, under the superintendence of the mayor, for the alleviation of local distress. In Paris there is one in every *arrondissement*. Strange as it may seem, the pawning system in France is in a general sense one of the branches of Public Assistance, although under the direct control of local authorities. The pawnbroker, strictly speaking, does not exist in the country. If he tried to ply his trade in the English manner, he would be prosecuted as a usurer. The Mont de Piété, the establishment where money is advanced on pledges under official control, is in theory a philanthropic one and a continuation of the charitable banks which, under the name of *Monti di pietà*, appeared in Italy in the fifteenth century. In every town of importance there is a Mont de Piété, the capital needed for making advances on pledges being derived from loans, donations, and occasionally subventions. The rate of interest charged throughout the country is not uniform. In Paris it is nearly eight per cent., whereas at Rouen it is more than nine, and at Angers only $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. When the interest is so low as in the last case, it is obvious that the working expenses are charitably provided for. The theory is that the charges should never exceed the interest on money borrowed and what is sufficient

to cover working expenses. Should there be a margin to the good, the poor must benefit by it. The system reduces the evils inseparable from pawning facilities to a minimum, and is incomparably better than the English one, which is an abusive traffic upon distress and providence. Not that the French system is free from abuses. The rule of the Mont de Piété is never to advance more than two-thirds of the realizable value of the articles pledged, and as the corporation of official valuers (*commissaires-prieurs*) connected with the Mont de Piété are liable for the consequences of their errors, their appraisal of the value is usually so low that outside speculators whose business is to buy pawntickets have long been in existence. They undertake to sell the tickets again to the owners of the pledges after a stipulated lapse of time, but the interest they charge for the accommodation is very different from that of the Mont de Piété. In point of fact, those who have recourse to these traffickers rarely redem."—E. H. Barker, *France of the French*, pp. 244^a247.

1920.—Ministry of assistance, thrift and hygiene.—Mutual agreement with Italy for the care of the poor.—Education of dependent children.—"By a decree of January 20, the departments of public Assistance, health and thrift were grouped together to form a new ministry [the Ministry of Assistance, Thrift and Hygiene], in the same year an agreement has been arrived at between France and Italy which places subjects of either country sojourning in the other's territory on the same footing as to relief as the natives themselves, and provides for the adjustment of points in dispute and for the reimbursement of pecuniary outlay."—*Charity Organization Review*, June, 1920, p. 161.—"In France the actual surgical treatment for crippled children is provided for much in the same way as in the United States and England, but we may note the open-air hospitals on the seacoast at Berck near Boulogne."—*Charity Organization Review*, January, 1921, pp. 56, 57, 58.—"*Enfants assistés*, ordinary children of the rate are placed with the peasantry . . . on the other hand the *pupilles de la nation*, orphans of men fallen in the war, are given opportunities of being apprenticed to trades or sent to technical schools and so have a wider choice. . . . Experience gained during the war and reinforced by American medical opinion, through the Red Cross agencies . . . has given a fresh impetus to the crusade against tuberculosis. Provision for the establishment of dispensaries was made by law in 1916 and supplemented by another in 1920 which requires each department, within an interval of five years, either to erect a sanatorium for tuberculosis cases, or to provide for their admission into private sanatoria."—*Charity Organization Review*, July, 1920, p. 22-23.

1921.—National institutions.—Coöperation of public and private relief.—Functions of bureaux de bienfaisance.—"Ten Charitable institutions in France are termed national because . . . they are under the Ministry of Assistance, Thrift and Hygiene. Two are for the blind, three for the deaf and dumb, one for the non-pauper insane, two for convalescents, one for the aged, and one for workmen injured in accidents. Thus, with one exception, all have their function in providing for classes which require special treatment. . . . The bonus which raised the allowance of the aged and of large families from five francs to fifteen francs was continued for a year. . . . A study . . . made for the Société pour l'Etude de l'assistance by M. Charles Voigt states that in most of the

social legislation . . . beginning with the law of 1893 instituting free medical relief, a place has been found for co-operation between private and public relief, and that in 1911 a model by-law was drawn up to facilitate such co-operation. . . . The creation of new branches of the Assistance Publique . . . has gradually reduced the functions of the Bureaux de Bienfaisance to dispensing relief at home and administering legacies bequeathed to the poor. For though they are a branch of the Assistance Publique, nine-tenths of their resources are derived from private sources."—*Charity Organization Review, August, 1921, p. 106.*

GERMANY

9th-10th centuries.—Early laws.—"At a council held at Mainz in A. D. 847 it was decreed that the tithe, which every Christian should pay to his parish church must be divided into four parts, of which one part must be devoted to the relief of the poor. To the bishop was committed the task of the oversight of the administration of relief throughout his diocese; upon him was the responsibility of a firm control laid. Laymen who were guilty of usurpation of the Church's property were to be excommunicated. Also the king was petitioned to interpose against the oppression of poor freemen, and to defend the churches and their possessions as his own property. At a parliament held at Mainz in A. D. 851 these decrees of the council were promulgated as laws of the realm. . . . In the tenth century, under the firm rule of the Saxon Kings, the true founders of the German Empire, we find a greatly improved condition of the Church. At this time many of the bishops were men not only of great influence in affairs of State, but also men of real piety, who cared to the utmost of their ability for the poor, saw to their needs, and frequently fed them at their table and maintained them in their own houses. What the bishops did in the large towns they directed the clergy to do in their various parishes. From their income, derived from tithes and oblations, they must support the poor and those unable to work; they must supply the needs of widows and orphans; they must also provide food and shelter for wayfarers. Though the proportion of the income of the Church to be devoted to the poor is not stated, it was probably that ordered by Charlemagne. A survey of this period gives the impression that the bestowal of charity was becoming more and more a matter of personal feeling—indeed, of personal piety—and that, consequently, it was in practice less and less governed by any regulations."—W. E. Chadwick, *The Church, the state, and the poor*, pp. 38-30.

1497-1616.—Early Bavarian legislation.—"In Bavaria, as in other parts of Germany, the legislation . . . in force [in 1873] on the subject of the poor may be traced to the laws of the German Empire, more especially to a resolution of the Diet at Lindau in 1497, and the police regulation of the Diet at Lindau in 1497, and the police regulations of the following century. By the resolution of the Diet none were allowed to beg except poor and feeble persons, and children of beggars were to enter a craft or service of some kind, as soon as they were capable of earning their bread. The Governmental police regulations above mentioned enact that every commune should maintain its own poor, which, however, was understood to mean that the different communes were to allow such of their own poor as were incapable of work to collect alms within their limits, and were also to admit them to the local asylums. Overburdened districts

might grant certificates to such poor as they were unable to support, giving them leave to solicit alms elsewhere; but with this exception strange beggars were not tolerated. The code of 1616 for Upper and Lower Bavaria embodied these provisions with some additional enactments. In the first place, the settlement of the poor was regulated by reference to birth or residence; moreover the certificate system was so modified that begging might be authorized over the whole judicial district, but the authorities were instructed not to give certificates without careful inquiry, and to review all the cases every year. Almsgiving was not made compulsory; but collections in churches were to be set on foot, and the duty of charitable works was to be enforced from the pulpit. It was furthermore ordered that the authorities should exercise a diligent supervision of the administration of relief in asylums and elsewhere, and should revise accounts. Lastly, the common people were required to keep their children employed in learning, labour, or service, or in case of difficulty to inform the authorities, who were thereupon to provide the requisite assistance. It was in general terms the duty of those in authority to make sure that young unmarried persons hired themselves out, and that older persons, idle and without means of support, were kept to work."—Makowiczka, *Bavaria, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 118-119.

1684-1748.—Edicts of Frederick the Elector and Frederick the Great in Prussia.—National code.—"An ordinance of Nov. 18th, 1684, only laid down in general terms that every commune should, as far as possible, provide for its own poor. This was followed on the 10th of April, 1696, by an edict of the Elector, Frederick III., the chief purport of which was to secure unconditional admission to refugees from France and the Palatinate, and to all those whom war or religious persecution had driven from their homes, while gipsies and beggars were not allowed to cross the frontiers; but which at the same time ordered that the judicial authorities of each district should provide for beggars born within their limits. Should this be a greater burden than the locality could bear, unions were ordered to be formed, so that different districts should be obliged to provide for their poor in common. Ordinances issued on the 18th March, 1701, and the 10th of September, 1708, enlarge and define the obligation of relief and the procedure to be followed. The able-bodied poor were to be set at work, alms were to be given to those only partially able to support themselves, while such as were absolutely incapable of work were to be provided with lodging and general relief in poor-houses, orphan asylums, and hospitals. The rule was laid down for the benefit of these last institutions in particular, that in case of need different independent places and districts should combine. In towns the acquisition of civic rights, admission into a guild, or residence for ten years, gave a claim to support. If voluntary donations were insufficient for the purposes of relief, the law went so far as to invest the magistrates with the right, subject to certain conditions and regulations, of assessing and levying contributions in proportion to the means of the contributors. Under Frederick the Great a more detailed system of public relief was introduced. An edict of the 28th of April, 1748, declaring how the real poor should be provided for, and wilful beggars punished and kept at work, while in general no beggars should be tolerated, ordered that funds for the poor should be everywhere established, increased the severity to be used towards idlers and vagabonds, and laid down

that foreign beggars should be banished from the country, natural subjects being sent to their own district, that is, to the locality in which they were born, or had resided, or maintained themselves for the last three years. . . . The most important regulations as to public relief, the so-called principles of the National Code, occur in Title 19, Part 6, and are as follows: Sec. 1. It is the business of the State to take measures for the maintenance and care of those citizens who are not able to procure their own subsistence, nor to obtain it from such other private persons as especial laws oblige to afford it. Sec. 2. Those who only want means and opportunity to earn subsistence for themselves and their families, shall have such work given them as is suited to their strength and capacity. Sec. 3. Those who are unwilling to employ the means of earning their own subsistence, from laziness, love of loitering, or other irregular habits, shall be held to useful labour under the requisite supervision by force and punishments. Sec. 4. Foreign beggars shall not be allowed to enter or remain in the country, and if they find their way in in spite of this prohibition, they shall be immediately expelled. Sec. 5. Native poor shall be equally forbidden to beg, but shall be removed to the place to which they belong, and in which, according to the regulations of this Title, provision is to be made for them. Sec. 6. It is the right and duty of the State to take measures to prevent its citizens being in a state of destitution, and to stop excessive extravagance. Sec. 7. The State shall not tolerate practices which give encouragement to mischievous loitering, especially among the lower classes, or which interfere with the growth of industrious habits. Sec. 8. If any foundations exist with the object of promoting and encouraging mischievous inclinations of the kind in question, it is the right of the State to put an end to them, and to apply their revenues for the good of the poor. Sec. 10. Town and village communes are under the obligation of maintaining such of their members and inhabitants as have fallen into a state of poverty. Sec. 14. It is the duty of heads of corporations and communes to inquire into the reason why their members have sunk into poverty, and to give timely information of the same to the authorities with a view to their relief. Sec. 15. All poor and destitute persons whose subsistence cannot be procured in any other way are to be taken care of by the public authorities of the particular district, irrespective of rank or general judicial status."—E. Bruch, *Prussia, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 34-38.

1693-1699.—First public relief in Berlin.—"The first attempts at organizing poor-relief in Berlin on the part of the State, as far as our means of information reach, occur in the reign of the elector, Frederick III. (afterwards King Frederick I.). It was in his time that a foundation was laid for the formation of a Poor fund, and for the appointment of a special department for superintending the whole subject and conducting the business of relief. The enactments of preceding rulers, concerning as they did the poor of the Kurmark, and more particularly of the residential city Berlin itself, were chiefly aimed at the extinction of begging on highways, or from door to door, and its attendant mischiefs, this practice having then assumed a very bold front; and, further, at giving a legal form to the duty of relief incumbent on the communes. The management of relief in towns and villages generally was referred by the elector to the local authorities, magistrates, and lords of manors, but the Poor Law of Berlin was separated from that of the kingdom in general, and treated

independently. The elector first of all nominated by an order of the 10th of August, 1693, a commission of superior officers, secular and spiritual, for inquiring into the condition of the Berlin Poor establishments. This commission, which appears to have conducted all Poor Law matters provisionally until the year 1699, made an order on the 16th of August, 1695, that all poor and distressed persons should meet twice a week in the Town Hall, in order that everyone might receive assistance according to his need. Begging on highways and in houses was to be forbidden. To defray expenses, the commission ordered that a special collecting box should go round once a week (it was afterwards altered to once a month), and this is the origin of the main Poor Fund still existing. This fund was further augmented by Church offerings and State appropriations of different kinds, by taxes and fines, to some extent by the acquisition of landed property, and before long by private donations and legacies. As early as the year 1699 the creation of this main Poor fund was followed by the foundation of free schools for the poor. These schools have remained under the management and supervision of the Poor Law authorities down to the present day, having been in the meantime considerably augmented and extended."—H. Schwabe, *City of Berlin, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 71-72.

1852-1921.—The Hamburg-Elberfeld system of poor relief.—"One of the earliest constructive efforts at dealing with paupers and poverty-stricken people was made in Hamburg at the close of the eighteenth century. The system consisted of a central bureau, with the city divided into districts under the direction of overseers. Almsgiving at the door was prohibited, work was supplied the unemployed so that the helpless might learn to help themselves, an industrial school was provided for the children, and there were hospitals for the sick. So complete was the provision for all classes in need of assistance or discipline, that the system worked a revolution in Hamburg. Beggars, who had formerly lined the streets to the annoyance of the passerby, were either put at work or driven out. Destitute children, who had heretofore begun the struggle of life under a terrible handicap, were relieved and educated to industry and self-support. The poverty-stricken sick were cared for, or restored to health. The Elberfeld system of public relief, adopted in 1852 as a modification of the Hamburg system, represents one of the most remarkable of the earlier experiments in constructive charity. Its fundamental principles are a thorough examination of each individual dependent, continued careful guardianship during the period of dependence, and a constant effort to help him regain economic independence. In practice, a large number of unpaid citizens are relied upon to carry on this work. For purposes of administration, the city is divided into 564 precincts, each of which contain from four to six poor families out of a population of three hundred. A citizen visitor, or *Armenpfleger*, is placed in charge of each precinct. Appointed for three years of compulsory service on pain of loss of franchise and increased taxes, the *Armenpfleger* is a responsible person whose services the city may count upon. The office is not limited to the wealthy classes; indeed, a special effort is made to secure tradesmen and mechanics. Considerable prestige attaches to the office, which is considered the first round on the ladder of municipal honor offices. Applications for aid come directly to the *Armenpfleger*, whose duty it is to inquire carefully into all the circumstances of the case. When he is convinced that the family is

really in need, he gives the relief himself. At least once every two weeks he visits each poor family, and keeps himself informed of any change in their circumstances. The law sets a minimum amount for relief, and any income received by the family is deducted from this minimum. . . . As an adviser, or a 'friendly visitor,' the *Armenpfleger* assists any persons or families whose circumstances indicate the possibility of future dependence. Thus he finds work for the unemployed, provides medical aid for the sick, advises the improvident, and reports the incorrigible for prosecution and discipline. Fourteen precincts are grouped into a district organization. The reports of the *Armenpfleger* are made to the overseer of the district at regular fortnightly meetings where all cases are thoroughly discussed and a minute book prepared for the central committee. This committee meets fortnightly, following the district meetings. It has control over the work of the district workers, reviews the district decisions in regard to amount, kind, and duration of relief in particular cases, and prepares measures of a general nature. While relief to the poor in their own homes is administered and decided by the district meetings of visitors, subject to supervision and review by the central committee, it is the latter authority alone, acting upon recommendation of the visitors, which has the power to order relief in an institution. The success of the system is indicated by the fact that although Elberfeld increased from fifty thousand in 1852 to one hundred and sixty-two thousand in 1904, the proportion of the population in receipt of temporary or permanent relief diminished by over forty per cent.; that is, from 8 to 4.7 per cent. The per capita cost also diminished. The secret of its success seems to be found in the efficient service secured by the personal and intimate touch resulting from first-hand contact. When each relief agent has but four or six cases to look after, it is possible to individualize them, and to show true neighborliness. . . . With modifications, this Elberfeld system has spread to many other German cities. In 1802, the Hamburg system was reorganized by adapting some of the principles of the Elberfeld system to the special needs of a city of six hundred thousand. The original relief system of the city had broken down under the strain put upon it by increased population. It was obviously impossible for a visitor to look after the welfare of from twenty to eighty cases in a thorough manner. . . . In the absence of records kept at a central office, there was no means provided for preventing an indigent pauper from receiving support the year round. As reorganized, the system was arranged with superintendents at the head of each district. Applications for aid were made to these officials, who in turn assigned cases to the visitors best fitted to deal with them. . . . Another reform consisted of an extension of the period for which relief was granted. Under the Elberfeld system, aid was given for two weeks. Under the new system, dependents were divided into several classes. The aged, sick, and disabled were granted an allowance for six months, younger persons, like widows with dependent children, received aid for not more than three months, and all other cases were granted relief from one session of the council to another, usually for a month at a time. Another distinguishing mark of the reorganized Hamburg plan was the insertion of circuit councils, composed of district superintendents, between the district and the central administrative board. The circuit council discusses matters of interest to all districts, hears complaints against district decisions, and grants hospital and

institutional relief. The central board is the court of last appeal for complaints. It fixes the rules of administration, and determines upon more general remedial measures and agencies. Finally, the business management is the agency which centralizes and organizes the work by providing a registry of information of all cases from all districts, thus making it easy to detect duplication of relief. The active corps of this admirable relief system consists of twenty members of the central board, over one hundred district chairmen, about sixteen hundred helpers, and nearly one hundred clerks."—F. S. Chapin, *Historical introduction to social economy*, pp. 281-285.

1872-1914.—Private charitable societies.—**Founding of Bethel.**—Care of epileptics and weak-minded.—**Self support of institution.**—"In most German towns there are private societies for almost every kind of charity, from the care of the babies with working mothers to the care of mothers themselves. In one instance, at least, individual energies have created and supported an institution which I believe is unique in the world of charitable organization. I refer to Bethel, the city for the unfortunates. It was founded in the year 1872 by some enterprising clergy, and extended to its present proportions by the magnificent work of Pastor von Bodelschwingh. In the beginning no more than a peasant's farm, it is now a town of over five thousand inhabitants. Strange inhabitants—all the world's cripples and cast-offs, epileptic children, epileptic men and women, the weak-minded of every sex and age, beggars and vagrants, confirmed drunkards, debased and lost souls from every rank of society—of such is the population. And yet no town is more orderly, busier, happier. Out of suffering has been formed content, out of waste utility. Each of the buildings has its name and its special section of inhabitants. There is Bethsaida for the girls, Nazareth for the boys, Gilgal for the locksmiths, Bethabara for the laundry-women, Helven for the farm-hands. Every trade, every profession has its own quarters, its own work. The children, rescued from homes where their terrible afflictions made them unwanted scapegoats, are brought up to do work within the scope of their weak powers. The care with which they are surrounded saves them from their worst misery, and at no moment are they brought to face any brutal contrast or the fact that they are useless burdens to the community. They are in their own world. They grow up in it, and they die in it. It may not be a big world, but it is their very own, almost, indeed, the work of their own hands. For no one is idle. Bethel supports itself. Though it is inevitable that it should require financial help, it works no less for its own maintenance. It is not conscious in any way of being a charity. It has its own farms, its own manufactories, its workshops, its telegraph offices, its hospitals, its schools, its bakeries. And nearly all the workers are the derelicts who in the outer world would be either a danger or a burden. Each establishment has its 'pastor,' or father, as he is called, and under him are the sisters and brothers—men and women who have given up their lives to the care of the unfortunate. The whole town is like one big family, of which, when he was alive, Pastor von Bodelschwingh was the loved head."—I. A. B. Wylie, *Eight years in Germany*, pp. 151-152.

1914.—Out-door relief.—Relief which does not incur deprivation of civil rights.—Public institutions for casual relief.—Work colonies.—Night shelters.—Care of orphans.—Food for poor children.—Medical aid.—Dispensaries.—Houses of Correction.—"The problem of the poor, al-

though in some degree made easier in Germany by the compulsory insurance system, is still a very difficult and costly one. Poor-houses, such as exist in Great Britain, are unknown in Germany. Outdoor relief with supervision is the principle in general adopted, the underlying idea being that in this way the poor are helped to help themselves without becoming pauperised. In the administration of the Poor Law no insuperable difficulty is found in dealing with the aged, the totally infirm, the sick and the orphans. Support *has* to be given to them and the public does its duty. The real difficulty begins with the willing healthy unemployed workmen for whom no place is available. Then there are the lazy and weak-minded, but otherwise healthy people. Finally, come the semi-invalids and bodily weak, whom no one will employ. It has been suggested that the municipalities should start factories in which these classes of the poor should be employed, in the same way as in the country colonies for the workless. Proposals have been made that the poor should be engaged in making paper, ink and pens for the Administration, simple appliances for cripples and for the hospitals and lunatic asylums, and toys for the amusement of the orphans in the schools. The poor people would not be boarded or lodged in the factories, and would only be called on to do just what they were capable of doing, and at any time be allowed to go and seek other work if a definite chance was open. The method of caring for the deserving poor in Germany has often been described, but will bear brief recapitulation. The Elberfeld system of poor relief, which has been widely adopted by the city municipalities and country parishes of Germany, has obtained a world-wide renown. The fundamental ideas of the system are individualisation and decentralisation. . . . In some cities slight modifications have been introduced into the system, whereby the district committee may, on its own initiative, extend the duration of the assistance given. In some cases, paid officials are appointed to superintend the relief of permanent paupers. The guardian is in all cases empowered to give immediate relief when he finds it necessary, but not for longer than fourteen days. He remains in constant touch with the needy and gives them advice as to where to seek work if unemployed. This advice is not offered as a rule in a bureaucratic spirit, but in a kindly, helpful way.

"Women have hitherto not been permitted to participate largely in the work of poor relief, but a change has recently come about in some districts, and 4,000 women are now members of guardians' committees. In some cases, such as Berlin, Hamburg and other big cities, it has been found advisable to appoint boards of guardians. The needy have then to apply to the chairman, who appoints one of the guardians to investigate. This system has been found to work well. The guardians, as a rule, pursue their investigations with the utmost tact, and very often the neighbours do not know that a needy family is in receipt of public assistance. The help given to the poor consists in money, food, clothing, free medicines, and on the parish doctor's advice good nourishment, while in the case of the unemployed destitute, tools, sewing machines, mangles, or railway fares to places where work is offered are provided. In many instances, the assistance is given in the shape of a loan, and thus those receiving aid avoid the loss of civil rights which is incurred by persons entirely dependent on public support. Sick relief, the admission of a member of a family free of cost into an asylum or other institution, help given to an orphan in learning a trade, and temporary relief

in general are not regarded as poor law aid incurring the deprivation of civil rights. In the rural unions a somewhat similar system to that of the cities is adopted. The effort is made to distribute the burden of poverty as widely as possible and not drive the poor into the towns and industrial centres. Each municipality or union must, whether the person affected is domiciled in the locality or not provide for the deserving needy who apply.

"In addition to the general system of assisting the resident poor, there are also public institutions spread all over the country wherein men wandering from one place to another in search of work may obtain food and lodging on condition that they fulfil a modest task before continuing on their way. These may, in many respects, be compared to casual wards. The men have to be provided with an official certificate, in which the route is indicated which they are to follow, and this must be stamped at each halting place. When the men, who are usually honest workers looking for employment, are worn out with fruitless wandering, they may apply and be admitted to one of the work colonies in the country districts. There are thirty-four of these colonies, capable of accommodating 5,000 persons. The original founder of the colonies, which are mostly private enterprises subsidised by the State and the municipalities, was the Emperor Frederick, when he was Crown Prince. He gave them a considerable endowment, which has, however, proved insufficient for their entire maintenance. Entry is entirely voluntary, and both men and women are eligible. Every applicant must produce his or her last rent receipt, a police registration form, a reference from the last situation and a stamped certificate entitling the holder to wander over the country in search of work. Over 200,000 of the poor unemployed of both sexes have utilised these colonies, but it is found that the skilled artisan objects to give up his trade and settle down to the entirely new occupation of an agricultural laborer, although opportunities are offered him to acquire his own piece of land from his own savings out of his earnings in the colony. In some instances, these colonies form entirely new villages and every effort is made to improve the economic conditions of the colonists and increase their capacity to earn money. The governors are really foremen, who teach the colonists various kinds of agricultural work. The average duration of the colonists' stay is three months. An inmate who shirks the work is promptly ejected and handed over to the police as a vagabond. Anyone who is weak and unfit for hard work is given light tasks and may stay as long as he or she cares to. Before the institution of these colonies the houses of correction for tramps and vagrants contained over 30,000 tramps. Now their inmates number only 5,000 in the whole Empire [1914] (of whom 1,400 are in the vicinity of Berlin). Some of the houses of correction have consequently recently been closed.

"Night shelters are also provided in several large towns, many of them being the result of the efforts of private societies. There the users do not need to legitimise themselves. Everyone is welcome and receives a bath, has his clothing disinfected and may sleep and take a free breakfast before leaving. In the municipal night shelters in Berlin, where 4,000 homeless men take refuge every night in winter, the system has recently been introduced of enforcing inmates to do two or three hours' work in return for their lodging and bowl of soup with bread. This has had the effect of driving large numbers of confirmed tramps to seek other refuges either in private night shelters or wherever they

can find a place to creep into. Despite this the Berlin municipal night shelters, during the . . . financial year, from April 1, 1908, to March 31, 1909 admitted 866,300 persons, or an average right through the year of 2,373 homeless people nightly.

"Orphans and foundlings are well looked after, both the system of institution and distribution among families being in vogue. The latter is more general, a small amount being paid by the authorities for their keep. The persons in charge are kept under control, so that the children are not ill-treated or exploited, women taking a great part in the control. The group, or family, system has also been adopted—a workman and his wife being given a free house in the country on condition that they bring up from 6-12 orphans, the boys to learn the man's trade, the girls household work. A small amount per head is also paid. This has the advantage of giving the children the benefit of family life. Among other institutions for the assistance of the poor are the popular kitchens, where food is provided to both children and grown-ups. Where the latter can pay, they are asked for a small sum. Tramway workers, scavengers and other labourers may often be seen taking a meal in these kitchens. They are under the control of private societies, in the same way as the breakfasts to hungry school children, but the municipalities subsidise them. Poores' doctors are appointed in most districts. They are given a small salary by the municipality on condition that they set aside certain hours when poor sick people visit them. They have also to visit the poor in their houses when necessary. In country districts several parishes join together and pay for one doctor between them. Accident stations exist in every town, where first help is rendered to victims of accidents, who are then taken to hospital or sent home. Dispensaries for the poor are also erected at the municipal expense. In university cities these serve as instructional centres for students. The hospitals are all controlled by the municipalities, and a charge, which is graduated according to the circumstances of the individual patient, is made for attendance. Poor persons unable to pay are admitted and receive medicine and surgical attendance at the charge of the municipality. Any person, however, is entitled to admittance to the hospital of the district in which he resides on payment of a minimum sum of 3s. [about 70 cents] per day, which includes medical attention, board and lodging. Two thousand two hundred and eighty-six people on an average are in the Berlin hospitals at the city's expense. The number of beds available is over 3,000. The yearly cost to the city is £56,600. Whereas formerly natives of one German State when resident in another were considered for the purposes of the Poor Law as foreigners and immediately expelled on becoming paupers, the law now says that every German, from whatever State of the Empire he comes, must be considered a native wherever he is in the Empire and be given assistance, which must afterwards be recovered from the authorities of his fixed domicile. Germany suffers just as other lands do in having most of the poor in great cities and industrial centres, many of them drawn thither by the indiscriminate charity of well-meaning but foolish people.

"Professional paupers certainly exist, but they are restricted to a very small class by means of the excellent regulation compelling private charitable institutions to submit all applications for assistance to the central body having charge of the distribution of official poor relief in each district. An applicant for assistance who endeavours to obtain pecuniary or other aid from a number of institu-

tions in the same district is soon found out and, as his or her name is also communicated to other districts by the authorities, it is very rare that he or she succeeds in living systematically on the gifts of well-disposed people. Of course, the most ingenious of these pests of modern society manage by confining their operations to private persons, instead of applying to societies, to prey for a length of time on charity, but they are usually found out in the long run. The race of 'nevers,' who will not work without compulsion, receives little encouragement. Woe be to them if they fall into the hands of the authorities, for they are first punished by a term of imprisonment and then relegated to the houses of correction, or *work* houses, as they are called in Germany, and detained for a period of two to five years. The regime in these 'work houses' is very strict. They are virtually prisons, as the inmates may not take their discharge. Even when allowed to leave after a long term of detention, they may be sent back to their place of domicile and forbidden to leave under pain of relegation. Professional beggars, drunkards and prostitutes, as well as persons who, owing to vice, place those dependent on them in such a position as to become a burden to the community, are all liable to this form of detention. In some cases, the deserving poor and homeless are admitted, but are under no compulsion to remain if they receive an offer of employment. Foreigners who become destitute are expelled from the country. It must be confessed that the accommodation and nourishment in both workers' colonies and work houses is very poor, and a movement is proceeding to introduce improvements in these respects. Complete statistics dealing with the entire outlay for poor relief throughout Germany have not been issued for twenty years. The labour of compiling the returns from the great rural districts is enormous, and the central department is overburdened with so much administrative work that officials cannot be spared for the task. A fairly accurate official estimate of the outlay on the poor, the sick and the orphans in urban and rural districts containing over 10,000 inhabitants in the course of the year 1905 showed that £7,535,505 had been disbursed for these purposes. This total leaves entirely out of account the many hundreds of districts comprising fewer than 10,000 inhabitants. The principles of the operation of the German poor law may be summed up as follows: 1. Very poor districts are carefully watched and the State comes to their assistance in case of necessity. 2. Poor law officials, most of whom are voluntary, are, with the resources placed at their disposal, kept under close control. 3. The arrangement by law of the right to settle in a district, thus preventing the flow of the poor towards any one point. 4. Official superintendence of private charities. 5. Organisation of a system of loan institutions, which, by advancing monetary assistance to those struggling against their downfall, help the poor to re-establish themselves in independent positions and at the same time protect them against usurers."—R. M. Berry, *Germany of the Germans*, pp. 115-122, 124.

1920-1921.—Care of cripples.—"In Germany in 1905 was formed a Central Association for aid to Young, with a special section dealing with cripples. In 1909 . . . there existed twenty-three institutions for cripples with accommodation for 12,000 patients. Perhaps one of the best known of these is [1920] the institution in Berlin provided by the municipality. . . . There are also well-known special orthopedic hospitals such as those in Munich and Heidelberg."—*Charity Organization Review*, Jan., 1921, p. 58.—"The principles and technique

of care for crippled children, which . . . was regulated [in 1920] by national legislation is further being developed by a new national society of teachers for cripples. One of the matters on which some of the foremost of these teachers insist is a better psychological training, because the adjustment of the handicapped to a normal vocational and home life is largely a question of mental attitude."—*Survey*, Oct. 8, 1921, p. 60.

GREAT BRITAIN

1909-1919.—Old Age Pensions.—Establishment of Ministry of Health.—Despite the close political union between England and Scotland, these countries are distinct from each other, and it has been necessary to treat their charities under separate headings. The old age pension act, however, applies to both countries alike, and as both countries also come within the competence of the ministry of health, it is equally necessary, when speaking of these late acts to treat the two kingdoms as a unit. The old age pension act of Great Britain of 1909 provided for a pension of 5 shillings per week for persons having reached the age of 70 and who gave evidence of need. No one who has an income of more than 3 pounds and 10 shillings is eligible. . . . As [the law was] originally passed . . . no one received a pension who had been in receipt of poor relief within the previous five years. In 1911 that condition was removed [and numbers of the poor houses were practically emptied]! In 1910 the maximum pension was increased from 5 shillings to 10 per week."—J. L. Gillin, *Property and dependency*, p. 376.—See also SOCIAL INSURANCE: Details for various countries: Great Britain: 1833-1911.

The poor relief Act of 1910 created a new department, the Ministry of Health, to take over the whole public administration of charity. The reasons and need for so doing are clearly stated in the following article, written in 1919: "The whole poor law organization which is still costing for the United Kingdom somewhere about seventeen million pounds per annum, has become redundant. During the past half century there has gradually grown up another way of dealing, out of public money, for every one of the various classes of persons whom the community has to help.

The town council now provides for maternity and infancy; for the education and even the maintenance and medical treatment of children of school age; for everything required by various large classes of the sick of all ages; for the lunatics, mentally defective, and feeble-minded; for the pensionable aged, and for the able-bodied unemployed. But these are all the classes that the board of guardians provides for! The overlapping has become universal. We cannot go on with the waste involved in maintaining in every town duplicate staffs and duplicate institutions, at the expense of the rates and taxes, for all the several classes for which we provide help; one set for those who are technically destitute and who are stigmatized as paupers, and another set for those who are not so stigmatized and are welcomed as citizens—especially when it is often a matter of chance which are dealt with in one way and which in the other. . . . Observe what is in question is a merging of services, a union of staffs and institutions, not merely a transfer of this or that work from the board of guardians to the town council. . . . It is not a question of merely substituting one directly-elected body for another, or one committee for another. It is merging the poor law medical staff and the poor law infirmary

in the larger and more comprehensive public health service of the municipality, which will have its series of properly classified hospitals, maternity clinics and infant nurseries, dispensaries, sanatoria, convalescent homes and homes of refuge for the chronic invalids and the infirm aged. It is a merging of the separate poor law schools or cottage homes, and all the boarding-out, in the wider and more specialized educational system which the council maintains for all the children and young persons. It is a merging of the all-too-scanty poor law provision for the feeble-minded in the more extensive and more expert provision that the council makes for the mentally defective of all grades. With regard to the able-bodied the idea is a definite rejection of all the ways in which the poor law deals with the man physically and mentally able to work, who is destitute through inability to obtain employment, and the commission to the council, by the agency of a new committee on which organized labor must be specially represented, of the whole problem of how best to prevent unemployment.

"There is a decisive reason why no continuance of any particular board of guardians is possible. . . . The union of all the separate poor law services with those of the municipality in itself necessarily involves the repeal of all the poor law statutes, and the dropping of all the existing poor law orders, which will cease to be applicable. . . . The town council will take over the services of the guardians and administer them under the town council's existing powers, the public health, education, lunacy, unemployment and other acts, which will need only slight amendment to enable this to be done. . . . No town council would consent for a moment to come under the terribly out-of-date poor law statutes and poor law orders, with their stigma and odium, and with the subjection that they involve to the meticulous supervision and peremptory commands of the local Government Board. Every town council will naturally deal with the sick under the public health acts, and with the children under the education acts. When the transfer of the poor law services is made, the poor law will cease to exist."—S. Webb, *Coming revolution in local government* (*Survey*, June 28, 1919, p. 480).—See also ENGLAND: 1919-1921.

GREECE

1919-1921.—Infant welfare work.—"Infant Welfare Work in Greece was begun in 1919 by the American Red Cross in Athens [where sanitary arrangements for the poor are non-existent and infant mortality is very high]. In July of 1910 the Red Cross turned its clinic over to the Patriotic League of Greece. . . . The volunteers are expected to give at least one-half day a week to home visiting and attend the conference once a week. . . . The volunteers who visit the homes are instructed to make enquiries concerning living conditions to give instructions concerning the baby, and to see that all children of school age are attending school. . . . In June, 1921, the station was transferred from the Patriotic League to the Ministry of Public Assistance. . . . The Minister now (October, 1921) has a bill before Parliament which he believes will pass without any doubt, and which will enable him to create a child welfare department."—W. R. Brooks, *Infant welfare work in Greece* (*Survey*, Oct. 8, 1921).

1922.—General philanthropic work.—Departments of public charities in each municipality have existed for some years. Women's associations all over the country minister to the destitute; orphan

asylums, supported by private gifts and endowments, homes for the poor and aged, and medical dispensaries have been established in large cities; public kitchens are a feature in the lives of the poor in such cities as Athens, Patras, and Salonica. Lodgings for working girls in Athens are also an interesting philanthropic institution.

HOLLAND

1413-1908.—Government responsibility.—“During the fifteenth century, the relief of the poor by the civil power is a principle of most of the orders issued in the northern provinces, even in the episcopal town of Utrecht, in 1413; the edict of Charles V. met therefore with much less opposition in the northern than in the southern Netherlands. This principle was fully sanctioned by the edict of the States of Holland of the 2nd of March, 1575, and it entirely harmonised with the principles of the Reformation which had meanwhile taken root in the land. But, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, a new system of ecclesiastical poor-relief by the deacons of the church arose side by side with the secular system ordered by the civil power. We must, however, conclude that the whole state of poor-relief in the seventeenth century was defective, judging from the accounts of the great mortality in different years from 1600 to 1666; from the existence of a great many hospitals for the sick, and for those attacked by the plague; from the frequent complaints about beggars and vagabonds; and from the increase in the number of foundlings. Towards the end of the seventeenth and in the first half of the eighteenth century, the state of things improved. It was then that many of the ‘God’s Houses’ were erected and enlarged, and richly endowed by gifts and legacies. . . . Towards the end of the eighteenth century another advance was made in the development of poor-relief, by the larger share taken in it by the Government. According to the Constitution of 1798, the management of the poor throughout the Republic was to be carried out on a uniform plan. The representatives of the people required a report concerning all foundations specially intended for the poor, their endowments, and administration. A general law regulating relief was drawn up, and even published, July 15th, 1800, but it never came into operation. . . . By the fundamental law of 1815, Art. 220, it became the duty of the Government to take charge of the charitable institutions and the education of the poor, and to give an annual report to the States General. These Reports have been printed since 1816, and in a very copious form since 1847. The law of November 28th, 1818, which remained in force in Belgium until the introduction of the law of February, 1845, and in the Netherlands until June, 1854, was limited to deciding upon the place where the needy might claim relief. This law granted a settlement by birthplace, but, at the same time, decided that such a settlement might be forfeited by four years’ unbroken residence in some other place, and in the case of women, by marriage.”—M. M. Von Baumhauer, *Holland, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 257-259.—In 1008 “the municipalities had under them 1,060 institutions of a general character. There were also under public direction 1,109 relief centers or distributing offices. Those in connection with the different churches were most numerous of all viz.: 4,052; institutions under private direction totalled 819. Many of these societies or guilds only distributed food in winter, but hospitals, homes for the poor, and lying-in hospitals are in-

cluded in all the totals.”—D. C. Boulger, *Holland of the Dutch*.

HUNGARY

1909.—State League for the protection of children.—Labor bureau.—Old age pensions.—Housing of agricultural laborers.—“The Hungarian State League for the Protection of Children. . . . It is by far the most valuable charitable institution in the country, and its sphere of activity extends over the length and breadth of the land. Indeed, the Government has recognised its importance as one of the State’s auxiliary forces in the work of Child Protection, and, as such, has invested it with an official character. . . . The operations of the League include all phases and branches of Child Protection, from earliest infancy up to latest youth, and its activity is limited only in cases where the League’s assistance would clash with that of the State. . . . Children who are sick, deaf, dumb, blind, epileptic, scrofulous, phthisical, deformed or crippled, are sent by the League to medical institutions and watering-places. Arrangements are also made to send children to health-resorts during vacation time while children endowed with special talents are afforded opportunities for higher education; and in this respect no exception is made with regard to children of foreign nationality. The League provides for the children under its charge to be placed either in its institutions or in private families living on its settlements. In the latter case the children are under the supervision of a physician belonging to the asylums. On the other hand, such children as have been exposed to immoral influences (or have lived in an immoral atmosphere), or who have already shown vicious tendencies, are put into the League’s own institutions under strict observation. . . . Each institution is staffed by a director and the necessary number of teachers. The children are instructed in various branches of domestic knowledge and usefulness.”—P. Alden, *Hungary of to-day*, pp. 328-329.—The “Labour Bureau . . . has its local branches in the parishes, its headquarters in the county halls, and a very efficient central office at Budapest. . . . An act was passed to provide for organising a system of old age pensions for farm servants, by which, in return for a small yearly contribution from the labourer (the tax being one penny [two cents] a week), and a compulsory contribution from the employer, the labourer is insured against sickness, accidents, and old age at sixty-five years old. The Exchequer is directly responsible for any obligations of this fund. By another Act passed only last year, a grant of a yearly sum of £12,500, for a period of thirty years, was made for the building of houses for agricultural labourers; with the co-operation of the local authority this Act makes possible the erection of about 20,000 dwelling-houses, and its working has a direct and encouraging effect upon private enterprise. These dwelling-houses, generally speaking, are in a very miserable condition throughout the country, and even on the larger estates are far from what they should be.”—A. György, *The state and agriculture (Hungary of to-day*, p. 269).

IRELAND

1703-1838.—Public poor relief.—Houses of industry and foundling hospitals.—Early work-houses.—Infirmaries.—Support of fever hospitals.—“Although there was, previous to 1838, no

general poor law in Ireland, several acts of the Irish and the United Parliaments had made provision for the relief of particular classes of poor. Apart from certain penal acts directed against vagrancy and begging, the first enactment of the Irish Parliament dealing with the poor was passed in 1703, providing for the erection of a workhouse and for the maintenance and apprenticing out of foundling children in the city of Dublin. The expenses of these objects were to be defrayed out of a tax on hackney coaches and sedan chairs, and a rate of threepence in the pound on every house within the city and liberties. This act is important as it marks the earliest recognition by the Irish Parliament of the principle that the poor should be supported by compulsory taxation. In 1735 a similar act was passed applying to the city of Cork. In 1715 an act was passed which applied to the whole of Ireland, giving power to ministers and churchwardens, with the consent of a justice of the peace, to apprentice out helpless children to 'any honest and respectable protestant housekeeper.' Many years later provision was made for the care of foundling and deserted children in cities by means of a rate assessed on the inhabitants, and shortly afterwards the provisions of this act were extended to country districts. About the same time the workhouse and foundling branches of the Dublin institution were separated. An important act was passed in 1771 making provision for the establishment of a house of industry in each county.

The following is Nicholls' summary of the poor relief legislation of the Irish Parliament: 'Houses of industry and foundling hospitals, supported partly by public rates and partly by voluntary contributions, were established at Dublin and Cork, for the reception and bringing up of exposed and deserted children, and the confinement of vagrants; parishes were required to support the children exposed and deserted within their limits, and vestries were organized and overseers appointed to attend to this duty; hospitals, houses of industry, or workhouses were to be provided in every county and city; severe punishments were enacted against idle vagabonds and vagrants; while the deserving poor were to be lodged or licensed to beg, or if infirm and helpless were to be maintained in the hospitals or houses of industry, for the building and upholding of which reliance was chiefly placed on the charitable aid of the humane and affluent, assessments for the purpose being limited to £400 in counties at large and to £200 in counties of cities or towns.' No statute of the United Parliament dealing with the relief of the able-bodied poor was passed before 1838, though various acts were passed making provision for the sick and lunatic poor. An act of 1805 provided that, in counties where the county infirmary was unavailable to the poor of any district on account of distance, the grand jury might raise a sum by presentment equal to the amount already raised by private subscription to establish local dispensaries. In the following year the amounts which the grand juries were authorized to present for the erection of houses of industry were slightly increased. In 1814 an act was passed providing that, when any fever hospital had been established in a county, the grand jury might raise a sum not exceeding £250 for its support; and four years later [1818] a further act provided for the creation in every county of a corporation, charged with the duty of erecting fever hospitals and authorizing grand juries to present sums for their support not exceeding double the amount raised by voluntary subscrip-

tion. In the following year provision was made for the appointment of officers of health to supervise the carrying into effect of the last mentioned act. An act of 1817 empowered the Lord Lieutenant to direct the erection of lunatic asylums in districts where they were needed, the cost to be defrayed by grand jury presentments. In 1825 the provision for deserted children was slightly extended."—G. O'Brien, *Economic history of Ireland from the union to the famine*, pp. 162-165.—The provisions of these acts were not carried out effectively, and in fact were scarcely enforced except in the counties of Cork, Waterford and Limerick. The house of industry in Dublin was opened to the poor from every part of Ireland, and this institution alone received grants from the public funds.

1765-1921.—Dispensary system.—Hospitals—"Few if any countries . . . have a more complete system of free treatment for the poor than has Ireland. For the seventy years since the passing of the Medical Charities Act, which established what is known as the 'dispensary' system, it has been possible for any poor person to secure free medical attendance and medicine for himself or any member of his family. His wife may secure the free assistance of a doctor and a midwife in her confinement. Hospital treatment is available for medical or surgical cases in the county or union infirmary and for cases of infectious diseases in a fever hospital. The population of Ireland is about four and a quarter millions, of whom perhaps two millions are eligible for this free treatment. The country is divided into 740 dispensary districts with over 800 medical officers in charge, some districts in the large towns having more than one medical officer. There are 146 union infirmaries and 138 infectious diseases hospitals (containing in all about 17,000 beds) available for the treatment of sickness. In addition there is a county infirmary in each county for the treatment of the more serious medical and surgical cases and these infirmaries are also available for poor persons without payment. The cities are provided with well staffed and well equipped hospitals, which gave to the poor specialist and operative treatment in no respect inferior to that available for the wealthy. . . . The same excellent conditions unfortunately do not hold in the smaller towns and in the country. Of the only hospital accommodation is in the union infirmary, or in the county infirmary, too often handicapped by lack of funds, and subject to conditions and limitations imposed by an Act of Parliament passed in 1765. Neither in the rural districts nor in the majority of the smaller towns are those who are in the greatest need of the highest medical or surgical skill or of prolonged institutional treatment—radium, X-ray, etc.—cared for as their condition demands. In a few towns there are successful cottage hospitals which serve a purpose analogous to that of the large voluntary hospitals in the cities. Sanatoria for the treatment of tuberculosis have been established within the past few years, and these now [1921] number thirteen, with accommodation for 1,382 patients. A system of special dispensaries has been established in the majority of the counties and county boroughs. Half the cost of these schemes is defrayed from government funds and the other half falls on the county rates. Asylums for the detention and treatment of lunatics and the feeble-minded exist and are in many respects superior to the union infirmaries where the sick are treated. Practically every district in Ireland is also provided with a trained maternity

nurse. There are a number of voluntary societies which have for their object the provision of nurses for home nursing. Their 200 nurses have by their skill and devotion won the respect, esteem and affection of the poor in every district to which they have been appointed. A number of schemes for the diagnosis and treatment of venereal diseases are in operation. The government pays to local authorities 75 per cent. of the cost of these schemes.

"It must be confessed that as regards preventive medicine Ireland lags behind most civilized countries. The Public Health Act of 1878 and the subsequent acts are chiefly concerned with the correction of sanitary defects, the provision of water supplies and sewage systems, and the isolation and treatment of infectious disease. The acts dealing with notification and prevention are permissive and many of the local authorities have not adopted them. During the last few years at least seven acts of parliament have been passed with the primary object of preventing rather than treating sickness. Of these, the Notification of Births Act of 1915 gives very wide powers to local authorities for attending to the health of mothers and children and the government defrays half the cost of the approved arrangements. There are also great hopes that the Medical Inspection and Treatment of School Children Act of 1919, when it is put into operation, will accomplish much in preventing permanent ill health and disability.

"The first and most obvious defects of the system as it exists to-day is that the various health activities are controlled (except for the six county boroughs) by three different bodies: the county councils, the urban and rural district councils and the boards of guardians, each of which is an elected body. The fact that the boundaries of the three do not coincide makes the situation still worse. The union, for example, may be partly in two counties, or even in three, and may include two or three rural or urban districts within its boundaries. There are in Ireland 30 county and county borough councils, 154 unions, and over 300 urban and rural districts. The dispensary medical service and the union infirmaries and fever hospitals are controlled by the boards of guardians, the primary function of which is the administration of the poor laws and the management of the workhouses. This fact gives to the whole an unmerited taint of pauperism. A further sting is inflicted on the sick poor in that, before admission to the union infirmary, a patient must, in theory, be first admitted to the workhouse. No one who has not lived in Ireland can know with what horror the 'house' is regarded by the thousands who are always poor but never paupers. As regards the service itself, some harsh things have been said. The controlling body of the service is very local and parochial in its views. Further, the salaries of the medical officers are small and the chance of promotion almost nil. In addition there is no provision for post-graduate work or study leave. It is probably chiefly from motives of patriotism that such a high percentage of skilful and capable doctors is to be found in the dispensary service, who could have done much better in other countries. As to the institutions, there are brilliant exceptions, but the dispensary buildings, the infirmaries, the fever hospitals, are for the most part old and ill suited for their purposes. The hospitals and county infirmaries are frequently gloomy, badly equipped and unsuitable for modern surgery. Progress in preventive medicine is hampered by the fact that it is controlled

by a small local body whose chief aim appears to be an overweening desire to keep down the rates to the lowest possible level. These criticisms have been directed toward the local health work; but what of the central controlling bodies? Most of the local authorities are, to a greater or lesser extent, under the central control of the local government board. The insurance commissioners control health insurance; there is another body responsible for asylums and certain other medical functions are directed by other bodies.

"The Irish Public Health Council, appointed in 1919, made its first report in 1920. The present system of health administration in Ireland has been put together piecemeal. It may be compared to a patchwork quilt made by an astigmatic and color-blind person. . . .

"There is just one further point: Ireland has many health problems remaining to be solved, some common to many countries, some more or less peculiar to herself, but medical research is being done to-day in Ireland by only a handful of keen workers in the universities. These workers are starved by the colleges which they serve (more through necessity, be it said, than by desire) and utterly ignored both by the state and by local authorities. . . . Perhaps the state or the local authorities may some day realize their duty to these men, who continue only for love of the work, but we hope for the munificence of some Rockefeller or Carnegie who will assist them and who will found a great school of public health where the young practitioner will be equipped to battle against disease."—E. C. Bigger, *New health for old* (Survey, Graphic Number, Nov. 26, 1921, pp. 311-312).

1830-1836.—Spring Rice committee.—Infirmaries.—Dispensaries.—Houses of industry.—Dublin Mendicity Institution.—Poor Inquiry Commissioners.—"A committee known as The Spring Rice Committee, appointed in 1830, found that there were at that time thirty-one county infirmaries in Ireland, maintained at a total cost of £54,000 a year, that, with the exception of some minor amendments, 'the county infirmaries of Ireland may be considered as adequate to the purposes for which they were intended.' The committee next devoted its attention to fever hospitals, which it found had been established in most parts of Ireland. 'No county is said to be without one in Munster, and the county of Cork has four and Tipperary eight; but many counties in the province of Ulster and Connaught have omitted to provide fever hospitals.' The committee further found that nearly 400 dispensaries had been established, affording relief annually to upwards of half a million of persons. . . . The provision for lunatics was found to be sufficient and satisfactory; 'as regards one of the most painful afflictions to which humanity is exposed, there has been provided within a few years a system of relief for the Irish poor as extensive as can be wished, and as perfect and effectual as is to be found in any country.' The committee recommended that curable and incurable cases should be segregated. The committee then proceeded to deal with the houses of industry, and reported that the number of those institutions in Ireland did not exceed twelve, 'including the great establishment bearing that name in Dublin, which is supported exclusively by votes of parliament.' There were eight houses of industry in Munster, three in Leinster, but none in Ulster or Connaught. . . . Attention was also drawn to the great volume of private charity in Ireland, of which the foremost example was the Dublin Mendicity

Institution. Dublin has always been remarkable for the extent of its charities supported by voluntary contributions. In 1815 they numbered about fifty, including dispensaries, hospitals, schools, asylums, penitentiaries, infirmaries and loan societies. About 16,000 pounds was said to be raised annually by charity sermons alone. Two years later the Mendicity Institution was founded. The famine of 1817 had flooded the streets of the city with more than the usual number of beggars, for whose assistance subscriptions were raised; the committee appointed for this purpose led processions of beggars through the streets, and taught them to howl outside the doors of those who would not subscribe to the fund; as a result of which campaign about £19,000 was collected, and the Mendicity Institution founded. Among the charitable associations which the committee of 1830 observed in Dublin may be mentioned, 'schools, hospitals, Magdalen asylums, houses of refuge, orphan establishments, lying-in hospitals, societies for relief of the sick and indigent, mendicity associations, and charitable loans.' The second report of the Poor Inquiry Commissioners, published in 1836, was devoted to the existing establishments for the relief of distress in Ireland. It was stated that there were in existence 31 county and 5 city and town infirmaries, 452 independent dispensaries, and 42 more united with fever hospitals, and 28 fever hospitals. The total cost of the upkeep of these institutions in the year 1833 was calculated to amount to £100,054, of which £55,065 was furnished by grand jury presentments, £37,563 by subscriptions, £6,661 by parliamentary grants, and £9,766 by petty sessions fees and miscellaneous funds. With regard to these institutions the commissioners remarked: 'The medical relief at present afforded throughout Ireland is very unequally distributed. In the county of Dublin, containing exclusive of the city about 176,000 inhabitants, and about 375 square miles, there are 19 dispensaries, or one for every 9,306 inhabitants. In the County of Mayo, containing 311,328 inhabitants, and about 2,100 square miles, there is only one dispensary supported at the public expense.' In spite of these inequalities of distribution, however, the sick poor of Ireland would seem to have been reasonably well provided for: 'the sick poor of Ireland are better attended than even the sick poor of England.' While however the existing system was sound in principle, it was vitiated by many practical abuses, amongst others, (1) the total omission of an efficient superintendence and control exercised by properly qualified persons, whether over the working of the whole system or its subordinate machinery, (2) the authorizing of a sort of partnership in charity between the public purse and private individuals, thereby placing it within the power of designing persons to impose a permanent tax upon the community for their own or their friends' private advantage, (3) the leaving it discretionary with grand juries to diminish or extinguish the funds of a charity capable of much usefulness, and (4) the dispensary acts requiring no specific medical qualifications of any kind. Passing from medical charities to the institutions for the general relief of the poor, the commission found that there were in existence nine houses of industry, and two large foundling hospitals, one in Dublin, the other in Cork, and a small one in Galway. These institutions, according to the commissioners, were utterly indefensible, in view of the large cost of their upkeep. In addition to these institutions there were also eleven lunatic asylums in Ireland. The total cost of these in-

stitutions in 1833 was £204,806. Of this sum upwards of £50,000 was furnished by parliamentary grants, the remainder being derived from grand jury presentments, voluntary contributions, and other local sources. . . . Let us next inquire into the nature and source of the demand for the extension to Ireland of some system corresponding to the English poor law. For many years previous to the setting up of the Poor Inquiry Commission in 1833, constant complaints had been made in England of the ruinous effects of the increasing immigration of Irish labourers. . . . The committee of 1828 reported that the number of these paupers was growing annually, and the expense of their removal was assuming large proportions. . . . Five years later the question was considered by another committee, which reported that the evil of Irish vagrancy had greatly increased.'—G. O'Brien, *Economic history of Ireland from the union to the famine* (1921), pp. 166-71.

1838-1849.—**Poor law act and amendments.**—In spite of the great amount of poverty, and its attendant evils, the majority report of the Poor Inquiry commission opposed the adoption of a poor law. Nevertheless, in 1838, acting on the advice of Mr. George Nicholls, one of the English poor law commissioners, an act was passed, on July 31, 1838, which still remains the foundation of the Irish poor law. The main provisions "were as follows:—(1) The division of the country into unions. . . . (2) The formation of a board of guardians for each union—the board consisting of elected and ex-officio guardians. (3) The establishment of a central authority, viz., the Poor Law Commissioners for England and Wales. (4) A compulsory rate for the relief of the poor. (5) The relief to be at the discretion of the guardians, and accordingly no poor person, however, destitute, to be held to have a statutory right to relief. A preference to be given to the aged, the infirm, the defective, and the children. . . . (6) The relief to be limited to relief in the workhouse. (7) The relief to be subject to the 'direction and control' of the Poor Law Commissioners, who, however, were prohibited from interfering in individual cases for the purpose of ordering relief. The Commissioners to make orders for the guidance and control of guardians, wardens, officers, the auditing of accounts, and for carrying the act into execution in all other respects as they might think proper."—*Ibid.*, pp. 186-187.—In 1838 the law was amended so as to permit local unions to give aid to emigrants, a power which was further enlarged by the amendments of 1843, 1847 and 1849. Little advantage was taken of these amendments, however, and it is doubtful if many of the poor knew of the existence of such provisions. In 1847 an Irish Poor Law Commission was established and the following year provision was made for out-door relief in certain cases.

1845-1852.—**Famine relief.**—"The entire amount advanced by the government towards the relief of the Irish people during the famine was £7,132,268, of which £3,754,739 was to be repaid within ten years, and the remaining £3,377,529 was a free grant. Of the sums lent, a large part was remitted between 1847 and 1852, when a select committee of the House of Lords recommended the remission of the whole amount, and in 1853 the total loans made to meet the famine were remitted by Gladstone, in consideration of Ireland's assuming the burden of the income tax."—*Ibid.*, p. 257.—See also IRELAND: 1845-1847.

1908-1921.—**Pension Act.**—Ireland came under the Pension Act, which was passed in 1908 for

the United Kingdom, and the amendments of 1911 and 1919. The provisions of the Act were carried out by the local Government Boards.—See also above, GREAT BRITAIN.

ITALY

Lack of poor laws.—Endowed charities.—Bequests.—Hospitals.—Charities of the Renaissance.—Technical schools for girls.—"There is no legal right of the poor to maintenance in Italy, as in England. There is no public provision for able-bodied paupers, except that the police may send them at the public expense to their native place. The infirm poor have to be placed in an infirmary or hospital, and pauper children under nine years in a charity school, the expense falling on the charities of the place, where a pauper has his settlement, or, if these are insufficient, on the communal rates, or, in the last resort, on the State. If the authorities fail to do this, the pauper is permitted to beg; but begging is strictly forbidden to the able-bodied, though in spite of the numerous prosecutions for begging . . . the law is much honoured in the breach. Relatives in better circumstances may be compelled to contribute to the maintenance of the infirm and children. There is a better provision for the sick poor. Every commune is bound by law to pay a resident doctor and midwife to attend the poor free of charge; in some he is paid to attend all inhabitants. Sometimes the communes give free medicine to the poor. But the law is often indifferently observed, and in many rural districts, at all events, it is nearly or quite a dead-letter. The Provincial Councils are bound to maintain pauper lunatics and (conjointly with the communes) foundlings. And both provinces and communes have large optional powers to make grants to infirmaries, hospitals, orphanages, in fact to any kind of charity. These optional grants amounted in 1897 to £560,000, and are steadily increasing. The total cost to local authorities in poor relief and charity is £2,600,000.

"The lack of public provision for the poor is to a certain extent compensated by the magnificent public charities. Italy has always led the way in charity among the nations of Western Europe. Its hospitals date from the early middle-ages, its *Monti di Pietà* were installed by the Franciscans in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The great medieval hospitals and orphanages still exist. The principal hospital at Florence, that of Santa Maria Nuova, was founded by the father of Dante's Beatrice. The orphanage of the Bigallo owes itself to St. Peter Martyr. The Foundling and Children's Hospital of the Innocenti, that Brunelleschi designed and Andrea Della Robbia adorned, gained the highest honour at the Paris Exhibition last year.—B. King and T. Okey, *Italy to-day*, pp. 220-221.—"In more modern times the *Scuole Leopoldine*, founded by the reforming Grand Duke Leopold at Florence in the last century, are perhaps the earliest technical schools for girls. The Florentines claim that the first Infant School was that started by the Jews of their city in 1735."—*Ibid.*, p. 220.

1880-1909.—Value of charitable endowments.—Council of charity.—Outdoor relief.—Private charities.—Industrial homes.—Farm schools for children.—Care of sick.—"The charities have a magnitude worthy of their history. The property of endowed charities (exclusive of those of religious and educational endowments) was valued

in 1880 . . . at more than £68,000,000. Of this, the hospitals had £25,000,000; orphanages, £14,000,000; charities for the relief of the poor, £11,000,000; infirmaries, nearly £5,000,000. The gross income for charitable purposes was then about £3,500,000, but taxes, estate expenses, and expenses of management absorbed 43 per cent., and the net available income was under £1,800,000. When the contributions of local authorities and private subscriptions and casual receipts are added, the total net revenue was about £3,400,000. And this amount has rapidly increased since then. In spite of the efforts of the clergy to divert generosity into ecclesiastical channels, the value of bequests to public charities in the eighteen years from 1881 to 1898 has been nearly £12,000,000.

"The control of charitable endowments is regulated by a law passed in 1890, . . . which established a Council of Charity (*Congregazione di carità*) in every commune; the Council is appointed by the Communal Council; any elector, except officials and clergy in the cure of souls, may serve, and women are eligible. The Council controls the public charities of the commune, but not, as a rule, those with an income exceeding £200, or the larger hospitals and lunatic asylums, or founding hospitals, educational foundations, and reformatories. They often manage the local *Monte di Pietà*. It has been their duty to reorganize the charities of the commune, and though they are often tied by the terms of the old deeds, and the reform of the dowry charities has been incomplete, yet they have redeemed a great number of charities from obsolete and pauperizing purposes. In some towns general schemes have been drawn up, apportioning the small endowments between the Council and the independent foundations. At Bologna the Council takes the income of 243 old charities, worth £41,000. The councils spend their funds chiefly on infirmaries, poor-houses, out-door relief, relief of the *poveri vergognosi* (the 'shame-faced poor,' who have come down from better circumstances), maternity cases, and dowries. . . . An essential part of the work of the Councils lies in the poor-houses and infirmaries, which take the place of work-houses. . . . They are infirmaries for men and women who are entirely or in part incapable of regular work, where the partially infirm are employed on light work and take one-third or two-thirds of the profits, while those who are employed in the domestic service of the house are paid a small wage. Beggars may be compelled to enter *ricovero* (sometimes there is a separate *ricovero di mendicizia*), but otherwise there is no compulsion or (apart from the loss of their vote) any taint of pauperism, and with the pleasant business of work, that is graduated to the strength of each, contrasts with the dreariness of our own workhouses. Each inmate costs about 8d. a day, and the *ricoveri* are largely subsidized by local authorities. In 1885 there were 671 *ricoveri*, with 37,000 inmates; now [1000] there are probably more. Outside the endowed charities, there is an immense amount of private charity, lay and ecclesiastical, Catholic and Protestant and unsectarian. Charity, like everything else in Italian life, has shared in the revival of late years, and the very keen interest shown in economic questions has taken shape in a multitude of agencies for the relief of the destitute and the sick. It is only possible here to refer to some of the more prominent branches of this activity. There are some excellent industrial homes for boys and girls. The *Conversini Home* at Pistoia was founded in 1880 with an endowment of £44,000

for poor boys, who are not orphans; it has two branches, industrial and agricultural, and the boys are credited with one-third of the profits of their work, their respective shares being invested in a Savings Bank, from which, as a rule, they cannot be withdrawn till they have attained their majority. There is a similar institution for 150 girls at Piacenza. Near Rome there is an excellent agricultural school for boys (*Colonia agraria fuori Porta del Popolo*), where waifs and strays are removed from city influences, and learn farm work under the charge of a cultured, earnest young priest. The Florentine Protestants have a farm-school for poor children at Trebbiolo. At Volterra orphans are boarded out with foster-parents till they are seventeen, under the supervision of doctor, priest, and committee of ladies. With characteristic Italian thoughtfulness, the children are dressed in the ordinary style of the district to which they are sent, so as to avoid the orphanage stamp. A home at Padua looks after boys from very poor or bad homes during the day, feeding them and sending the elder ones to work, the younger ones to school. The homes for abandoned children, founded by Don Bosco and the 'Coöperators of St. Francis de Sales,' give an industrial and commercial training, or in the case of the cleverer boys a classical education, which trains them to be school teachers or priests. . . . Care for the sick has been especially directed of late years towards combating consumption, which is a more than usually fatal scourge in Italy. There is a National League for the cure of consumption. A fund is being [1909] raised at Florence to found a sanatorium for children in early stages of the disease, where they will be treated on the lines of the French and German sanatoriums."—*Ibid.*, pp. 221-226.

1909-1921.—Free meals for school children.—Savings bank prizes.—Vacations.—Summary of principal charities.—"The most active philanthropic movement of the last few years has been in the provision of free meals for school children. Even at Milan there are a great many absentees from school owing to sheer poverty, and want of clothes and food is perhaps the chief reason everywhere why the law of compulsory attendance is so largely a dead letter. A little seems to have been done at Milan privately for a quarter of a century past, and in several towns (first at San Remo) the movement for municipal support began in 1896, but in the great majority of cases it dates from an appeal of the Minister of Education in the following year. The *Comitati di Patronato*, who organize it, have semi-official recognition; they generally receive grants from the State and Provincial Councils and to a larger extent from the communes, hampered though these are by the small margin of revenue that is available. At Rome the Commune grants annually £2,000, at Turin £800, at Cremona £720; at Pavia it has given £400 for the plant of the kitchen. At Milan the Municipal Council has recently taken the organization into its own hands, and proposes to find £4,000 out of a total expenditure of £5,760. The Committees supply one free meal a day to necessitous children for longer or shorter periods, sometimes for a few weeks only, sometimes for the whole winter, at Milan for ten months. At Pavia food is also sold to those who can afford to pay. Each meal costs about 1d. [2 cents]. The proportion of children, who receive free meals, varies very much; at Milan it is 16 per cent., at Pavia 28, in the villages round Perugia 68. Some Committees supply clothes in addition, some give books, copy-books, and

pencils, some give prizes for regular attendance by starting Savings Bank accounts. . . . But the work is much hampered by want of funds; sometimes suburban schools, where the need is greatest, go uncared for; and as the Milanese have recognized, the matter requires to be organized by the Municipal Councils, before it can be thoroughly carried out. In some of the larger towns the movement has expanded into an organization for taking care of children between six and ten years out of school hours in the holidays (*educatori*). Kindergarten games, cooking classes, gymnastics, and singing are held in the school buildings till the hour when the parents return from work. Every child has to wash itself daily, and on fixed days has a bath. In the vacations and on the weekly holiday on Thursdays the *educatori* are open all day, and two free meals are given. At Milan they are maintained in forty schools, at Rome, where the commune spends £3,200 on them, in fifteen. In several cities kindred societies send children to the sea or hills in the hot weather. The Florentine 'summer school' at Montepiano, which has grants from Government and the local authorities takes in sixty delicate children every summer, and teaches them during their stay. A summary of the principal charities of a few towns will show how thick is the net-work of public and private charity. Florence boasts its hospital of Santa Maria Nuova with 1,200 beds, another general and an ophthalmic hospital; the orphanage of the Bigallo, which maintains 800 abandoned or neglected children, and three other orphanages; the Foundling Hospital of the Innocenti, which takes in 700 illegitimate and 250 legitimate children every year; the *Pia Casa di Lavoro*, which shelters the infirm and educates poor children; a lunatic asylum with room for 700 inmates; a charity which spends £4,500 a year in clothes and bedding and milk for the poor; the ancient Fraternity of the Misericordia, which takes the sick and dead to hospital or burial, grants money to the sick and watches by their beds; an old charity for helping the *poveri vergognosi*; five homes for girls who have fallen or are in danger; a society to look after semi-abandoned boys who have left school; another to send scrofulous children to sea baths; a charity that gives bonuses to the savings of school children; and cheap kitchens.

. . . . Or again, the town of Piacenza, with 35,000 inhabitants, has a hospital with 400 beds, an orphanage, a home for incurables, a *Casa di Ricovero*, industrial schools for boys and girls, four infant schools, a charity to assist poor lads to an art training, a retreat for ancient priests, cheap kitchens, and several charities for doles and dowries. Cremona, with a population of 37,000, has its *Ospedale Maggiore*, dating from the fifteenth century, another general hospital, a children's hospital, a foundling hospital, a charity for sending scrofulous persons to sea baths; it has its home for the aged, which shelters 200 men and women over seventy years, its infirmary for 160 infirm paupers, a home for babies whose mothers cannot nourish them, a charity for sending delicate children to the hills, a discharged prisoners' society, and lay and ecclesiastical societies for helping the poor; an orphanage, a school for poor girls, a home for the fallen, a boys' refuge, and infant schools. The little country town of Lucignano, in the Val di Chiana, boasts its ancient hospital, its three ancient charities, now under the Council of Charity, which spends £160 a year on out-relief and maternity cases, its *confraternità di misericordia*, which helps and nurses the sick, assists at fires, and carries the dead to burial, its

infant schools, and school to teach linen-weaving."—*Ibid.*, pp. 226-230.—"Rome, where it is estimated about a quarter of the population is in the indigent class, possesses a sanitary [health] service which attends the sick poor in their own homes as well as Sanitary Stations."—*Charity Organization Review*, Jan., 1921, p. 58.—In Bologna and Milan there are respectively two famous orthopedic hospitals.

JUGO-SLAVIA

1921.—Relief of children.—Before the Peace of Neuilly, Croatia and Slavonia came under Austrian laws. While in Serbia, though the standard of living was low, there was enough to supply the simple needs of all. Great misery was caused by the long years of war, however, and it has been found necessary to provide means especially for the care and relief of children. "The Child's Bureau is a part of the Ministry of Social Welfare. It has the following purposes: to assure proper physical and mental training for the children; to collect statistics and other information relating to children and to take a census of the needy children, particularly war orphans; to investigate morbidity and mortality of children and to take the necessary preventive measures to reduce them; to work for the amendment of the present laws and regulations for the purpose of improving the situation of the children; to secure rational distribution of the government appropriations for child welfare, to supervise all government agencies concerned with child welfare; to cooperate with all other government departments and private societies interested in child welfare, and to aid them financially when necessary and supervise their activities."—*Survey*, Oct. 22, 1921, p. 122.

NORWAY

1845-1866.—Public charity organized.—"It was only in 1845 that a law was passed organising public poor-relief. This law gave to every person, in case of destitution, a legal claim to relief by the commune or district of the place where he was born, or where he had lived for at least three years between his 15th and 63d birthday; the question of dwelling-place being thus treated in much the same way as by the Prussian law of 1842. Begging was forbidden. The care of the poor was placed in the hands of commissioners who, in conjunction with the local Poor Law officials, were allowed finally to impose a tax in money and kind from year to year. In the country the old institution of the 'Laegd' was also retained, i.e., boarding the poor at a certain number of farms by turns. The law also gave the commissioners power to place able-bodied persons claiming relief, in work-houses (this idea was borrowed from England), but the power was only given at first in the case of some of the more considerable towns. . . . One peculiar part of the system was the *Skole* (school) *Laegd*; it consisted in boarding orphans, or the children of destitute parents, by turns, with the schoolmaster, when this latter had no fixed abode, but himself received board and lodging at different farms, giving instructions, in return, to the children in the neighborhood. The law of 1845, by giving the poor a legal claim to relief, and making it consequently the duty of the wealthier classes to pay regular imposts, increased the burden of the latter, whilst the motives to self-dependence in the former were weakened. But this mischievous effect of a step which was in itself necessary in

order to bring together under similar rules the chaotic elements of poor-relief, for some years escaped notice. . . . In the year 1866 the Storting went a little further by granting money to found a chief Poor Law Office under the Ministry of Improvement and Education, by which the statistics should be published annually instead of only once in five years, as hitherto. Eilert Sundt was appointed, and the first volume for 1866 . . . will be found instructive, especially through the information collected by the chairmen of the Poor Commissions, who are in general clergymen. During 15 years the whole population had only increased one-fifth, whilst the number of poor had increased one-third, and the total amount expended, reckoning relief in kind with that in money, had nearly doubled."—A. Lammers, *Sweden and Norway, in Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 195-199.

1863-1908.—Guardians of the poor.—Relief of children.—Compulsory labor establishments.—In Norway "the legal definition of the class entitled to receive help under the Poor Law is as follows: 'Those who lack the means of supporting themselves, or of providing needful attendance in case of sickness, and who are unable to earn such means and have no one who is bound to provide for them, shall be entitled to receive the necessary assistance from the poor relief fund, to such an extent and in such a manner as the guardians of the poor shall consider advisable.' Further: 'The relief which a destitute person (over fifteen years of age) has received for himself, wife, or son, the Poor Law can demand to be refunded.' The way in which the relief of the poor is organized is as follows: Every commune, *herred*, or country district and market town, has its own system of poor law administration. For the carrying out of the law relating to poor relief there is a body called the *Fattigstyre*, a term which may perhaps best be translated 'board of guardians of the poor.' This consists of (1) the parish priest, but if there should be several in the district, one of them, nominated by the bishop; (2) in towns, one of the magistrates, or the chief of the police or other police official; (3) so many men or women as the town or country council shall determine. These bodies have under them a number of paid officials, inspectors, etc., for the carrying out of their work. Those who are selected as members of the *Fattigstyre* are obliged to serve if they are under sixty years of age, and they must also attend to the duties of the board, a failure to be present at a meeting without reasonable excuse rendering the member liable to a fine of 5 kroner. The indigent are cared for either in public or private homes, or in their own houses, or the workhouse, or hospital, according to the nature of the case. When the *Fattigstyre* are deciding what form the relief is to take, they are obliged carefully to consider the various circumstances, and especially to see if the person applying is able to do anything to help himself or herself. In the case of children, where it is found that they cannot be provided for along with their parents, they are boarded out or sent to homes, and every effort is made to place them in a family or home, where they will have opportunities of learning some trade or occupation, which will enable them to maintain themselves later. . . . Closely connected with the question of the relief of the poor, and forming a part of the Poor Law system, are the various compulsory labour establishments (*Tvangsarbeidsanstalter*), which have been doing excellent work for a considerable time. These are

to be found in the principal towns of Norway, including Christiania, Bergen, and Trondhjem. They are intended to deal with a variety of cases in which men fail to support their families or children, and with the vagrant classes who prefer to wander over the country begging, and possibly stealing, instead of doing regular work. These institutions were originally founded under a law passed in 1803, but more recent legislation, that of 1802, has extended their scope."—T. B. Willson, *Norway at home*, pp. 172-175.

RUSSIA

1901-1918.—Old Russian views of charity.—Public charities controlled by officials.—"Institutions of Empress Marie."—Peasant care of orphan children.—Work of Zemstvos.—"The old Russian benefactor," a Moscow professor says, 'did not so much intend to raise by his good work the standard of the general social welfare as to attain in a higher degree to his own moral perfection. Hence pauperism was not dealt with in ancient Russia as an economical evil, as a plague of the social order, but rather as a practical institution for moral education.' In short, charity did not exist because there were poor and downtrodden people; but the poor and downtrodden people existed in order that charity might be practiced. It was a part of the divine order of things; therefore pauperism was not to be destroyed or even alleviated, but simply to be used for the soul's salvation."—P. Milyoukov, *Russia and its crisis*, p. 71.

In 1901, Frederick Palmer, in a study of Russian life, speaking on this subject, said: "The question of charities in Russia leads up to another phase in the moral character of the people, to which I must allude. . . . In Russia, where all is under bureaucratic direction, the public charities are entirely controlled by officials, and mainly supported by grants from the Government, though gifts and legacies from private persons are also made upon a liberal scale. A large proportion of these charities, existing in all parts of the Empire, are grouped together under the name of the 'Institutions of the Empress Marie,' and are governed by the board of directors, officials of ministerial rank, appointed by the Emperor personally. These 'institutions' comprise asylums, schools, and hospitals of almost every kind, from boarding-schools in which the orphan daughters of officials of high rank, but in reduced fortunes, are educated, to asylums for the aged poor and foundlings. Official charities, the functionaries of which are responsible to their hierarchical superiors alone, are rarely satisfactory, and it must be admitted that this rule applies to most of the State-supported charities in Russia. Fortunately, as I have already mentioned, the natural character of the Russian people themselves supplies many of the deficiencies in charities supported by the State. Among the very poorest peasants and working classes, nothing is more common than to find one or more orphan children, perhaps left by complete strangers, adopted as a matter of course; and only as a last resort would the foster-parents appeal for help in maintaining them, when in dire distress themselves."—F. H. E. Palmer, *Russian life in town and country*, pp. 300-311.

Three years later [1904] C. R. Henderson described the functioning of charitable work under the Zemstvos: "Most of the work of public assistance rests with local administrative bodies, under the jurisdiction of the

Minister of the Interior. There is, however, no central organization, no uniformity of regulations, no system of general reports. To understand the situation it is necessary to have in mind the general forms of local government in European Russia. The country is divided into 50 'governments' or provinces, each with a governor at its head, and these provinces are divided into from 5 to 15 districts. Each district and province has its Zemstvo, or popular assembly. That of the district, presided over by the marshal of the nobility, is elected by the property owners of the district and in turn elects the provincial Zemstvo. The cities have somewhat similar councils presided over by the mayor. The rural units of government are the volosts or cantons, composed of communes, and the mirs, or communes, which number some 30 to 35 families. Both volosts and mirs have their assemblies. They have charge of the aged, orphans and cripples and of such endowed institutions as exist. These are few in number. Most peasant charity takes the form of almsgiving or family care of an unfortunate neighbor. Upon the Zemstvos and city councils rests the care of schools, hospitals, charitable institutions, public granaries and sanitary service. They appoint special committees of charity administration which work in connection with the heads of institutions. In the provinces which have no Zemstvos, the old bureaus of charity continue to act, less efficiently than the Zemstvos."—C. R. Henderson, *Modern methods of charity*, p. 634.—When the soviet form of government was established in 1918, all previous forms of charities were abolished. The Soviet constitution bound the state to provide for all those who are unable to work.

SCOTLAND

1908-1911.—Care of children.—Free lodging houses.—Free meals in Edinburgh.—"Under the new Education Act for Scotland of 1908, large powers are given for feeding and clothing destitute children under certain conditions, and in Edinburgh action is already being taken by the Board to give effect to the various clauses. . . . One hundred and fifty charities show an annual income of £255,070. . . . Let us look a little closer and discover how this vast sum is distributed. In the report by the special commissioners of the Royal Commission, we find that in Edinburgh there are ten different lodging-houses, or shelters, for destitute men, women, and children. These lodging-houses provide in all 500 beds, at a cost of over £6000, where a free night's lodging can be had, and a meal night and morning. 'On Sundays large numbers who have had their porridge and milk in the morning at the Night Asylum, secure the breakfast given by the Sabbath Free Breakfast Mission. If they choose they can obtain later on in the morning a bun and some coffee at another mission, and return to the Asylum for a dinner of soup and bread. Free teas are also given on other days of the week by some of the missions, and, altogether, there seem to be many opportunities of obtaining free meals in Edinburgh.' . . . Perhaps the most interesting of the charities at the present moment are those for supplying food and clothes to children attending the board schools. . . . In Edinburgh, there are nine funds or associations for providing food and clothing for necessitous school children. They can provide 145,000 meals during the year, and they claim to have assisted 6000 children. Their joint income varies,

but appears to be considerably over £2000 a year. It is difficult to get any figures as to the percentage of underfed children in the schools.

. . . An experienced officer of the Edinburgh School Board makes a guess of 5 per cent. If this is anywhere near the truth, it would give 2039 children in Edinburgh who have to be dealt with and considered. All that public sentiment at present demands is that the child should have one hot meal each school day for six winter months. This can be given at the cost of 16s. per child. It would thus seem that our voluntary charities were able to meet the need, and that all that was wanted was that they should work together, and make sure that they are reaching the right children, and that their service is in every way sufficient and good. There are also two societies which give country holidays to children, and between them they send away about 3000 children in the year. . . . Edinburgh is very rich in pension charities. Their gross yearly income amounts to £42,374, and appears to be distributed, by thirty agencies, among a selected class of 2281 persons."—Mrs. G. Kerr, *Path of social progress*, pp. 78, 112, 114, 117, 124-125.

1909-1919.—Old age pensions.—Ministry of health. See above, Great Britain.

SWEDEN

1571-1873.—Ecclesiastical relief.—State regulation of local relief.—"The first State law which laid the foundation of public poor-relief, was the Church ordinance of 1571. This fact is very characteristic of Sweden, which, even to the present day [1873] has kept up a closer connection between Church and State than any other Protestant country, such as among Catholic countries perhaps Spain only has maintained. No one ventured, as yet, to forbid begging altogether. It was, however, partly attempted to restrain it from without, since it was linked with a kind of public credentials, a 'beggars pass' prepared by the bishop; and this only could be required to be read by the clergyman from the pulpit, that is to say, made known publicly and recommended to notice; the pulpit is so used, even to this day, within certain districts of Scandinavia. In part, too, an attack was made on mendicancy from within, by making regular collections on all festive occasions, the proceeds of which went to a special poor-fund, as well as by instituting special places of refuge for the helpless poor. Near every cathedral a hospital was to be erected, and maintained in such a way that it might contain at least 30 persons; and in every parish there were to be one or more rooms capable of containing from four to six poor sick persons. . . .

As to the relief of the poor in general, or as the task was then chiefly understood, the suppression of begging, the necessary (legislative) measures were taken on an average once in a generation. The Beggar's Order of 1642 fixed the duty of support on the parish, which, in the Ecclesiastical Order of 1571 had been merely hinted at for the first time; urged the duty of providing more rooms for the sick; and, on the other hand, restricted and further modified the beggar passes. The old rule of the provincial laws, that any property left by a person receiving relief in a hospital should go to the hospital, was revived. Poor-relief was also the subject of the Ecclesiastical Law of 1686. This law confined the right of begging strictly to the parish more strenuously, and required, from every person of means, a

yearly gift for the support 'of his needy fellow-Christians.' If any parish was overburdened with poor, the neighbouring parishes were to render assistance.

"The Beggar's Order of 1698 granted the requisite legal machinery, and in order to strengthen the Ecclesiastical Law of 1686, forbade all begging beyond the beggar's own parish. At the same time, the poor-funds were augmented by certain dues from weddings, baptisms, and burials, from the sale of houses, inheritance, etc. Every ship which sailed upon the West Sea, that is to say, the ocean beyond the Kattegat, was bound to take out every four years a poor lad as ship's boy, and so on. A law of 1734 defined more exactly the duty of building rooms or houses for the poor. In the course of the eighteenth century, a time as is well known, when philanthropy was practised in many cases despotically by the higher classes, the State began to interfere more minutely with local poor-relief, without, however, any special success. Broomé tells us, for instance, that within three years it prescribed the model of an economical plan for a poor-house in each parish, and again it let it drop. The Royal Orders of 1788 and 1811 at length conclusively laid down the main principles which had up to this time been worked out by practice, and by the law handed down, on the subject. They made it tolerably clear on the one hand, that every parishioner, not himself in receipt of relief, must help to bear the burden of the poor. On the other hand, they disposed of the question of settlement less satisfactorily. The districts were no longer to be able to send back persons fully capable of work, in order to free themselves from the burden of their eventual maintenance; hence arose not only great uncertainty as to the limits of this idea, and great variety in its actual definition, but even a regular so-called 'war of parishes,' one parish seeking to shift on another the burden springing from the necessary relief of the migratory poor."—A. Lammers, *Sweden and Norway*, in *Poor relief in different parts of Europe* (A. Emminghaus, ed.), pp. 186-190.

1809-1914.—Provisions of poor law of 1847.—Law of 1871.—Workhouses and infirmaries.—Children of the poor.—Boarding out.—Poor law farm.—Charitable homes.—"The founders of the constitution of 1809 [drew] attention to the necessity of investigating all conditions pertaining to poor relief and of promulgating regulations for the whole kingdom based on that investigation. However, the first general poor law for Sweden did not appear before 1847. Certain principles were then established for the giving of poor relief, but the various communities were left free to regulate the details according to local conditions; yet *begging had to be prevented*. Up to then it had been regularly permitted, though under strict control, as being the right way for the destitute to obtain the necessities of life. The poor relief ordinance now in force, issued June 9th, 1871, are mainly founded on those of 1847, with partial alterations and additions made before 1871 and since. They ordain that every able-bodied man shall, without burdening the poor law union, provide for himself and his children under age, *i.e.*, under 15 years; the same shall apply to the support of his wife, it being understood that parents and children are bound to support each other, in proportion as the one part needs it and the other can bestow it. Servants and other working dependents, together with their wives and children under age who are at home, shall be supported by their master so long as the

contract for work runs. Necessary relief *shall* be provided for minors, and for those who are, by reason of age, sickness, disablement, or other defect, incapable of supporting themselves and lack means of maintenance or other relief. In other cases, support *may* be given after investigation by the Board of Guardians. Every town and parish in the country forms a *community for poor relief*. Application for support shall be made in the parish where the necessitous person is living, but the cost of the support enjoined by law shall be met by the parish where he has his settlement. . . . The Poor Law Guardians are bound, on receipt of application for relief, to inquire carefully into the applicant's position and needs, and into how far such relief should be afforded; to see that necessitous children not only receive maintenance, but also a fixed abode and Christian education; to take note that support given is properly applied, and, with that object, to divide the community into districts, each under the inspection of a special Guardian; and to superintend special districts and private Unions for poor relief, where they exist. . . . Everyone who solicits alms by word or gesture, from any other than the person appointed by the community to receive application for poor relief, is considered to have been *begging*. Within every poor law parish, there shall exist a competent number of overseers, whose duty it is to stop beggars and institute an examination of them. If the detained man is in a necessitous condition, he receives relief; otherwise he is warned and may in more serious cases be sentenced to compulsory labour. The same consequences threaten any who permits a child under age to beg, whether it is his own or under his guardianship. . . .

"Indoor relief is afforded in institutions or homes to various classes of the poor. In larger towns are to be found work-houses and infirmaries for the destitute—with departments for chronic cases of sickness, either physical or mental—homes for the aged and for children, asylums for the homeless and for women in confinement and for nursing mothers, night refuges, etc. Pauper children are likewise *boarded out* in simple but good private homes; this is in rural parts the usual means of provision with respect to pauper children, and is also resorted to for elder people. In those parishes where no parochial institutions are to be found, or such as do exist are inadequate, outdoor relief is frequently given. In 1912, over the whole kingdom, outdoor relief was given to 60.8% of all in receipt of relief. The danger of abuse in this system is, nevertheless, great, and at the same time aversion to seeking this form of relief is so slight as to create a temptation to apply for help without necessity. A well managed *poor law farm*, with work on the land, has proved to be remunerative for parish and inmates alike; the weakly ones obtain needful care, while those who have more or less working capacity there get farm-work after their ability, and are strictly kept to its performance. . . . During the centuries which elapsed after the reformation, before a definite poor law for the whole country was set up, a number of institutions were developed, which may be indicated as transitional forms between public and private enterprise. In the 16th and 17th centuries, the State, or the reigning sovereign and his family, without the co-operation of the parishes, erected homes for the aged and the sick and for the care and education of children, and these establishments were maintained by the founder and private benefactors

together. Among such places there are still in operation a great number. . . .

"During the first half of the 19th century, very few institutions of the afore-mentioned character were founded. On the other hand, associations for the purpose of giving assistance in one way or another are beginning to appear. . . . In the latter half of the same century, active organization of every kind of institution prevailed, and associations were formed to assist those who, in various ways, were in need. At last, in the last decades of the century, it became a clearly necessary task to systematise the confusion of activities and to establish co-operation among them, and between them and the poor law. At the same time, it became clear that the prevention of distress was more urgent than the attempt to mitigate it, and that to prevent distress was the only way to be able at some future time to get rid of it altogether. . . . Homes of different kinds have also been organized for the misguided, fallen, and unfortunate in mind or body. Attempts have been made to supply work to the unemployed; cheap dwellings have been provided for people with very little ability to pay rent, and the homeless have obtained temporary refuge in night-lodgings and shelters. . . . Following an example set in London, the *Charity Organization Society* (Föreningen för Vålgörenhetens Ordande, commonly called F. V. O.), was founded in Stockholm in 1880. Its mission is to secure in the capital collaboration, irrespective of differences of religious or political opinions, between benevolent private persons, institutions, or associations, and the poor law boards; and, consequently, while striving to check mendicity, it strives so to concentrate and regulate all available strength as to permanently improve, with a united and systematic action, the condition of those who are in need of help. . . . Associations with a similar purpose as F. V. O., though under different names, have been started in several Swedish towns and have—like the one in Stockholm—been of great value, not least of all by checking begging."—A. Montelius, *Poor relief (Sweden, Historical and Statistical Handbook, 2nd ed., pp. 293-301)*.

1912-1921.—Care of Cripples.—"In Sweden the State has appointed a Committee consisting of individuals with special knowledge of all aspects of the care of cripples, and since 1912 it has been held as a principle that the State should contribute one half of all expenses involved in the scheme. Three large institutions for cripples already exist in Stockholm, Gothen and Helsingborg. Each institution includes an orthopedic hospital, a general education school, and a trade school. Originally they were founded by the Central Society for cripples, and they are maintained by the contributions of the State by local contributions from the various districts, and by ordinary voluntary contributions."—*Survey (Graphic), Nov. 26, 1921, pp. 311-312*.

SWITZERLAND

Early difficulties.—"Mediaeval relief in Switzerland . . . was administrated by the church, through parish and monastic agencies, and by indiscriminate and impulsive almsgiving. The plague of beggars spread through the valleys of Switzerland. . . . The same causes everywhere produced similar results; the breaking up of serfdom and feudal control of the habit of wandering, the vicious customs of almsgiving without consideration of effects on character, and the inadequacy of ecclesiastical machinery to deal with sturdy

mendicant rogues, all increased the swarm of parasites. The evil was aggravated in this land by the custom of sending out mercenary soldiers to earn their living in foreign armies. Military life demoralized young men; the long absence of husbands broke up homes; and of those who returned many were without skill and habits of regular industry. The ordinary agencies of relief could not manage this dangerous and aggressive element of the population, and it was found to be necessary to invoke the police power of the governments to give security to life, property and order. The first intervention of government was therefore repressive, punitive, deterrent; and the cantons enacted strict regulations against begging and vagabondage. Since the principle of local responsibility for local dependents had long been accepted, the cantonal authorities required those who sought assistance to make their appeal to their neighbors in their own commune."—C. R. Henderson, *Modern methods of charity*, pp. 138-139.

1844-1921.—Variety of laws due to communal system.—Society of Public Utility.—It is difficult to give a clear account of Swiss charities owing to the fact that different laws maintain in the different cantons, to the peculiar communal system of local government which exists, and to the fact that some of the communes still possess fairly adequate public resources in common lands, while others are not so well endowed. For instance, Bern passed a law in 1857, under which voluntary contributions are eked out by a communal subsidy; under the law of 1897 Basel has a bureau of alms through which orphans are provided for and also the aged over sixty years. These latter, however, must have resided in the canton for twenty-five years, including five full years of unbroken residence immediately preceding the appeal for aid. Later laws passed in Basel (in 1885 and 1891) provide for burial funds and for care of the sick. Aid is given to the transient poor under certain circumstances; but only after a residence of two years in the canton, and even then their home authorities are called upon for assistance. It is impossible to draw a definite line between public and private charities. The outstanding ideas are that every citizen who falls into evil days is entitled to help, and every child to shelter, clothing and education. The care of the poor is . . . left largely to the Communes. When a commune possesses insufficient funds, or no funds at all for the poor, the latter are relieved by voluntary contributions, and this matter is in such circumstances left as much as possible to charitable associations, the establishment of which the communal authorities must endeavor to promote. The communal councils can also institute special committees for charitable purposes."—G. Lloyd, *Sovereign people*, p. 106.—"Every inhabitant of a commune must be inscribed at the police office, and be prepared to show at all times that he is a member of the commune. . . . This regulation is strictly enforced especially where the party is in any danger of becoming a public burden. Every commune is absolutely protected against being compelled to support the vagrants or beggars of other communes. The idea that it is the duty of the commune to take care of its poor, the unfortunate and incapable, is firmly planted in the mind and breast of every member. They will try to prevent an hereditary or professional pauper from acquiring a domicile in the commune, and to return to their own communes shiftless persons that are likely to need aid, but are ready to relieve every case of destitution

which fairly belongs to the commune."—H. Waterson, *Swiss republic*, p. 188.—The commune of Grindelwald may be cited as an example of communal relief. There "the poor are relieved in three different ways. For the regular paupers there is a cantonal official who comes up from Interlaken, makes his inspection and pays for their maintenance out of cantonal funds; other less necessitous persons and poor people passing through the commune are relieved by one special committee, while yet another provides for the 'wants of the sick poor.'"—F. O. Adams and C. D. Cunningham, *Swiss Confederation*, pp. 111-112.

"Nothing could give a better idea of the practical philanthropy everywhere at work in Switzerland than a brief survey of some of the ways in which this Society of Public Utility expends its efforts. Every canton has its branch of the society except Schwyz and Valais. But besides the cantonal sections, there are thirty-one district sub-sections, of which ten are in Aargau, eleven in Zurich, five in Soleure, four in Berne, and one in St. Gall. . . . The world over, there are never wanting objects for commiseration and timely succour; but such cases appear to be more than usually common in Switzerland, where, what with flood, avalanches, fires (often caused by lightning), to say nothing of the common accidents of everyday life, there is an ever-active call upon the goodwill of the willing. . . . It may be noted that, in view of the frequency of such catastrophes, arising from the untamable forces of nature, several cantons, among them being Berne, St. Gall, Thurgau, and the Grisons, have established special funds for the benefit of those who suffer from disasters of the kind, and every year a special collection is made for the replenishment of the treasury. . . . One of the most striking features of Swiss beneficence is the thought and care which it has always devoted to the young. Its principle of actions seems to be, 'Start the plant right, and it will grow strong.' Cantonal governments vie with private charity in their generous efforts on behalf of the young. Rural asylums and country colonies, together with societies of every description for the protection of children, multiply themselves on every hand. . . . It would be impossible to refer to a tithe of these various agencies; but I may mention, among others, the agricultural and industrial colony of Serix in the canton of Vaud, founded in 1863; the colony of Sonnenberg, near Lucerne, established in 1859 by the Society of Public Utility, above referred to; the *Solidarité*, a Vaudois society for the protection of unfortunate children; and the Geneva committee for the care of abandoned children, dating from 1892. . . . So I might mention the Bernese establishments of the Gotthelf society, the first of which was opened [about 1880], . . . the Zurich society for the succour of abandoned children, dating from 1865; and the asylum for children at Mendrisio, in the canton of Tessin, to which a noble Tessinese, Giovanni Bernasconi, . . . left a large part of his fortune. Besides *crèches* innumerable in the larger towns, and *Cuisines scolaires*, founded so that school children who have to go long distances from home may have good warm dinners in the cold and wet season, the philanthropy which focusses itself chiefly upon the young has also thought of the children who, cooped up in the narrow streets of towns and cities, would seldom get a breath of the pure air of the country or of the mountains were it not for the 'vacation colonies' which have been provided for that purpose. Pastor Bion, of

Zurich, was the original promoter of these holiday colonies, which are now to be found in most parts of Switzerland. The Genevese, always a little in advance, have pushed their solicitude for the welfare of the young even beyond the vacation colonies amid the hills and among the lakes of the home land, and have a committee at work which every year sends a number of children and young people suffering from scrofula and other similar complaints to Cettes, Cannes, and Sestri-Levante (Liguria) for the benefit of the sea-air and the bathing. . . . I do not know whether Switzerland produces, in proportion to its population, a larger number of deaf-mutes, blind, idiots, or children suffering from epilepsy, than other countries. It certainly has its share, and they constitute a by no means light burden for those who are blessed with the altruistic spirit. Fortunately there is no lack of that spirit in this land of democracy, and so for the care of those who come into the world deficient in respect to sight, hearing, or intelligence, there are throughout the Confederation no fewer than thirty-one institutions, most of them supported by public or private beneficence. One of these establishments, that of Zurich, is for the blind as well as for the deaf and dumb. Two others, one at Könitz, near Berne, and the other at Lausanne, receive only the blind. The latter, among other things, makes a feature of teaching its inmates basket and wicker-chair making, etc. It was founded by the philanthropist Haldimand, and dates from 1844. Fifteen of these institutions are for deaf-mutes, and are distributed through the cantons of Aargau, Basel, Berne, Freiburg, Geneva, the Grisons, Lucerne, St. Gall, Tessin, Vaud, Valais, and Zurich. Thirteen establishments are devoted to the care and education of children intellectually deficient. Two of these—one at Bagensberg, Zurich (founded in 1863), and the other at Weinfelden, in Thurgau (dating from 1805)—were established by that Society of Public Utility which puts its hand to so many good works. . . . Next to infancy and youth, old age lays claim to the attention of Swiss philanthropy. Nor does it ask in vain, as is proved by the long list of charitable institutions specially reserved for the aged which are to be found in every canton of the Confederation. The canton of Basel alone possesses six asylums for the aged, infirm, and incurable, besides a general fund for widows and orphans, which is one of the oldest philanthropic organisations in Switzerland. The canton of Geneva, never behind in these matters, has two such institutions for the aged, one at Anières, with one hundred and fifty pensioners averaging seventy years of age, and another, supported by the State, at Petit-Saconnex. . . . The canton of Vaud is equally thoughtful of its aged poor, but it manages matters in a different way. The Government supports an organisation for the care of those of its old people who are infirm, or suffering from incurable disease, and there is, besides, a 'society for the succour of poor persons hopelessly afflicted,' with about one hundred and fifty persons always on its books. But both these organisations, instead of maintaining special establishments, place their patients out in private families. There is, however, at Chailly, near Lausanne, an asylum of the general type for old people of both sexes, *pauvre et mal-heureux*. Other institutions of the kind . . . abound in all the cantons, to the number, in all, of eighty-one, some private, others State-supported, some connected with religious organisations, others not.

. . . I refer to the sanatoria conducted specially for the benefit of persons suffering from tuberculosis. . . . The poor, unaided, cannot afford to go to such places, and so philanthropy in Switzerland has stepped in and opened a number of sanatoria. . . . The sanatorium at Heiligenschwendli, in the canton of Berne, is said to be the first establishment of its kind on the Continent of Europe. . . . [There is also] one at Leysin (canton of Vaud); . . . one at Davos . . . and a third at Braunwald in the canton of Glarus. . . . Zurich also supports a sanatorium at Wald, and Neuchâtel one at Malvilliers."—A. T. Story, *Swiss life in town and country*, pp. 79-81, 83-86, 89-91.—To the vacation colonies are sent feeble children those who are sickly, or badly nourished, from large families of the poor. The physician indicates the children who shall be sent, but the members of the Directors Committees have also an important task to fill, that of making an exact enquiry into the families of the children. The Colonies are designed to contribute not only to the physical well-being of the children, but also to exercise an enduring moral influence. These children who often come from unsympathetic, and sometimes corrupt surroundings, learn to know the joys and benediction of a well-ordered family. They are habituated to cleanliness, good manners, order. They are taught also to play with good nature and in general all things good and noble, and something of the impression will endure. The cost of the colonies is covered by special societies . . . from funds provided by subscriptions, legacies, gifts, interest on capital, charitable performances, contributions by the State, Communes, societies, savings banks, banks, and parents of children.—From C. A. Schmid, *L'assistance légale des indigents en Suisse*, pp. 208, 209.

ALSO IN: C. M. Henderson, *Modern methods of charity*.

UNITED STATES

1642-1779.—Poor relief in colonial days.—Law of settlement.—Apprenticeship of pauper children.—Overseers.—Almshouses.—"The town records of New England amply show that the early settlers were determined that wilful poverty should find no lodgment in the new England. The poor would be helped, but it must be proved that they could no longer help themselves and had no kin who owed them support. Vagrancy . . . had become a scourge in old England. In the new land the bread that fed the tramp must come from the scanty store of the laboring man, depriving his little ones. If these factors of Old-World experience, of present poverty, of necessity for great individual exertion, are given due weight in our consideration of the chill and unsympathetic annals of these first American overseers of the poor, a flood of understanding will attend our study of the upgrowth of our present-day system of poor relief with its complicated law of settlement and its long continuance of the town as the primary agent in public charity. . . . As early as 1642 Plymouth Colony placed upon each town the obligation to support its own poor. This was no more than a revoicing of the practice already established. By the English law, to which the minds of the colonists were schooled, the support of the poor was a local burden for which the parish or hamlet was responsible. It was, therefore, an ingrained part of the theory of New England village life that the town was liable for the support of those persons who, through sickness,

misfortune, or old age, were unable to help themselves. . . . Hence the question disturbing the selectmen of the towns was not whether the town owed the duty of support for its own poor; it was the truly perplexing question of identification; Who were the town's poor? . . . [Stringent measures were taken to prevent poor persons from outside sections from becoming inhabitants, and by degrees the Settlement Law was evolved.] New England town government is effected through a committee known as the selectmen. These officials had in the first decades the duty of aiding the poor. In later times the English pattern was followed by electing overseers of the poor. Boston created such a separate body for the first time in 1691. Plymouth selected two overseers in 1779. . . . Though the older settlements resorted early to the expedient of housing their poor under a single roof, it may be taken as a general statement that almshouse care was not common till after 1700. Thus, for nearly a century, it was usual to deal with each case individually as it arose. . . . There was no compunction in winding up a household, placing the children with various parties by indenture, and even putting the parents out to service, in order to prevent a public expense. . . . When public relief did become necessary, the chief aim was to avoid as much of the burden as possible. . . . 'Going on the town' was rated a catastrophe of the first order, a refinement of poverty exceeded only by the inevitable hunger and exposure which must otherwise ensue. Much more fortunate were they who, though in need of some assistance were nevertheless possessed of such means as would save them from going completely upon the town. Partial measures were much more humane. It was common to aid poor inhabitants who were near to dependency by granting them an abatement of taxes, by increasing their rights in the common lands, or even by contributing toward the building of a house for them. With the exception of votes of money or other relief to widows, this form of partial help toward self-support is by far the most frequent in the first few decades. . . . As the towns grew older there was no escape from a steady increase in the number of those who for various reasons, including their own vicious courses, must be given food and shelter. . . . The aim was to dispose of the poor as cheaply as possible. To search out the best conditions for the individual pauper by some modern system of case work or home finding was not practicable as the machinery for such investigation did not exist. It was quite natural, therefore, that the towns fell into the habit of allowing the public to offer terms. It became the custom, universal among our Massachusetts communities, to bid off the support of the town's poor at public auction. . . . For decades in the history of our almshouse system the jail was the only other institution where individuals were housed; and it was natural enough, therefore, to gather together under this single roof for the poor all manner of persons of what condition soever, who were either unable or unwilling to do for themselves. Of the worthy poor, there were the widow who was beyond self-support; the little child left orphan or sired by the incompetent; the idiot who was the grinning butt of public ridicule; the maniac; the lame; the halt; and the blind. They were gathered together in the same enclosure, sometimes, but not always, with separate sleeping quarters. It was common to provide a separate room for the furiously mad, as their ravings

made life intolerable for the rest. . . . By 1712 the almshouse had become a Bridewell and house of correction where all manner of vicious persons were congregated to the great detriment of the worthy poor. . . . In 1713 a vote passed the town meeting directing the overseers of the poor 'to receive no person into the Alms House . . . other than such as are proper objects of the charity of this town.' . . . The lack of regular employment in the Boston house was the cause, no doubt, of the proposal that a work-house be set up for the able-bodied. This proposal was not adopted until 1735. . . . The story of almshouse care in Boston is, with due allowance for the complication due to her location as the chief port of the region, the story of almshouse care in other places. Almshouses were shelters where all classes of dependents were housed, fed, and clothed. Unclassified grouping tended to level the best down to the grade of the worst."—R. W. Kelso, *History of public poor relief in Massachusetts, 1620-1920*, pp. 33, 48-49, 93, 95-97, 103, 107, 113-114, 117.

1853-1908.—Outdoor relief.—Private societies.—Charities endorsement committee.—"Outdoor relief in the United States is given [written in 1908] by county and township officials; and from its nature the bookkeeping is likely to be faulty, especially as to the number of persons aided. In most Western States, as, for instance, in California, there is no State official to whom the county and township authorities are called upon to report. They publish no annual accounts, except such as may be found in the local papers annually or semi-annually; and those who have undertaken to study the problem of outdoor relief in these States have had to get their facts by personal visits or correspondence with the local officials. In twenty-four States, relief of the poor in their homes is legally authorized, and several others may authorize it at discretion; only a few Southern States give outdoor relief. . . . Under the law of 1853 in Indiana, poor relief was given by the trustees of more than 1000 townships; the amount was left to their judgment, and they might in their own discretion send the applicants for relief to the county poor asylum or grant them relief in their homes or transportation to the next township. The Boards of County Commissioners were also permitted to give annual allowances and medical aid. Under this system, very serious abuses grew up. The township trustee, elected by popular vote, was inexperienced, poorly paid, and subject to political pressure and the demands of friends; the County Commissioners often gave when the trustees refused. Under this system, the average amount paid in outdoor relief between 1890 and 1895 was \$550,000 annually. The first step toward reform was a law secured by the State Board of Charities in 1894, requiring accurate statistics of the relief given to be reported to a State officer. The information obtained was startling: one in every 31 of the State's inhabitants was receiving relief, the proportion in different counties varying from 1 in 13 to 1 in 208; in some of the richest counties the number aided was 1 in 16 to 1 in 20. As a result of agitation on the basis of this information, a law was passed in 1899, which is said to be the first application of charity organization principles to an entire State. The law provided for the investigation of each case by the overseer of the poor; for securing the help of the friends and relatives of the applicant; for compelling the able-bodied members of the family to work; for refusing transporta-

tion to all except the sick, aged, injured, or crippled, and them only in the direction of their legal residences; for coöperation with private relief societies; for limiting the relief power of the County Commissioners, and the amount of temporary aid.

"The Catholic Order of the Little Sisters of the Poor maintains, in various large cities, homes for the aged, to which persons are admitted without regard to creed or character, if only they are amenable to the rules of the house after admission. These homes are supported entirely by the Sisters, who beg from door to door, and from office to office, and go at the close of business to the markets and stores to collect the refuse, or whatever may be given by the owners; and who further collect from hotels, restaurants, and private dwellings the broken victuals and other material that can be used. These homes are models of order, and the Sisters, most of whom come from France, where is the mother house of the order, have good control of the very querulous and often exacting inmates, whom they speak of as 'the children.' The United Hebrew Charities throughout the country, whose charitable methods might serve as models for the benevolent work of other religious bodies, endeavor to take care of all their own poor, but do not exclude other poor from the benefits of many of their institutions. At the same time their individual members are often most liberal contributors to every sort of constructive work undertaken by persons of other religious views.

In San Francisco, a method has been devised to induce the public, and especially business men, to give only to such institutions and charities as are endorsed by an expert committee. The Charities Endorsement Committee is made up of representatives from the Merchants' Association, the Associated Charities, and the Charities at Large, and its secretary is the secretary of the Associated Charities. The Committee investigates all charitable enterprises applying to it for endorsement, and issues an official card to those doing honest and efficient work. The members of the Merchants' Association, representing a majority of the moneyed men of the city, refused to give unendorsed charities, and the general public is being slowly educated to do likewise. The plan, while rousing the resentment of all fraudulent charities and of many that were far behind the demands of modern philanthropy in their standards, has proved successful in driving the former from the city, and in inducing many of the latter to make an effort to meet the requirements."—A. G. Warner, *American charities*, pp. 226-232, 380-384.

1863-1908.—State boards of charity.—"The demand for State regulation of private charities is rapidly strengthening, and at the present time [1908] about one-half the States require supervision by some board, generally the Board of Charities, with various degrees of power by inspection, license, and control. . . . Soon after the conclusion of the Civil War, there was a movement in some of the older and wealthier States to establish public supervisory agencies known as State Boards of Charities. This was part of the general tendency to amplify and improve the administrative machinery of our State governments of the creation of boards or commissions for the care of the public health, and for the collection of statistics regarding labor. The first board for the supervision of charities was established in Massachusetts in 1863, and Ohio and New York followed with similar boards

in 1867. Illinois, Pennsylvania, and Rhode Island established boards in 1869. In 1907 there were 21 supervisory boards of charities and correction, and 12 boards of administrative control, in the United States. In the main, these State Boards are of two general types, one having powers of supervision and report only, and the other having powers of control over the charitable institutions of the State. Typical boards of control are now found in Rhode Island, Kansas, Iowa, Wisconsin, and other States. They are usually made up of salaried members, limited in number,—usually not more than six,—who are the trustees of the public charitable institutions and who have extensive executive power. They are charged with the maintenance, government, and direct supervision of State institutions, appoint their superintendents or wardens, and generally purchase all staple supplies."—*Ibid.*, pp. 388, 425-426.

1872-1908.—Voluntary supervision of private institutions.—New York Association.—"In several States there have grown up associations for the voluntary unofficial supervision of public charitable institutions in coöperation with the official boards. Of these the most important is the State Charities Aid Association of New York, organized in 1872, with the object of bringing about reforms in the poorhouses, the almshouses, and the State charitable institutions of New York, through the active interest of an organized body of voluntary visitors, acting in coöperation with and as an aid to the local administration of these institutions and the official State boards of supervision. Upon the nomination of the State Charities Aid Association, through its board of managers, district supreme courts are authorized to grant to the visitors of the Association orders enabling them to visit, inspect, and examine on behalf of the Association any of the public charitable institutions owned by the State, county, township, or city, the poorhouses and almshouses within the State of New York, such visitors, to be responsible to the counties from which these institutions receive their inmates. The Association reports annually to the State Board of Charities and the State Commission of Lunacy upon matters relative to the institutions subject respectively to the inspection and control of these two official bodies. The New York Association has a central board of managers, largely of New York City, and visiting committees in 43 counties with a total of more than 1000 volunteer visitors to country, city, and town almshouses, State Hospitals for the Insane, County Homes for Children, City Hospitals, and other public charities. The Association is supported entirely through voluntary contributions, refusing to receive money from public sources in order to remain free from outside influences. It maintains a salaried secretary and assistant secretary, prints a valuable annual report, and occasionally pamphlets on subjects of special interest connected with relief, at a total cost of about \$30,000 per year. Such an agency as this would manifestly be a nuisance unless wisely managed, and would result in legalized meddling. But actually the Association has secured very large results through its voluntary inspection of public institutions. Chiefly through its exertions a higher standard of care has been introduced into every almshouse in the State; a training school for nurses was established at Bellevue Hospital in 1873, and in 1874 a hospital book and newspaper society to provide reading matter for the inmates; the farming out of the poor has been abolished; a

society for instruction in First Aid to the Injured, training schools for nurses for the insane and municipal lodging houses were established, and the removal of the insane from almshouses has been secured."—*Ibid.*, pp. 433-434.

1874-1902.—Establishment and influence of American National Conference of Charities and Corrections.—Indoor relief.—Outdoor relief.—Care and education of defectives.—Oversight of neglected children.—General care of children.—Salvation Army.—“The American National Conference of Charities and Correction [originated in] the autumn of 1873, [when] at the suggestion of F. B. Sanborn, then secretary of the American Social Science Association, several men came together who recognized the need of an annual conference on relief problems. . . . The first conference was held in New York in 1874, which had representatives from four boards and written communications from four others. Not many more than one hundred persons took part in that conference, and its report filled less than fifty pages. During the succeeding years this organization has been greatly developed and has become one of the most significant factors in American charity. . . . The influence of the conference on the development of American poor relief is undeniable; it enjoys today great respect, and has actually become the focus of all efforts which belong to this field. Directly or indirectly through its agency there have been organized conferences in the several states. . . . On the whole, one receives from the poor relief and charity of the United States the impression of a living interest in the revival of personal care for the poor; more than in other lands is the social importance of a sound method emphasized. . . . In general there is a strong tendency to take away from cities and counties the care of two classes of dependents, children and the insane. Several states have introduced an exclusively state system for unprotected children, and require that the insane be placed in state institutions. . . . The public poor relief, like that of England, rests upon the more or less exclusive application of the system of indoor relief. The poorhouses or almshouses are, as Warner calls them, ‘the charitable catch-all for the community.’ The laws exclude public outdoor relief partly in cases of permanent dependence and entirely for able-bodied persons, so that only the sick, defective, and similar persons may be relieved temporarily by the outdoor method. Outdoor relief, for example, is abolished in many of the great cities, as New York, Brooklyn, Baltimore. The new law of Indiana for 1899 greatly restricts outdoor relief. In the report the figures for 1895 and 1900 are compared. While in the former year \$630,189 were expended for outdoor relief, the expenditures for 1900, including medical relief, were only \$209,956, with a parallel decrease in the population of poorhouses. This attitude of state relief is only intelligible when one considers that a richly developed private charity precisely in the field of outdoor relief comes to the aid of public relief, and that the effort to keep the care of children, the feeble-minded, the sick, and the defectives separate from other public poor relief is constantly gaining ground. . . . To the care of defectives, especially of children and youths, great attention and large means are devoted. In almost all states exist institutions for the instruction of deaf-mute and of blind children. These are either state institutions or private institutions, which are paid by the state for the care of children sent to them. This, for example, is the method for

both deaf-mutes and blind children in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, Pennsylvania and for the deaf-mutes in Oklahoma and New York. Generally the institutions are designed for children of school age. The residence varies in duration and is between two and six years, the former in Texas and Oregon, the latter in Alabama. In sixteen states a distinction is made between dependents and those who pay, but usually board and education are gratuitous. In addition to these special institutions there are also, in some of the larger cities, provision for the instruction of deaf-mute and blind children in the public schools, as, for example, in Pennsylvania, where school districts which have eight or more deaf-mutes among twenty thousand children must provide suitable instruction for them. In Wisconsin the state appropriates \$100 for each child of this class. . . . America has given special attention to the education and care of deaf-mutes. At present more than ten thousand deaf-mute children are sheltered in schools and homes, although by no means all such children enjoy this benefit. The Illinois report states that the great institution at Jacksonville, has received during the last few years between 500 and 550 children, but that more deaf-mute children are growing up without any instruction than those who are taught. In the institutions themselves the best educational methods are employed, and a domestic life with work, entertainment, and recreative plays is provided.”—E. Münsterberg, *Poor relief in the United States (American Journal of Sociology, January, 1902, pp. 504, 506, 519, 522-523, 532-533)*.

“It is as true of America as of England that the care of children belongs to the most promising field of relief effort. . . . It is interesting to note that in the beginning of the previous century, as appears from a report of the secretary of the state of New York, Yates, it was thought best to use the poorhouses for children, since at that time this measure seemed progress. . . . The hopes which were set upon the poorhouses, however, as would appear self-evident to our present thought, were not fulfilled. . . . Efforts to remove them from the poorhouses . . . have gained during the last decennium in extent and earnestness. . . . It is only a question of time when this removal will be complete. By law the retention of children in the poorhouse is forbidden in one-third of the states. . . . The experiences which led to the introduction of state boards repeat themselves in the care of children and lead to the demand for the subjection of this branch of relief, whether by public or private benevolence, to the supervision of general boards or special bodies appointed for the oversight of children. Such oversight has been introduced in recent years in various forms. In 1807 [in Indiana] this duty was assigned to the board of state charities, and extended to all public poor relief on behalf of children. It has succeeded admirably in helping to place children in families. . . . In every county of the state a board of children’s guardians, consisting of three married men and three married women, is established. The members of the board are chosen by the county court and serve voluntarily for honor. Each member is chosen for three years. The board is charged with the duty of supervising and caring for neglected and dependent children under fifteen years of age. It is authorized to take under its oversight: all abandoned and neglected children, or those mistreated by their parents; children who beg upon the streets; children of

drunkards or of vicious parents, and of those incapable of educating children; children who are found in vicious and immoral surroundings; children who are to be described as morally imperiled; vagrants and youthful criminals. The board is authorized by the county court to place such children in orphanages or to apprentice them or otherwise to control them, without needing the consent of the parents. As soon as it comes to the knowledge of the board that a child under fifteen years of age is forsaken, purposely neglected, or habitually mistreated by his parents or his legal guardians, or by their knowledge or consent goes out to beg, or that the parents of the child are frequently intoxicated; then is it authorized to step in and transfer the child, by legal process, to an institution or family care. Parents or guardians of the child are obliged to bear the costs when they are able, and if they refuse may be compelled by legal process. The board of county commissioners is to erect and maintain a house for the temporary reception of children who are under the supervision of the board of guardians. It has to pay for the necessary assistance and for maintenance, with the exception of the cost of food and clothing, which is borne by the guardians under a contract. The boards of guardians are to give reports to the board of state charities, as desired, for which purpose the required forms and means are furnished. . . .

"[In general] the arrangements for children correspond to those in other lands: institutional care in great orphanages, of which America possesses some of the first rank (institutional system); or in small homes (home system); family care (boarding and placing out); and the union of both the latter systems by reception of the children at first in a central place, and their transfer hence to family care, the so-called state public-school system, or the Michigan system, because it was first applied in Michigan, and now enjoys a great reputation in America. Along with the exclusively public and exclusively private care of children exists the system of subsidies from public means to private institutions. More and more the system of family care gains in importance, although at first it was hindered in the attempt to remove children from poorhouses by the tendency to replace poorhouses with special institutions for children. . . . In America . . . there is much discussion of the advantages of institutional relief as compared with family care. . . . In the reports of the state boards and in the National Conference the subject is more or less fully discussed. Theoretically the victory may be said to belong to family care; its advantages are thoroughly discussed by Mathews: Life in a family, especially in a well-ordered rural family, prepares the child for life far more satisfactorily than is possible in an institution. In an institution the children are taught rather too much of heavenly and too little of earthly things. The atmosphere is only too well adapted to train them in dependence. Shelter is provided; food is always ready; clothing, good beds, warm rooms are at their disposal, without the least thought or care on the part of the children. Altogether different is family care. It is said in a report of Illinois in 1899: In a real domestic household all members of a family are bound together by reciprocal ties. In the nature of family life, persons help each other and make sacrifices in turn. There is the great world in small, and the relations of the members to each other correspond to those which the child will find in later years in society. It

is a workplace, a school of labor, where daily practice in household duties prepares the child for further duties. Family life alone can teach the children self-control, submission to the conditions of practical life, and capacity for independent action. From the standpoint of poor relief, we mention also the advantage that family care is essentially cheaper than that of the institution. If there is a reasonably general agreement that family care is theoretically the best form, this does not imply that institutions in a certain measure may not be accepted, and least of all requires us to shut our eyes to the dangers of inadequate family care. Institutions are most of all necessary for the reception of children, to observe them and to select for them suitable homes. There are many children who, on account of their character, or on account of physical or psychical defects, are not adapted to home life, or proper families cannot be found in which to place them. By the extension of the group system in the larger institutions, and by the erection of homes, the danger which attends institutional care is materially diminished.

"As in England, though not to the same extent, the work of the Salvation Army has been developed in America, and has found even more favorable conditions. . . . In all there are 160 organizations of the Salvation Army, among which are children's asylums, homes for women and girls, lying-in homes, public kitchens, employment bureaus, homes for discharged prisoners, nursing, workmen's colonies, and winter relief; and everywhere the tendency is not to support, but to aid, to call forth all the powers and capacity of the person who is in want and assist him to regain his independence. The principle is held that all help offered must be paid for, so far as possible, in money or work. Noteworthy are the three agricultural colonies established in Colorado, California, and Ohio, on which thirty buildings have been erected, and where about two hundred men and women have been settled, and of whom the greater number have obtained independent homes. . . . A singular enterprise is the sending of poor families, who otherwise could never breathe pure air, to the country. In this division of the army work outings by water or land are provided, and frequently street-car companies furnish free transportation."—E. Münsterberg, *Poor relief in the United States* (*American Journal of Sociology*, March, 1902, pp. 659-663, 683-684).—See also SALVATION ARMY.

1877-1903.—Charity organization societies.—"The movement for charity organization which originated in London in 1868 was introduced into this country about ten years later, being copied directly at a number of independent points. After the trial of a society with similar purposes at Germantown, Pennsylvania, and certain tentative and unsatisfactory experiments in clearing-house registration of relief work in New York and Boston, the first real Charity Organization Society was established in Buffalo, in December, 1877. The Rev. S. H. Gurteen, an English clergyman, who had been active in the London society, was the moving force in the inauguration of this enterprise. Boston, Philadelphia, and New Haven established similar societies in 1878, and Cincinnati, Brooklyn, and Indianapolis followed in 1879. The society in New York was not organized until 1882, when the initiative in the matter was taken by the State Board of Charities, which adopted the following resolutions: 'Whereas, There are in the City of New York a large number of independent societies engaged in teaching and reliev-

ing the poor of the city in their own homes, and *Whereas*, Without some such system it is impossible that much of their effort should not be wasted, and even do harm by encouraging pauperism and imposture, therefore, *Resolved*, That, the Commissioners of New York City are hereby appointed a committee to take such steps as they may deem wise, to inaugurate a system of mutual help and cooperation between such societies.'

... Taking up *seriatim* the objects and methods of the Charity Organization Societies of the United States, it may be seen that the fundamental thought is the cooperation of all charitable agencies of a given locality, and the best coordination of their efforts. In order to secure this, the cooperating societies, as far as practicable, furnish records of the relief-work done by each to the central office, so that accounts may be compared and the overlapping of relief prevented. The Charity Organization Society maintains at this central office an alphabetical list of all cases that have received relief from any reporting agency whatever, or that have been investigated by itself; and this confidential catalogue of cases treated as a treasure-house of facts for the guidance of those engaged in benevolent work. The New York society had in 1907 nearly 100,000 records (not including those withdrawn or destroyed), some of them covering 25 years and containing 40,000 to 50,000 words. While this is the largest consolidated list in the country yet the central office catalogues of Boston, Philadelphia, and many other cities contain a very large number of cases. These are so arranged that any case can be referred to at once, and the person charitably interested in that case can get a reply regarding it from the society by return mail. This clearing-house function of the Charity Organization Society is the first and perhaps most fundamental one, and the one most clearly stated in the name which the societies adopted. . . . The third function of a Charity Organization Society is to find prompt and adequate relief for all that should have it. The society is an animated directory of charities of the locality in which it works. No one is turned away from the office of the society with the statement, 'Your need is none of our business;' for the society makes it its business to see that each need is brought to the attention of the proper agency.

"The fourth function of the Charity Organization Society is to establish relations of personal interest and sympathy between the poor and the well-to-do. This is accomplished through what is technically known as 'friendly visiting,' volunteer visitors being secured who are willing to go to the poor as friends, and not as almsgivers. Preferably each friendly visitor has only one, or at most two, cases, and the relation is made as permanent as possible. There are many instances where for years the same visitor has gone to the same family, and genuine personal attachments have been formed. Visitors should never be almsgivers; for in that case the poor look upon them as persons from whom something is to be gotten, and, on the other hand, if empowered to give relief, the visitor fails to invent methods of rendering the better service that is needed in order to cure poverty. The work of friendly visiting is declared by the most advanced societies to be the heart of the work. The motto 'Not alms but a friend,' first adopted in Boston, has come to be the motto of many of the societies.

... The seventh function of the Charity Organization Society has been enumerated as the prevention of pauperism. This is sought to be

accomplished by all the means employed for the furtherance of the other specific purposes of the society. From the beginning of the charity organization movement, many societies have established undertakings to assail pauperism in its causes: the creche, or day nursery at which working mothers may leave their children during the day; kindergartens in connection with the public schools, cooking schools, sewing schools, trade schools; the encouragement of thrift by different varieties of savings-funds, such as the Penny Provident, which receives deposits of one cent and upward; fuel funds, by means of which summer savings can secure winter delivery of coal at summer prices; these and hundreds of other educative and preventive measures have been inspired and initiated by them. In recent years the Charity Organization Societies have been leaders in municipal and legislative reform, sharing and organizing independent movements for the prevention of tuberculosis and unsanitary housing, for the establishment of municipal lodging houses and the control of charity transportation. The eighth and last function of the Charity Organization Society is the diffusion of knowledge on all subjects connected with the administration of charities and the prevention of dependence."—A. G. Warner, *American charities*, pp. 442-444, 446, 449, 452, 455-456.

1914-1921.—*Mothers' pensions*.—Care of crippled children.—*Rehabilitation of civilian cripples*.—"During 1913, 13 states in the Union passed new or amended old laws on the subject [of mothers' pensions]. By January 1, 1921, 40 of the 48 states had adopted some form of mothers' pension. . . . In all the states, except Colorado and Florida, Minnesota and Wisconsin, the law applies only to mothers. In Florida it applies to a mother or a female relative who is guardian of the child; in Minnesota to a mother, step-mother or grandmother; in Wisconsin the aid is given . . . to a person having custody of the child. In some states it is given to any mother with dependent children. In other states it is confined to a widow. In still others it is given [also] to mothers whose husbands are prisoners. In others it is granted to mothers whose husbands are in state asylums [and so on]. . . . The conditions governing the grant also vary in the different states, as does also the age of the child. [The amount of the grant varies from] an amount sufficient to care properly for the child in Colorado, Hawaii, Maine, Massachusetts to the cost of caring for the child in an institution. . . . The highest amount is given in Arizona and Illinois where \$60 a month may be given. . . . In 1917 there were 11 states who had provided for the care and education of crippled children. . . . In some of the states only indigent children are received, in others all crippled or deformed, and in Nebraska those children who are suffering from diseases from which they are liable to be deformed or crippled. . . . A number of the states, and finally the Federal Government [have undertaken] the rehabilitation of the man and woman disabled in civil life. Seven of these states notice only those injured in industry, or who came under the provisions of the state compensation laws. The rest provide for any handicapped person. . . . Perhaps the law passed by New Jersey is the most liberal and far-visioned. It provides that the board it sets up shall seek to train and qualify every disabled person, whether his disability is due to accident, disease or congenital defect. . . . Maintenance is supplied by the State if

necessary for 20 weeks at not over \$10 per week. The act does not compel any person to take the training. [By the Federal Act of 1920] vocational rehabilitation is contemplated for all persons disabled in any way whatever, whose disability interferes with remunerative occupation. . . . It includes both men and women. . . . The act provides for a subsidy to those states who accept by legislative enactment the dollar for dollar coöperation plan. That is, each state must provide as much money as will come from the Federal government on the basis of population."—J. L. Gillin, *Poverty and dependency*, pp. 377, 378, 434.

1921.—Some factors in poverty.—"Boarding out" of children in Ohio.—"Social agencies do not exist for the purpose of relieving the distress due to the incidence of unemployment. The Montreal Council of Social Agencies, in commenting upon the decision of the Family Welfare Association of its city some months ago to give no more relief from the funds of the society to unemployed men even though they were married men with families, hits the nub of this situation with the statement that much unemployment is not inevitable, 'but would yield to a better organization of industry; and much of the suffering due to the unemployment that is inevitable would yield itself to a better community provision for such misfortune.' John B. Dawson, former general secretary of the Charity Organization Society of Montreal, carries this a step farther. 'I protest,' he says, 'against the idea that is so prevalent in many quarters that the inevitable results of a needless maladjustment in industry should be shuffled off onto the shoulders of the charitable agencies of the community.' The replies from the organizations indicate, however, that unemployment is simply one of the complex causal factors in poverty. This is summed up in the statement of the Associated Charities of Cleveland that 'the one thing we are sure of, regarding the causes of poverty, is that there is not any one cause and that in each family we deal with there is usually such a combination of reasons for their unfortunate plight that it takes considerable study upon our part to get at the root of the difficulty.'

"An analysis of the cases handled by the organizations for a year shows that in their experience sickness was beyond question the predisposing factor in poverty. In Cleveland, 53 per cent of the families cared for by the Associated Charities came to the organization through sickness, death or some physical or mental disability. [See also CLEVELAND: 1917-1921: Public welfare.] In Philadelphia, sickness and various forms of disability are the outstanding factors, with tuberculosis and venereal disease predominant. Although the Charity Organization Society of New York City does not keep account of the number of persons who are affected by the various factors of dependency, a table showing the amount of money spent for relief during the last three fiscal years of the society shows a steady increase in the amount spent on relief for persons whose dependency was immediately due to death, sickness or desertion. In 1918, this was 86 per cent of the total amount spent on relief; in 1919, it was 89 per cent and in 1920 it rose to slightly over 91 per cent. Anna G. Williams, general secretary of the Social Service Bureau of Denver, writes that 'there is no question in our mind that the problem is sickness.' Of 1,007 families handled by the Charity Organization Society of New Orleans sickness is cited as a

contributing cause of distress in 443 cases. Physical disability characterized 1,182 of the 1,706 problems presented to the Social Service Bureau of Houston, Tex., during 1920. A study of the first thousand families under the care of the Associated Charities of Washington shows that some form of illness or old age affected 15 per cent of these families. Some other physical disability, however, affected 616 of the same families, or 61 per cent. In Washington, it was found that tuberculosis was the immediate factor in dependency for 10 per cent of the families under the care of the Associated Charities; in New Orleans, for 192 out of 1,007; in Memphis, for 72 families out of 480 in which there was some physical disability.

"Further analysis of the cases indicates that serious contributing factors in poverty, in addition to sickness, other physical disabilities and unemployment, are desertion and non-support, and widowhood. Trailing these are old age, mental disabilities, marital difficulties and industrial adjustments. Other casual factors given in sporadic instances are moral behavior, intemperance, lack of education and the assimilation of the foreign-born. The work of the Associated Charities of Minneapolis centers about two problems—the non-support and the desertion group, and the illness group. Widowhood, acute illness and desertion are the chief factors for a condition 'below the subsistence level' in the United Charities of Chicago. The Associated Charities of Cleveland lists sixteen primal reasons for application for help, the principal ones of which are widowhood, 40.1 per cent; sickness, 26.5 per cent; desertion and non-support, 14.6 per cent; and mental disorder, 7.5 per cent. Unemployment, sickness and various forms of mental disability, and desertion and non-support were by far the outstanding problems handled by the Philadelphia Society for Organizing Charity. The little stress placed at the present time upon intemperance as a contributing factor in poverty is one of the interesting points brought out by replies to the questionnaire. Stockton Raymond, general secretary of the Family Welfare Society of Boston, states that 'one fact stands out above all others. Intemperance, under prohibition, has been a decreasing factor in the work of the Family Welfare Society.' It has thus been possible for the organization 'to undertake a great amount of constructive and preventive work instead of wasting time in trying to alleviate suffering which could not fail to exist under such an evil as licensed liquor selling.'

"One of the most marked developments among family welfare agencies has been an increase in the amount given for relief. Although the increase in cost prices has played a part in this, fundamentally it seems to be due to a better conception of adequacy in relief giving. The relief given by the Associated Charities of Minneapolis has shown a rising crescendo of \$26,424.19 in 1918, \$41,080.28 in 1919, and \$54,566.13 in 1920. Lawson Purdy states that in New York City 'there had been with us as elsewhere a very great increase in the amount of relief given.' Amelia N. Sears of the United Charities of Chicago writes that the increase in relief given by that organization is a result of the increased cost of living, the establishment of a higher standard of family care and the burden of caring for widows on the waiting list for mothers' pensions and widows receiving inadequate mothers' pensions. This last group cost the society \$100,000 in two years. It is the experience of the Charity Organization Society of New Orleans that their phenom-

enal rise in relief work during the last few years has been the result, not only of increased prices, but of the 'growing opinion that adequate nourishment is apt to prevent sickness, and our society, as well as other relief agencies, has been giving material relief more abundantly and freely than before.' Although the Family Welfare Society of Boston is not primarily a relief agency, Stockton Raymond states that it has been compelled during the last few years to secure large sums for relief, accounted for both by the increase in prices and 'a tendency toward more adequate relief.'—P. L. Benjamin, *Family welfare (Survey, Oct. 15, 1921)*.—See also MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Municipal charities in the United States.

Following an experiment in boarding out made in Hancock County, Ohio passed a law, in September, 1921, "which makes it possible for Counties which have children's homes to abandon them. It also authorizes the county child welfare boards whose duty it shall be to devise other means of caring for the dependent children of the county. This latter section legalizes the repetition of the Hancock county experiment in counties that have no children's homes. For years the State Division of Charities had at intervals suggested that the dependency problem might be solved in some other way than an institutional home in Hancock county [where the children's home had fallen into ruinous condition, was condemned and was ordered to be vacated]. To meet the emergency the boarding out plan was adopted. Boarding out homes were selected by a trained visitor, licensed under the law of 1919, and the children placed in them. The plan was an immediate success. In August, 1920, when the nurse from the Institution Inspection Bureau assisted the local physician in making physical examinations of the children, it was found that 48 per cent were of normal weight. In July following, 72 per cent were of normal weight. The food under the old regime was wholesome and the change in nutrition is due not so much to food as to better living conditions and individual care and attention."—M. I. Atkinson, *Survey, Nov. 19, 1921, p. 278*.

See also CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION; INTERNATIONAL RELIEF; SOCIAL INSURANCE.

ALSO IN: W. H. Allen, *Modern Philanthropy*.—J. R. Brackett, *Supervision and Education in Charity*.—*Bulletins of the National Conferences of Charities and Corrections*.—*Canadian Woman's Annual, 1914, pp. 110-124*.—M. Conyngton, *How to help*.—E. T. Devine, *Efficiency and Relief*.—*Ibid., Principles of Relief*.—W. Foss and J. West, *Social worker and modern charity*.—H. Folks, *Care of destitute, neglected and delinquent*.—M. Frommel, *Poor laws in foreign countries*.—F. H. Guild, *Administration of charities*.—O. S. Halsey, *Reaction of British health insurance upon existing charities*.—W. J. Kerby, *Social mission of charity*.—J. Lee, *Constructive and preventive philanthropy*.—*New York Conference on Hospital Social Service, v. 3, 1916*.—*Proceedings of Second Capital Conference of Charities and Corrections, Albany, 1914*.—M. Parmelee, *Poverty and social progress*.—M. E. Richmond, *Social diagnosis*.—G. M. Tallett, *Separation of sick and poor from criminals*.—R. W. Kelso, *History of public poor relief in Massachusetts*.—J. L. Gilpin, *Poverty and dependency*.

CHARITON RIVER, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1862 (July-September; Missouri-Arkansas).

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES, United States. See CHARITIES: United States: 1877-1903.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY, London: 1869.—Establishment. See CHARITIES: England: 1869.

1877.—Recommendations of special committee as to education of the feeble-minded. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education of the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Feeble-minded.

CHARLEMAGNE, or Charles I, the Great (742-814), Roman emperor and king of the Franks. Succeeded his father, Pepin the Short, as king of Neustria, 768; upon his brother Carloman's death, 771, became king of all the Franks (see FRANKS: 768-814); 772, began war against the Saxons which resulted, in 804, in their submission and Christianization (see SAXONS: 772-804); 773, fought the Lombards and in 774 incorporated Lombardy with the kingdom of the Franks (see LOMBARDS: 754-774); 778, led an expedition against the Arabs in Spain, during which Roland was killed and the Frankish rearguard annihilated at Roncesvalles (see SPAIN: 778); 788, subdued Bavaria; 791-796, and again in 804, subdued the Avars (see AVARS: 791-805); December 25, 800, received from Pope Leo III the crown of the Roman empire (see GERMANY: 800); 808-810, repulsed the Danish invaders. He organized his kingdom in margravates, instituted *missi dominici*, increased the ecclesiastical power and was a patron of learning, founding the School of the Palace under Alcuin. See SCHOOL OF THE PALACE; ANNALS: French, German, Italian and Spanish; BARBARIAN INVASIONS: 5th-10th centuries; BELGIUM: Ancient and medieval history; CAPITULARIES; EDUCATION: Medieval: 742-814; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Rise of the Frankish kingdom; GERMANY: 687-800, 768-814; HEERBAN; HISTORY: 20; ITALY: 568-800, 843-951; PAPACY: 755-774; VENICE: 697-810.

CHARLEROI (Carolus Rex), town in Belgium between Namur and Mons, in the province of Hainaut.

1667.—Taken by the French. See BELGIUM: 1667.

1668.—Ceded to France. See NETHERLANDS: 1668.

1679.—Restored to Spain. See NIMEGUEN, PEACE OF (1678-1679).

1693.—Siege and capture by the French. See FRANCE: 1693 (July).

1697.—Restored to Spain. See FRANCE: 1697.

1713.—Ceded to Holland. See UTRECHT: 1712-1714.

1794.—Captured by French.—After the town was taken from Holland in 1794 it was dismantled.

1816-1859.—Fortified by Wellington.—After the fall of Napoleon, Wellington fortified it, but a half century later it was again dismantled.

1914-1918.—During the World War.—The town was taken by the Germans in their initial drive, and was the scene of the first engagement with French troops in Belgium. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I: Western front; i; 1916: German rule in northern France and Belgium: b; Miscellaneous auxiliary services: X; Alleged atrocities and violations of international law: a, 5.

CHARLES I, the Great. See CHARLEMAGNE.

Charles II, the Bald (823-877), Roman emperor and king of the West Franks; invaded Italy and was crowned emperor. During his reign France, including Paris, was ravaged by the Normans.—See also ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; FRANCE: 843, 861; FRANKS: 768-814; PARIS: 857-861.

Charles III, the Fat (832-888), Roman emperor and king of the West Franks; deposed after his humiliating treaty with the Normans who had

besieged Paris. See FRANCE: 877-987; FRANKS: 768-814; GERMANY: 814-843; ITALY: 843-951; PAPAS: 885-886.

Charles IV (1316-1378), Roman emperor and king of Bohemia; elected German king in 1347; issued the *Golden Bull* in 1356 to regulate the election of the king. See AUSTRIA: 1330-1364; BOHEMIA: 1310-1410; GERMANY: 1347-1493.

Charles V (1500-1558), Roman emperor, German king, 1510-1558; duke of Burgundy, 1506-1555; and (as Charles I) king of Spain and of the Sicilies, 1516-1556. In spite of internal dissensions, the enmity of France and England, and the pressure of the Turks in the East, he consolidated and even added to his vast domain; but worn with his too active life, and especially with his bitter struggle against Protestantism, he resigned his powers and spent the last two years of his life in retirement. See also AUSTRIA: 1496-1526; 1510-1555; BARBARY STATES: 1516-1535; 1541; EUROPE: Renaissance and Reformation: Political situation in Luther's time; FRANCE: 1520-1523; 1525-1526; 1532-1547; GERMANY: 1517-1523; 1510; 1520-1521; 1546-1552; 1552-1561; GHEENT: 1530-1540; ITALY: 1523-1527; 1527-1520; NETHERLANDS: 1494-1519; 1521-1555; 1547; 1555; PAPACY: 1530-1531; SPAIN: 1518-1522.

Charles VI (1685-1740), Roman emperor; issued his Pragmatic Sanction in 1713, to secure the throne for his daughter, Maria Theresa. See AUSTRIA: 1711; 1718-1738.

Charles VII (1697-1745), Roman emperor, and (as Charles Albert) elector of Bavaria and king of Bohemia; opposed Maria Theresa in the War of the Spanish Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1743.

Charles I (1887-1922), emperor of Austria-Hungary, king of Hungary, 1916-1918; succeeded his great-uncle, Emperor Francis Joseph; was the nephew of Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the throne, whose murder at Serajevo on June 28, 1914, contributed toward the outbreak of the World War; abdicated when the Austro-Hungarian empire began to disintegrate toward the close of 1918. In April, 1921, he made an unsuccessful attempt to regain the throne of Hungary, but was forced to return to exile in Switzerland. He made another attempt, this time with an army of monarchist troops, in October, 1921. He was defeated in two engagements by loyal troops under Admiral Horthy. Charles and Queen Zita were both taken prisoner on October 24, and banished to Madeira, where Charles died on April 1, 1922.—See also AUSTRIA-HUNGARY: 1916-1917; 1918; HUNGARY: 1920-1921; WORLD WAR: 1917: XI. Efforts toward peace: j; XII. Political conditions in the belligerent countries: g.

Charles I (1600-1640), king of Great Britain and Ireland; governed without Parliament from 1629 to 1640. His religious policies caused a rebellion in Scotland which forced him to summon Parliament; this Parliament proceeded to abrogate Charles' whole system of government and the king in retaliation tried to arrest five members; civil war resulted and in 1640 he was tried for treason and executed.—See also ENGLAND: 1625-1628; 1629-1640; 1642 (January-August); 1643 (June-September); 1645 (June-December); 1646-1647; 1647 (April-August); 1647 (August-December); 1640 (January); PRESBYTERIAN CHURCHES: 1557-1646; SCOTLAND: 1644-1645.

Charles II (1630-1685), king of Great Britain and Ireland; commanded the Royalist forces during the civil war and made several attempts to regain the throne; proclaimed king upon the death of Cromwell. See ENGLAND: 1658-1660, 1661; 1662;

1668; 1670; 1681-1683; IRELAND: 1660-1665; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 31; SCOTLAND: 1650 (March-July); 1651 (August); 1660-1666; VIRGINIA: 1650-1660.

Charles I, king of France. See CHARLES II, Roman emperor.

Charles II, king of France. See CHARLES III, Roman emperor.

Charles III, the Simple (879-929), king of France, 892-920. See FRANCE: 877-987.

Charles IV, the Fair (1294-1328), king of France, and of Navarre (Charles I), 1322-1328. See FRANCE: 1314-1328.

Charles V, the Wise (1337-1380), king of France, 1364-1380. See FRANCE: 1360-1380.

Charles VI (1368-1422), king of France, 1380-1422; defeated the Flemings in 1382; became insane, which caused dispute for power, culminating in civil war. See FLANDERS: 1382; FRANCE: 1830-1415; GENOA: 1381-1422.

Charles VII (1403-1461), king of France, 1422-1461; aided by Joan of Arc, he raised the siege of Orleans, 1420; during his reign the English lost all their French possessions except Calais. See FRANCE: 1420-1431; 1453-1461.

Charles VIII (1470-1498), king of France, 1483-1498; conceived a project of making himself emperor of the East in furtherance of which he conducted an ill-advised war into Italy, to claim the crown of Naples, but was forced to retire. See BRITANNY: 1401; FLORENCE: 1490-1498; FRANCE: 1485-1487; 1492-1515; ITALY: 1402-1494; 1494-1496.

Charles IX (1550-1574), king of France, 1560-1574; was ruled by his mother, Catherine de Medici, to whose influence has been ascribed the blame for the massacre of St. Bartholomew in 1572. See FRANCE: 1572 (Aug.-Oct.); 1573-1576.

Charles X (1757-1836), king of France, 1824-1830; the last of the house of Bourbon; forced to abdicate July 30, 1830. See FRANCE: 1790-1791: First movements toward European coalition; 1815-1830.

Charles I, or **Charles Robert** (1288-1342), king of Hungary, 1308-1342.

Charles I (1226-1285), count of Anjou, king of Naples and Sicily, 1266-1282; king of Naples, 1282-1285. See ITALY (Southern): 1250-1268.

Charles II (1250-1309), king of Naples and Sicily, 1289-1309.

Charles III (1345-1386), king of Naples, 1381-1386; king of Hungary, 1385-1386. See ITALY (Southern): 1343-1380.

Charles II, the Bad (1332-1387), count of Evreux, king of Navarre, 1349-1387.

Charles III, the Noble (1361-1425), count of Evreux, king of Navarre, 1387-1425.

Charles or Carlos I (1863-1908), king of Portugal, 1889-1908. See PORTUGAL: 1824-1889; 1906-1909.

Charles I (1830-1914), king of Rumania. In 1866 chosen ruler of the new principality of Rumania; assumed title of king in 1881; was offered the crown of Bulgaria in 1887, but refused on account of the feeling of the Rumanians. It was probably due to his influence that Rumania remained neutral in August, 1914. See RUMANIA: 1866-1914; 1875-1881; 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1916: V. Balkan theater: c, 1.

Charles I, king of Spain. See CHARLES V, Roman emperor.

Charles II (1661-1700), king of Spain, 1665-1700. See SPAIN 1598-1700; 1608-1700.

Charles III (1716-1788), king of Spain, 1759-1788; king of Naples and Sicily, 1734-1759. See SPAIN: 1759-1788.

Charles IV (1748-1819), king of Spain, 1788-1808. See SPAIN: 1788-1808.

Charles IX (1550-1611), king of Sweden, 1604-1611. See SWEDEN: 1523-1604.

Charles X (1622-1660), king of Sweden, 1654-1660. See SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

Charles XI (1655-1697), king of Sweden, 1660-1697. See SWEDEN: 1644-1697.

Charles XII (1682-1718), king of Sweden, 1697-1718. See SWEDEN: 1697-1700, to 1707-1718.

Charles XIII (1748-1818), king of Sweden and Norway, 1809-1818; king of Norway, 1814-1818.

Charles XIV (Jean Baptiste Jules Bernadotte), (1763-1844), king of Sweden, 1818-1844. See SWEDEN: 1810, and after.

Charles XV (1826-1872), king of Sweden and Norway, 1859-1872.

Charles, or Karl Alexander (1712-1780), prince of Lorraine; Austrian commander in the War of the Austrian Succession. See AUSTRIA: 1742 (January-May); 1742 (June-December); 1743-1744; 1744-1745.

Charles, or Karl Ludwig (1771-1847), archduke of Austria and duke of Teschen. See FRANCE: 1796-1797 (October-April); GERMANY: 1809 (January-June), (July-September).

Charles, the Bold (1433-1477), duke of Burgundy; conquered Lorraine in 1475; defeated by the Swiss in 1476 and 1477. See ALSACE-LORRAINE: 842-1477; BURGUNDY: 1467; 1467-1477; NETHERLANDS: 1466-1468.

Charles IV (1604-1675), duke of Lorraine. See LORRAINE: 1624-1663.

Charles (1270-1325), count of Valois, of Maine and of Anjou; participated in Florentine civil strife. See FLORENCE: 1301-1313.

CHARLES, Jacques Alexander César (1746-1823), French mathematician and physicist. See AVIATION: Development of balloons and dirigibles: 1783-1784.

CHARLES ALBERT (1798-1849), king of Sardinia (Piedmont) 1831-1849. See ITALY: 1848-1849.

CHARLES DE BLOIS (d. 1364), duke of Brittany and nephew to Philip VI of France; warred against Montfort in Brittany. See BRITANNY: 1341-1365.

CHARLES EDWARD, the Young Pretender (1720-1788), English prince of the house of Stuart, attempted an invasion of England with the aid of Scotland. See SCOTLAND: 1745-1746.

CHARLES EMMANUEL I (1562-1630), duke of Savoy, 1580-1630. See GENEVA: 1602-1603; FRANCE: 1599-1610.

Charles Emmanuel II (d. 1675), duke of Savoy, 1638-1675.

Charles Emmanuel III (1701-1773), duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia, 1730-1773.

Charles Emmanuel IV (d. 1819), duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia, 1796-1802.

CHARLES FELIX (d. 1831), duke of Savoy and king of Sardinia, 1821-1831. See ITALY: 1820-1821.

CHARLES MARTEL (c. 688-741), Frankish ruler; established order in Gaul, checked the Arab invasions of Europe and subdued the Germanic tribes. See CALIPHATE: 715-732; EUROPE: Middle Ages: Rise of the Frankish kingdom; FRANKS: 511-572; GAUL: 5th-8th centuries; GERMANY: 481-768.

CHARLES OF BOURBON. See CHARLES III, king of Spain.

CHARLES WILLIAM FERDINAND, Duke of Brunswick. See BRUNSWICK, CHARLES WILLIAM FERDINAND, duke of.

CHARLESTON, the largest city and chief com-

mercial center of South Carolina, a south Atlantic seaport, situated between the Ashley and Cooper rivers. Its estimated population in 1920 was 67,957.

1680.—Founding of the city. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1670-1696; NORTH CAROLINA: 1663-1670.

1706.—Unsuccessful attack by the French. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1700-1706.

1772-1776.—Revolutionary proceedings. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1775 and 1776; U. S. A.: 1772-1773.

1776.—Sir Henry Clinton's attack and repulse. See U. S. A.: 1776 (June): British repulsed at Charleston.

1780.—Siege by the British.—Surrender of the city. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1670-1783; U. S. A.: 1780 (February-August); 1780-1781.

1860.—Splitting of the National Democratic convention. See U. S. A.: 1860 (April-November).

1860.—Adoption of the Ordinance of Secession. See U. S. A.: 1860 (November-December).

1860.—Major Anderson at Fort Sumter. See U. S. A.: 1860 (December): Major Anderson at Fort Sumter.

1861 (April).—Beginning of war.—Bombardment of Fort Sumter. See U. S. A.: 1861 (March-April).

1863 (April).—Attack and repulse of the Monitor fleet. See U. S. A.: 1863 (April: South Carolina).

1863 (July).—Union troops on Morris island. See U. S. A.: 1863 (July: South Carolina).

1863 (August-December).—Bombardment. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-December: South Carolina).

1865 (February).—Evacuation by the Confederates.—Federal Occupation. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February: South Carolina); 1865 (February-March: The Carolinas).

1886.—Earthquake.—A severe earthquake, Aug. 31, 1886, destroyed much of the city and many lives. See SOUTH CAROLINA: 1886-1911.

1901.—South Carolina and Interstate and West Indian Exposition.—Under this name, a very beautiful and successful exhibit of the progress of Southern industry and art, and of the possibilities of West Indian and Spanish-American trade, was opened at Charleston, S. C., on December 1, 1901. The site of the exposition was a tract of one hundred and sixty acres of ground, only two and a half miles from the business section of the city, embracing the famous old Lowndes estate, with its historic mansion which the owner permitted to be used as the Women's Building of the occasion. Fine taste and a high public spirit entered into the making of this very interesting fair.

CHARLESTOWN, originally a city of Middlesex county, Massachusetts; incorporated with Boston in 1874.

1623.—First settlement. See MASSACHUSETTS: 1620-1630.

1775.—Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1775: (April-May).

CHARLEVILLE, a city 150 miles northeast of Paris on the Meuse opposite Mézières; on the final allied line, November 11, 1918.

CHARLOTTE (Marie Charlotte Amélie Auguste Victoire Clémentine Leopoldine) (b. 1840), empress of Mexico; married Maximilian, archduke of Austria, 1857; accompanied him to Mexico on his acceptance of the imperial crown, 1864; was sent to Napoleon III and Pius IX to secure assistance against the republicans, 1866; failing in her mission, became hopelessly insane and was confined after 1879 near Brussels.

CHARLOTTE (1896-), grand-duchess of Luxemburg, succeeded on the abdication of her sister Marie-Adelaide, 1919. See LUXEMBURG: 1919-1921.

CHARLOTTESVILLE, small city of north-western Virginia occupied by Federal troops in 1865, during the Civil War. See U. S. A.: 1865 (February-March: Virginia).

CHARMIS, Roman physician. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 1st century.

CHARNISE, Charles de Menou, Seigneur D'Aulnay (c. 1605-1650), French proprietor in Acadia. See NOVA SCOTIA: 1621-1668.

CHAROON, Prince, Siamese representative at the Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

CHARPENTIER, Gustave (1860-), French opera composer. See MUSIC: Modern: 1830-1921.

CHARRUA, South American Indian tribe. See URUGUAY: Aborigines.

CHARTER OAK, of Hartford in which Connecticut's charter was hidden in 1687. See CONNECTICUT: 1685-1687.

CHARTER OF PRIVILEGES, granted by William Penn to the settlers of Pennsylvania in 1701. See PENNSYLVANIA: 1701-1718.

CHARTER SCHOOLS, Ireland. See EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: Ireland.

CHARTERHOUSE, or *Chartreuse*, a famous building of London, formerly a Carthusian monastery. See CARTHUSIAN ORDER.

CHARTISTS, **CHARTISM**, movement for political reform in England. See ENGLAND: 1838-1842; 1848; also BIRMINGHAM: 1839.

CHARTRES, French city fifty-five miles southwest of Paris. Was the scene of conflict in medieval wars; on October 21, 1870, was taken by the Germans, who used it as a base of operations.

CHARTREUSE, La Grande, mother house of the Carthusians in Isère, France. See CARTHUSIAN ORDER.

CHASAURI, ancient tribe. See DULGIBINI AND CHASAURI.

CHASE, Salmon Portland (1808-1873), American jurist. United States senator, 1840-1855, 1861; governor of Ohio, 1856-1860; secretary of the treasury, 1861-1864; chief justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1864-1873. See LEGAL TENDER CASES; MONEY AND BANKING: Modern: 1861-1864; SUPREME COURT: 1866-1873; 1867-1884; U. S. A.: 1864 (May-November); 1865 (May-July); 1869-1872.

CHASE, Samuel (1741-1811), American jurist; signer of the Declaration of Independence; associate justice of the United States Supreme Court, 1706-1811; impeached in 1804 and acquitted the following year. See U. S. A.: 1774 (September); 1776 (July): Text of Declaration of Independence; 1804-1805.

CHASIDIM, or Chasidees, or Assideans, a name, signifying the godly or pious, assumed by a party among the Jews, in the second century B. C., who resisted the Grecianizing tendencies of the time under the influence of the Græco-Syrian domination, and who were the nucleus of the Maccabean revolt. The later school of the Pharisees is represented by Ewald (*History of Israel*, bk. 5, sect. 2) to have been the product of a narrowing transformation of the school of the Chasidim; while the Essenes, in his view, were a purer residue of the Chasidim "who strove after piety, yet would not join the Pharisees"; who abandoned "society as worldly and incurably corrupt," and in whom "the conscience of the nation, as it were, withdrew into the wilderness."—A modern sect, borrowing the name, founded by Israel Baal

Schem, who first appeared in Podolia, in 1740, is said to embrace most of the Jews in Galicia, Hungary, Southern Russia, and Wallachia.—H. C. Adams, *History of the Jews*, p. 333.

ALSO IN: H. Graetz, *History of the Jews*, v. 5, ch. 9.

CHASTELER, Jean Gabriel Joseph Albert, Marquis du (1763-1825), Austrian general against the French. See GERMANY: 1809-1810 (April-February).

CHASUARI, Germanic tribe. See FRANKS: Origin, etc.

CHATALJA, a village some twenty miles west of Constantinople. It gives its name to the main line of defense of that city, a position of great natural strength and elaborately fortified from sea to sea across the peninsula. Here the Turks made their final stand in 1912 in the first Balkan War. In 1920 it was made the boundary of Turkey in Europe. See BALKAN STATES: 1912-1913; SÈVRES, TREATY OF: 1920: Part II.

CHATEAU GAILLARD.—This was the name given to a famous castle, built by Richard Cœur de Lion in Normandy, and designed to be the key to the defenses of that important duchy. "As a monument of warlike skill, his 'Saucy Castle,' Château Gaillard, stands first among the fortresses of the Middle Ages. Richard fixed its site where the Seine bends suddenly at Gaillon in a great semicircle to the north, and where the Valley of Les Andelys breaks the line of the chalk cliffs along its bank. The castle formed part of an intrenched camp which Richard designed to cover his Norman capital. . . . The easy reduction of Normandy on the fall of Château Gaillard at a later time [when it was taken by Philip Augustus, of France] proved Richard's foresight."—J. R. Green, *Short history of the English people*, ch. 2, sect. 9.

CHATEAUBRIAND, François René, Vicomte de (1768-1848), French statesman and author. Served in the army before and during the Revolution; later emigrated to England; published his celebrated "Essai historique, politique et moral sur les révolutions anciennes et modernes, etc.," in 1797; in France in 1800; turned from Atheism to the Roman Catholic Church of which he became a redoubtable champion; had visited America in 1791-1792; was ambassador in London in 1822. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1789-1820.

CHATEAU-THIERRY, a city on the Marne, France, fifty-eight miles east of Paris. In 1918, the Americans halted the on-rushing Germans at this point in their last offensive of the World War, and from here started the offensive on July 18 which led to final Allied victory. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: a, 4; d, 19; g, 2; g, 4, i; g, 6.

CHATHAM, John Pitt (1756-1835), British military commander, son of William Pitt, 1st earl of Chatham. See ENGLAND: 1809 (July-December).

CHATHAM, William Pitt, 1st earl of (1708-1778), English statesman; entered Parliament in 1735; secretary of state, 1756-1757; assumed full control of foreign and military affairs during the Seven Years' War; prime minister, 1766-1768; vigorously opposed the policy of the government toward the American colonists. See ENGLAND: 1745; 1757-1760; 1760-1763; 1765-1768; 1770; U. S. A.: 1766; Repeal of Stamp Act; 1775 (January-March).

CHATILLON, Battles of. See FRANCE: 1793 (July-December).

CHATILLON-SUR-SEINE, Congress of. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

CHATTANOOGA, city and county seat of Hamilton county, Tennessee, on the Tennessee river, strategic point in the Civil War.

Name. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September: TENNESSEE).

1862.—Secured by the Confederates. See U. S. A.: 1862 (June-October: Tennessee-Kentucky).

1863 (August).—Evacuation by the Confederates. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September: Tennessee).

1863 (October-November).—Siege.—Battle on Lookout mountain.—Assault of Missionary Ridge.—Routing of Bragg's army. See U. S. A.: 1863 (October-November: Tennessee).

1907.—Retains charter and evades prohibition law. See TENNESSEE: 1887-1908.

CHATTERTON'S HILL, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1776 (September-November).

CHATTI, or **Catti**.—"Beyond [the Mattiac] are the Chatti, whose settlements begin at the Hercynian forest, where the country is not so open and marshy as in the other cantons into which Germany stretches. They are found where there are hills, and with them grow less frequent, for the Hercynian forest keeps close till it has seen the last of its native Chatti. Hardy frames, close-knit limbs, fierce countenances, and a peculiarly vigorous courage, mark the tribe. For Germans, they have much intelligence and sagacity. . . . Other tribes you see going to battle, the Chatti to a campaign."—"The settlements of the Chatti, one of the chief German tribes, apparently coincide with portions of Westphalia, Nassau, Hesse-Darmstadt and Hesse-Cassel. Dr. Latham assumes the Chatti of Tacitus to be the Suevi of Cæsar. The fact that the name Chatti does not occur in Cæsar renders this hypothesis by no means improbable."—Tacitus, *Germany*, trans. by Church and Brodrigg, and note.—See also ALĒMANNI or ALAMANNI: 213; SUEVI.

CHAUCER, Geoffrey (c. 1340-1400), English poet. By 1368 he had become one of the king's squires; throughout his life served in a number of official capacities; frequently sent on commissions to Italy and France; first important poet to use the English language as his medium and is looked upon as the "father of English literature"; best-known work is the "Canterbury Tales"; other poems include "Troilus and Cryseyde", "The House of Fame", "Boke of the Duchesse", "Assembly of Fowles", "Legende of Good Women"; and numerous minor poems and translations.—See also ENGLAND: 1350-1400; ENGLISH LITERATURE: 14th century.

CHAUCI, **CHERUSCI**.—"The tribe of the Chauci . . . beginning at the Frisian settlements and occupying a part of the coast, stretches along the frontier of all the tribes which I have enumerated, till it reaches with a bend as far as the Chatti. This vast extent of country is not merely possessed but densely peopled by the Chauci, the noblest of the German races, a nation who would maintain their greatness by righteous dealing. Without ambition, without lawless violence, . . . the crowning proof of their valour and their strength is, that they keep up their superiority without harm to others. . . . Dwelling on one side of the Chauci and Chatti, the Cherusci long cherished, unassailed, an excessive and enervating love of peace. This was more pleasant than safe, . . . and so the Cherusci, ever reputed good and just, are now called cowards and fools, while in the case of the victorious Chatti success has been identified with prudence. The downfall of the Cherusci brought with it also

that of the Fosi, a neighbouring tribe."—"The settlements of the Chauci . . . must have included almost the entire country between the Ems and the Weser—that is, Oldenburg and part of Hanover—and have taken in portions of Westphalia about Munster and Paderborn. The Cherusci . . . appear to have occupied Brunsvick and the south part of Hanover. Arminius who destroyed the Roman army under Varus, was a Cheruscan chief. . . . The Fosi . . . must have occupied part of Hanover."—Tacitus, *Minor Works*, trans. by Church and Brodrigg: *Germany, with geographical notes*.—Bishop Stubbs conjectures that the Chauci, Cherusci and some other tribes may have been afterwards comprehended under the general name "Saxon." See SAXONS.

CHAUDFONTAINE, one of the forts around Liège, Belgium, captured by Germans in August, 1914. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: b.

CHAULIAC, Guy de (fl. 1348), French surgeon. See MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 10th century.

CHAUMETTE, Pierre Gaspard (1763-1794), French revolutionist; elected president of the Commune in 1792; guillotined in 1794. See FRANCE: 1793 (November); 1793-1794 (November-June).

CHAUMONT, a town in eastern France, department of Haute-Marne; used, 1917-1919, by General Pershing as general headquarters of the American Expeditionary Forces.

CHAUMONT, Treaty of (1814), an agreement concluded at Chaumont, eastern France, by Great Britain, Austria, Russia and Prussia. They severally bound themselves not to make a separate peace with Napoleon, and to continue fighting until France should be reduced to her boundaries of 1792. See FRANCE: 1814 (January-March).

CHAUMONT-EN-VEXIN, a small town in France about sixty miles north of Paris. There the American First Division detrained when called to the Montdidier sector by the great German advance of the spring of 1918.

CHAUNCEY, Isaac (1772-1840), American naval officer; during the War of 1812 he had command on the Great Lakes, participating in the capture of York (now Toronto) and Fort George. See U. S. A.: 1813 (April-July).

CHAUNY, a town about twenty miles south of St. Quentin, north-eastern France. Was the scene of much fighting in the Hundred Years' War; in the World War it also changed hands several times. See WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: XI. Devastation: c; 1918: II. Western front: c. 17; d; b, 2.

CHAUTAUQUA, name adopted from a lake and county in southwestern New York and applied to a system of popular education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Chautauqua.

CHAUVEL, Sir Henry George (1865-), British lieutenant-general who commanded the Desert Mounted Corps, Egyptian Expeditionary Force, in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1916: VI. Turkish theater: b, 2, iii; b, 2, iv; 1917: VI. Turkish theater: c, 1, ii; c, 1, iii.

CHAUVINISM, "originally a French term (*chauvinisme*), derived from Nicholas Chauvin, a soldier in the army of Napoleon, who was ridiculed by his comrades for his demonstrative and unreasoning patriotism. After the fall of Napoleon the term '*chauvinisme*' was applied in ridicule to the old soldiers who still professed an idolatrous admiration for the emperor. In Cognard's play, '*La cocarde tricolore*' (1831), one of the characters, *Chauvin*, exaggerated the character of the

original Chauvin; and from this time the term chauvinisme came to be commonly applied to any one exhibiting a blind and unreasoning patriotism or an excessive enthusiasm for national ascendancy. The English equivalent of the word is 'jingoism.' But the French term '*chauvinisme*' has been anglicized into '*chauvinism*,' and it now has a somewhat broader meaning than 'jingoism.' It is sometimes applied to one who exhibits an unreasoning loyalty to any cause or any leader."—*War Cyclopaedia*, p. 54.

CHAVEZ-DARTNELL, Jorge (d. 1910), Peruvian aviator who made a trans-Alpine flight in 1910. See AVIATION: Important flights since 1900: 1910.

CHAZAN, officer in the Jewish synagogue. See BIBLE, ENGLISH: Sources.

CHAZARS. See KHAZARS.

CHEAT SUMMIT, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1861 (August-December: WEST VIRGINIA).

CHEBUCTO, original name of the harbor of Halifax.

CHEIROTONIA, a vote by show of hands, among the ancient Greeks.

CHEKHOV, Anton Pavlovich (1860-1904), Russian novelist and master of the short story. See RUSSIAN LITERATURE: 1883-1905.

CHELLEAN MAN. See EUROPE: Prehistoric period: Earliest remains, and Stone Age.

CHELMSFORD, Frederic Thesiger, 1st baron (1704-1878), lord chancellor of England.

CHELMSFORD, Frederic Augustus, 2d baron (1827-1905), English general, fought in Zulu War, 1879.

CHELMSFORD, Frederic John Napier Thesiger, 3d baron (1868-), governor of Queensland, 1905-1909; governor of New South Wales 1909-1913; viceroy of India 1916-1920.

CHEMI, ancient name for Egypt. See EGYPT: Names.

CHEMIN DES DAMES, a road along a crest of hills overlooking the valley of the Ailette river in northern France. Here the Germans retained a foothold after the battle of the Aisne. The French offensive north of Rheims in the summer of 1917 included attacks on the town of Craonne and the Chemin des Dames. The French success at the Chemin des Dames in June furnished some of the most desperate fighting of the war. The German counter attacks against the ridge in July rivaled their attacks at Verdun. The capture of this position by the Germans May 27, 1918, was the last conspicuous success in their last great offensive.—See also WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: s, 1; s, 2; s, 3; s, 5; 1917: II. Western front: b, 1; b, 2, iv; c, 16; 1918: II. Western front: a, 3; f, 1; g, 1; g, 6.

CHEMISTRY

Definition.—Use.—Chemistry is the science that treats of the various substances that are capable of existence, of their composition and their relations to one another, and of the transformations they undergo.—"It studies the different kinds of substances found in the world, whether in the living animal and vegetable organisms, or in the non-living mineral matter of the universe. Chemistry investigates the composition of these substances, the methods of their preparation and their behaviour not only in relation to what are called physical forces but also in relation to other substances; and it endeavours to 'manipulate' the different substances so as to obtain from them new materials, either useful or ornamental. Through a knowledge of chemistry one may learn how to prepare, artificially, substances which are normally the products of the vital activity of animal and vegetable organisms, or how to prepare substitutes for these naturally occurring substances. Chemistry, further, occupies itself with the question of how things already manufactured, can be manufactured more economically, or be replaced by more suitable materials; and it helps us to understand how the natural and, it may be, irreplaceable resources of the world, can be economised. On the science of chemistry, indeed, more than on any other branch of organised knowledge, depend the material well-being and comfort of man."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 1-2.

GENERAL

Origin of the science and its name.—"There are various indications that some knowledge of the practical applications of chemistry existed long before the era of Western civilization. The Chinese, for instance, possessed means of manufacturing articles which in some cases cannot be made with the same degree of elegance at the present day; this implies a considerable acquaintance with some sort of technical chemistry. At a less indefinite date, which is still too remote to be fixed with any certainty, we find the Phœnicians and Egyp-

tians well acquainted with the manufacture of glass and pottery; some of the simpler metallurgical processes were already practised, including the mechanical separation of gold, the smelting of iron, the preparation of mercury from cinnabar, and the separation of lead and silver. The arts of dyeing and embalming were also largely engaged in by the Egyptians. The Jews, too, in the reign of Solomon (and probably for some time prior to that period) recognized at least six distinct metals: gold, silver, iron, copper, tin and lead. Metallurgy at this early date was carried on chiefly in the northern part of Egypt; deposits of ores were fairly abundant in that region, and, in addition, the seaport of Alexandria afforded means for the import of ores from the various lands washed by the Mediterranean. . . . It is convenient to summarize at this point the chemical knowledge of the ancients:

"(1) *Practical.*—In China and India (?), in Phœnicia and Egypt: metallurgy, dyeing, glass, earthenware.

"(2) *Theoretical.*—In Greece (500-200 B. C.) and Rome (100 B. C.-A. D. 150); vague, general observations on nature.

"(3) *Experimental* (according to the modern meaning of the word).—Practically none.

"With regard to the origin of the word 'chemistry,' there is a choice of about six very plausible 'derivations,' such as from the North Egyptian word 'chemi' = Egypt: from *χημεία* = Egyptian art; from *χημεία* = black, etc. As these cannot all be correct, let us be content merely to say that the first use of the word 'chemia' appears in an astrological treatise compiled by Julius Firmicus, a writer of the fourth century of the Christian era."—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 3, 5, 6.—See also SCIENCE: Ancient: Arabian; also MEDICAL SCIENCE: Ancient: 7th-11th centuries: Medical Art of the Arabs.

Alchemists.—Roger Bacon.—However, to find the real beginnings of the science of chemistry, we must revert back to the art of alchemy, "com-

monly supposed to be occupied with the search for the philosopher's stone and the elixir of life [but which] was in reality the rudimentary stage of the science of chemistry. The most ancient alchemists, Turanian, Chaldean, or Egyptians, exercised their skill in practical operations. They studied the metallurgy of the metals known to them, practised the arts of preparing drugs (and perhaps poisons), of making, tinting and working glass, of dyeing, painting and staining fabrics, and of making soap, and developed the use of antiseptics and the hydrocarbon industries. The quackery and mysticism which discredited alchemy in its later periods were merely accidental accretions, the product of an ignorant and superstitious age—often, indeed the result of inability to read and understand the ancient manuscripts. The early alchemists, groping in the dark, making many mistakes and following many blind alleys, discovered principles and processes, which have been handed down to modern chemists, and form part of the heritage of modern chemistry. No student of the history of the science can afford to overlook the debt which chemistry owes to these men, who may be said to have laid its foundations, and who were the first to grasp the conception that beneath its varied and complex phenomena lay certain elementary principles, which might be discovered by patient research."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 25-26.—If we but reflect a bit upon the alchemist's conception of the philosopher's stone, "and consider the philosophy and aims of the alchemists, we perceive how foolish it would be to attempt to sum them up in a single epithet. The men belonged to distinct classes. There were mystical or religious alchemists who made use of terms of art merely as parables, and alchemical processes as allegories. Their real subject was the human soul; their true object the guidance of mankind to salvation. But these were few. There were philosophical alchemists, steeped in the doctrines of Aristotle, who sought by the transmutation of base metals into gold to prove their great thesis—the unity of all things. There were scientific alchemists, whose desire was to discover the properties and combinations of metals, and the best methods for their manipulation. And there were mercenary alchemists, who hoped to find in the philosopher's stone the key to a store of unlimited riches. Unless we keep these distinct classes in mind, and differentiate clearly between them, we shall never understand all that is implied in the title 'alchemist.'"—*Ibid.*, pp. 190-191.—See also **ALCHEMY**.

"Roger Bacon (1214-1284) . . . denied the theory of transmutation of metals, although he is alleged to have said that with a certain amount of the philosopher's stone he could transmute a million times as much base metal into gold. To save his life, however, he had to recant his opinions. Having picked up some information from the Arabs during his travels in the East, he described in an obscure way the composition of gunpowder, which was first used in war by the English in 1327, forty years after his death. That air is the food of fire he proved by placing a lighted lamp in a closed vessel, showing that under these conditions the flame was extinguished. . . . What gives Bacon supreme importance in the history of his times is the fact that he was no mere schoolman with his mind cramped and fettered by logical quibbles and the tales of deductive philosophy, but a thinker of the modern type with a wonderfully just and clear conception of the principles of science. In his experimental method we see the beginnings of the inductive philosophy associated

with his greater namesake, Francis Bacon, which is the only foundation upon which the natural sciences can be built. In his own day he was overshadowed by more popular names, but his reputation as a scientist is now receiving more adequate recognition."—*Ibid.*, pp. 96-97.—See also **SCIENCE: Middle Ages and the Renaissance**.—While it is quite obvious that the alchemists were working along mistaken lines, we must however, credit them with having obtained a considerable knowledge of those metals and substances which they used. Besides, through them, we have handed down such chemical apparatus as was at their disposal combined with their skill in its manipulation. This, then, formed the basic foundation upon which the science of modern chemistry was to grow up and expand into its many fields of research.

Iatro- or medical chemistry.—"While the philosopher's mind was fixed on one theme—gold manufacture—his experiments were naturally concerned only with metallic derivatives, so that few of the new facts discovered related to any but this class of compounds. When the Renaissance of learning and the Reformation led to a wider intellectual outlook the scope of chemists' views also appeared to broaden, and a larger field of use for chemistry was opened up. . . . Basil Valentine and a few other workers of the first alchemical period here and there applied isolated metallic preparations as medicinal remedies, but Paracelsus (sixteenth century) was the first to emphasize the close interdependence and alliance of chemistry and medicine. He assumed that the three 'principles,' sulphur, salt, and mercury, which were held to constitute the different metals, also composed the human body, and that illness was the result of deficiency or excess of one or more of these in the organism. [See also **MEDICAL SCIENCE: Medieval: 16th century: Paracelsus**]. . . . The 'medicine of the third order,' the Philosopher's Stone, which should bring perfection to weak and erring metals, was naturally supposed to perform the same function for mortals, endowing them with an indefinite span of life and resistance to all physical decay. This fusion of medicine and chemistry was of advantage to both, but particularly to the latter, which then attracted men of wider culture than previously; it led to the discovery, too, of further new facts and compounds, especially in the domain of what is now 'organic' chemistry, and unintentionally paved the way for the emancipation of chemistry from a gold-making art to a truth-seeking science. . . . One of the first to apply the 'inductive' method to chemistry was Roger Bacon (thirteenth century); then, towards the end of the seventeenth century, the necessity of putting aside the subsidiary aims which chemistry might serve seems to have been more widely felt, and the efforts of chemists were directed along new lines, notably by the work of Boyle and Kunkel."—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 9-11.

ALSO IN: W. Ramsay, *Essays, biographical and chemical*, pp. 1-17.—F. J. Moore, *History of chemistry*, pp. 1-24.—E. Thorpe, *History of chemistry*, v. 1, pp. 1-53.

Phlogiston period.—Theory of combustion.—Work of Boyle.—Experiments of Black, Priestley, Cavendish and Scheele in field of pneumatic chemistry.—"Of the four 'Aristotelian elements' it may be said that, while chemists always have been and will be concerned with the constituents of earth, the nature of fire, air, and water was practically cleared up in the course of a century, or, more precisely, during the phlogistic period. . . . It is easy to see why 'fire' was given a position

equal to the other three elements, for while the gaseous, liquid, and solid states could be represented fundamentally by air, water, and earth, the equally patent state of 'flame' was supposed to be the manifestation of the principle of 'fire.' The earlier alchemists did not turn their attention very seriously to the problem of combustion, but in the iatro-chemical era, Sylvius (*circa* 1650) suggested that sulphur (the alchemical 'principle') was the principle of fire, and also drew attention to the analogy between burning and breathing. This suggestion was accepted by other alchemists, such as Homberg and Kunkel; Boyle, who, to use the title of one of his works, was more of a 'sceptical chymist,' regarded it as possible, but not proved, and preferred merely to call the fire principle a 'combustible earth.' In the meantime Mayow (1668-9) showed that there was a substance in air which took part both in the calcination of metals and in respiration, but did not seemingly pursue the subject far enough to give a complete explanation. . . . Unfortunately, as has frequently happened, preconceived assumption met with more notice than precise observation (due in this case to Mayow), and Stahl, one of Becher's pupils, elaborated Becher's idea into the famous phlogiston theory. Stahl assumed that all combustible or calcinable matter contained a substance 'phlogiston' which was evolved during the process of burning; the more readily and completely combustible the substance, then, the greater was the amount of phlogiston it contained. Coal was supposed to be particularly rich in phlogiston, for on heating it is almost entirely burnt away, while by heating it with many metal oxides the metal is reformed. On the other hand, the metals, etc., were supposed to be the products of union of phlogiston with the metal calces. . . . When a calx or sulphuric or phosphoric acid is heated with matter rich in phlogiston (coal), the metal or sulphur or phosphorus is 'revived.' This idea is a direct inversion, so to speak, of our modern view of combustion, for we hold that addition of oxygen takes place in combustion, and elimination of oxygen in reduction. In order to make the relation of phlogistic to modern views quite clear, we may add that: Elimination of phlogiston = oxidation (combustion). Addition of phlogiston = reduction (elimination of oxygen). Stahl suggested that a similar explanation, based on phlogiston, could be found for respiration, which would thus consist of an exhalation of phlogiston. This theory gave a concise explanation of a large number of miscellaneous facts, and it was exceedingly simple. Unfortunately, it was also hopelessly impossible; the 'elimination of phlogiston' was invariably accompanied by gain in weight, and conversely."—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 14-16.—The creative genius of the 17th century was Robert Boyle (1627-1601), who shook off the trammels of Aristotle and Paracelsus and opened a new era in the field of chemistry. One of Boyle's most important contributions to science lies in his proclamation that chemistry be studied for its own sake, and not because it may possibly be of aid to the alchemist or the physician. Due to his work in determining the composition of substances, Boyle has frequently been regarded as the father of analytical chemistry. While he knew that metals gained weight upon being heated in air, he could not explain the cause, and therefore remained a staunch phlogistonist. "Pure substances, as Boyle pointed out, can be divided into two classes. In the one class are those which have, so far, resisted all attempts to decompose them, or to break them down into substances simpler than

themselves. These substances, according to Boyle, are the true *elements*, and this definition of an element is still retained. The definition, it should be noted, does not postulate the impossibility of decomposition, but insists merely on the fact that the possibility, if it exists, has not so far been realized. In the second class of pure substances are placed those which, by one means or another, can be resolved into simpler substances. These more complex substances are called *compounds*. Thus, for example, if we heat in a glass tube the red substance known as red precipitate or oxide of mercury, we find that a gas is given off which has the property that it will cause a glowing splint of wood to re-ignite; and, at the same time, metallic mercury is deposited in shining droplets on the cooler portions of the tube. We have thus decomposed the red substance into metallic mercury and a gaseous substance, to which the name of oxygen has been given. This red substance, therefore, is a compound, a compound of mercury and oxygen. In spite of most laborious and prolonged efforts, chemists have not succeeded in reducing the number of the elements to less than about eighty. Of these eighty odd elements . . . all the substances in the known universe are built up."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 5-6.—"That the phlogistic theory was in no wise a worthless attempt at an explanation of combustion is proved by the number of useful discoveries made in all departments of chemistry in the eighteenth century and by the men whose allegiance to it did not prevent them from being brilliant chemists (Black, Cavendish, Priestley, Scheele, Bergman, etc.). The nature of air and water, indeed was finally elucidated during this epoch, and it will be most convenient to deal with these before proceeding to give a description of the advent of Lavoisier and the decline of phlogiston."—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, p. 16.

"Since the time of Boyle no English chemist had produced any work of first importance. But now with the second half of the eighteenth century came Black, Priestley, and Cavendish, men whose epoch-marking work was to make the name of England honoured throughout the whole scientific world. With them chemistry at once entered on a new phase. The exact quantitative spirit of Black and Cavendish and the pioneering genius of Priestley found powerful collaboration in the work of the Swedes Bergman and Scheele. . . . Joseph Black was born in 1728; he was of Scotch parentage, and subsequently became professor of chemistry in Edinburgh. He began his scientific career a convinced phlogistonist, but in his latter days was a convert to the Lavoisierian school. Black's most memorable achievement was his discovery of the composition of the mild and caustic alkalis. . . . Black was the first to insist on the fact that a gas can enter into chemical combination. He may be regarded as the discoverer of carbonic acid gas, his 'fixed air,' which he showed to be no other than choke damp. . . . Carbonic acid was the first gas to be definitely recognized as differing from ordinary air, and the field of *pneumatic chemistry* [chemistry of gases] was practically virgin soil when Priestley and Scheele almost simultaneously set about its exploitation. Joseph Priestley was born in 1733, in the neighbourhood of Leeds. A Nonconformist minister by profession, he took up chemical research merely as a pastime. . . . In August, 1774, by means of a burning glass he concentrated the solar rays on some red oxide of mercury, and obtained a gas which, to his amazement, sustained the flame of a candle with vastly increased brilliancy. At

TABLE OF THE CHEMICAL ELEMENTS

Name	Symbol	Discoverer	Year	Atomic Weight	Principal Valence	Specific Gravity	Fusing or Melting Point	Most Common Occurrence
Aluminum.....	Al	Wohler	1828	27.1	3	2.58	658° C.	In rocks.
Antimony (<i>Stibium</i>)...	Sb	Basil Valentine	1580	120.2	3 or 5	6.7	630° C.	As sulphide in metallic ores.
Argon.....	A	Ramsey and Rayleigh	1894	39.9	0	1.5	-188° C.	In atmosphere.
Arsenic.....	As	Schroeder	1733	74.96	3 or 5	5.71	815° C.	Native and as sulphide.
Barium.....	Ba	Davy	1808	137.37	2	3.75	850° C.	In barite and with-erite.
Bismuth.....	Bi	Agricola	1529	208.0	3 or 5	9.8	271° C.	Native and as sulphide.
Boron.....	B	Davy	1808	11.0	3	2.6	2200° C.	In borax and minerals.
Bromine.....	Br	Balard	1826	79.02	1	3.10	-7.4° C.	In sea water.
Cadmium.....	Cd	Stromeyer	1818	112.40	2	8.65	320.0° C.	In zinc ores.
Cæsium.....	Cs	Bunsen	1860	132.81	1	1.88	28.5° C.	In lepidolite and pol-lucite.
Calcium.....	Ca	Davy	1808	40.07	2	1.6-1.8	803° C.	In limestone.
Carbon.....	C	Ancients	12.005	2 or 4	3.52	3600° C.	All organic matter.
Cerium.....	Ce	Berzelius	1803	140.25	4 or 3	6.7	623° C.	In cerite.
Chlorine.....	Cl	Scheele	1774	35.46	1	1.33	-103.6° C.	In common salt.
Chromium.....	Cr	Vanquelin	1797	52.0	2, 3 or 6	7.3	1550° C.	In chrome-iron ores.
Cobalt.....	Co	Brandt	1733	58.97	2 or 3	8.06	1478° C.	In many metallic ores.
Columbium (<i>niobium</i>)...	Cb	Hatchette	1801	93.1	3 or 5	Above 7	In columbite.
Copper.....	Cu	Ancients	63.57	1 or 2	8.9	1083° C.	Native and in many ores.
Dysprosium.....	Dy	Boisbaudron	1886	162.5	3	In gadolinite.
Erbium.....	Er	Mosander	1843	167.7	3	In gadolinite.
Europium.....	Eu	152.0	3	In monazite sand.
Fluorine.....	F	Davy	1810	19.0	1	In fluo-rite.
Gadolinium.....	Gd	Boisbaudron	1875	157.3	3	In gadolinite.
Gallium.....	Ga	Boisbaudron	1875	70.1	3	5.95	13.5° C.	In zinc-blendes.
Germanium.....	Ge	Winkler	1886	72.5	4	5.47	900° C.	In argyrodite.
Glincium (<i>beryllium</i>)...	Gl	Wohler	1828	9.1	2	1.85	Above Redness	In beryl.
Gold (<i>aurum</i>).....	Au	Ancients	197.2	1 or 3	19.3	1062° C.	Generally free.
Helium.....	He	Janssen	1868	4.00	0	In cleveite.
Holmium.....	Ho	Cleve	163.5	3
Hydrogen.....	H	Cavendish	1776	1.008	1	0.025	-250° C.	Mainly in water.
Indium.....	In	Reich and Reichter	1863	114.8	3	7.4	155° C.	Certain zinc ores.
Iodine.....	I	Courtois	1812	126.92	1	4.05	113.5° C.	Ashes of sea weeds.
Iridium.....	Ir	Tennant	1803	193.1	3 or 4	22.4	2290° C.	In iridosmin.
Iron (<i>ferrum</i>).....	Fe	Ancients	55.84	2 or 3	8	1530° C.	As oxide or sulphide in rocks.
Krypton.....	Kr	Ramsey and Travers	1898	82.02	0	-160° C.	In atmosphere.
Lanthanum.....	La	Mosander	1838	139.0	3	6.1	810° C.	In cerite.
Lead (<i>plumbum</i>).....	Pb	Ancients	207.2	2 or 4	11.36	327.4° C.	In galena.
Lithium.....	Li	Arfvedson	1817	6.94	1	0.585	180° C.	In lepidolite and spodumene.
Lutecium.....	Lu	Urbain	1907	175.0	3	In samarskite.
Magnesium.....	Mg	Bussy	1829	24.32	2	1.75	350° C.	Sea water and mag-nesite.
Manganese.....	Mn	Gahn	1774	54.93	2, 4, 6 or 7	7.2	1260° C.	In pyrolusite.
Mercury (<i>hydrargyrum</i>)	Hg	Ancients	200.0	1 or 2	13.506	-38.0° C.	Native and in cin-nabar.
Molybdenum.....	Mo	Hjelm	1782	96.0	3, 4 or 6	8.6	2535° C.	Mainly in molyb-denite.
Neodymium.....	Nd	Von Welsbach	1885	144.3	3	Above 6.5	In cerite.
Neon.....	Ne	Ramsey	1898	20.2	0
Nickel.....	Ni	Cronstedt	1751	58.68	2 or 3	8.9	1452° C.	Many metallic ores.
Nitron (<i>Ra emanation</i>)...	Nt	Dorn	1900	222.4	In radium and pitch-blende.
Nitrogen.....	N	Rutherford	1772	14.008	3 or 5	0.38	-210.5° C.	Atmosphere and or-ganic matter.
Osmium.....	Os	Tennant	1803	190.9	2, 3, 4 or 8	22.48	2200° C.	In iridosmin and na-tive platinum.
Oxygen.....	O	Priestley	1774	16.0	2	1.11	-235° C.	Free in air.
Palladium.....	Pd	Wollaston	1803	106.7	2 or 4	12.1	1540° C.	Native and with gold
Phosphorus.....	P	Brandt	1669	31.04	3 or 5	1.84	44.0° C.	In bones and apatite.
Platinum.....	Pt	Wood	1741	195.2	2 or 4	21.5	1755° C.	Native platinum.
Potassium (<i>kalium</i>)...	K	Davy	1807	39.10	1	0.86	63.5° C.	In wood ashes.
Praseodymium.....	Pr	Von Welsbach	1885	140.0	3	Above 6.5	In cerite.
Radium.....	Ra	Curie	1898	226.0	2	In pitch-blende.
Rhodium.....	Rh	Wollaston	1804	102.0	3	12.1	1907° C.	With platinum and iridosmin.
Rubidium.....	Rb	Bunsen	1860	85.45	1	1.52	39.0° C.	In lepidolite.
Ruthenium.....	Ru	Claus	1840	101.7	3, 4, 6 or 8	12.26	1900° C.(?)	With platinum and iridosmin.
Samarium.....	Sa	Boisbaudron	1879	150.4	3	In samarskite and cerite.
Scandium.....	Sc	Nilsson	1879	44.1	3	In gadolinite.
Selenium.....	Se	Berzelius	1817	79.2	2, 4 or 6	4.5	217° C.	Mainly in sulphur.
Silicon.....	Si	Berzelius	1810	28.3	4	2.48	1414° C.	In quartz.
Silver (<i>argentum</i>).....	Ag	Ancients	107.88	1	10.5	961° C.	Native in ores.
Sodium (<i>natrium</i>).....	Na	Davy	1807	23.00	1	0.97	97.9° C.	In common salt.
Strontium.....	Sr	Davy	1808	87.63	2	2.5	900° C.	In celestite and strontianite.
Sulphur.....	S	Ancients	32.06	2, 4 or 6	2.07	110.2° C.	Native and in sul-phides.
Tantalum.....	Ta	Ekeberg	1802	181.5	5	Above 10	2850° C.	In tantalite.
Tellurium.....	Te	Klaproth	1798	127.5	2, 4 or 6	6.23	451° C.	In rare minerals.

TABLE OF THE CHEMICAL ELEMENTS — *Continued*

Name	Symbol	Discoverer	Year	Atomic Weight	Principal Valence	Specific Gravity	Fusing or Melting Point	Most Common Occurrence
Terbium	Tb	Mosander	1843	159.2	3	In gadolinite.
Thallium	Tl	Crookes	1862	204.0	1 or 3	11.19	302° C.	In pyrites.
Thorium	Th	Berzelius	1828	232.15	4	11.23	1600° C.	In thorite.
Thulium	Tm	Urban	1900	168.5	3	Rare minerals (gadolinite).
Tin (<i>stannum</i>)	Sn	Ancients	118.7	2 or 4	7.25	231.8° C.	Mainly in cassiterite.
Titanium	Ti	Gregor	1780	48.1	3 or 4	1795° C.	In rocks and clays.
Tungsten (<i>wolframium</i>)	W	De Luyert	1783	184.0	6	19.26	3207° C.	In wolframite.
Uranium	U	Klaproth	1780	238.2	4 or 6	18.69	Very high	In pitch-blende.
Vanadium	V	Sefstrom	1830	51.0	3 or 5	5.87	1720° C.	In vanadinite.
Xenon	Xe	Ramsay and Travers	1898	130.2	0	-140° C.	In atmosphere.
Ytterbium	Yb	Mariqnac	1878	173.5	3	In gadolinite.
Yttrium	Yt	Gadolin	1794	89.33	3	In gadolinite.
Zinc	Zn	Paracelsus	65.37	2	7.12	419° C.	In ores as oxide, etc.
Zirconium	Zr	Berzelius	1824	90.0	4	4.15	1300° C. (?)	In zircon.

first he thought this might be the same nitrous air he had obtained two years before by the action of nitric acid on copper; but the fact that its powers of supporting combustion were not exhausted by the prolonged burning of a candle, and that it did not give brown fumes with air, persuaded him that here, indeed, was something new. It was not, however, till the March of 1775 that he became fully convinced of the importance of his discovery. Finding that his new gas underwent diminution in volume when mixed with nitrous air (our nitric oxide) over water, he tried its effect on a mouse, and found that it supported life even better than ordinary air. To this gas, so eminently suited for supporting combustion, so free from phlogiston in the parlance of the period, he gave the name 'dephlogisticated air.' . . . While Priestley was performing his random experiments, as he called them, and enriching chemical science with a wealth of new gases, a countryman of his was equally hard at work; and it would be hard to decide to which of the two, Priestley or [Henry] Cavendish, posterity owes the greater debt. Priestley discovered, Cavendish investigated: the former restlessly turned his hand first to one substance, then to another; the latter concentrated his whole energy on one point, and did not leave it till it was comprehended in its entirety. To the random experiments of the one we owe our first knowledge of oxygen; to the scientific method of the other the discovery of the composition of water and nitric acid. Their outward circumstances were as diverse as their inner consciousness. Priestley was the son of a mechanic, Cavendish the grandson of a duke. Cavendish was born at Nice in 1731, two years before Priestley; but, notwithstanding his brilliant circumstances, he lived the life of a recluse, devoting himself entirely to the furtherance of his beloved science. He died in 1810. . . . To Cavendish also we owe the first accurate analysis of air. He adopted the method of Priestley and demonstrated the constant composition of the atmosphere. . . . Carl Wilhelm Scheele was born at Stralsund, in North Germany, in 1742, and died at the comparatively early age of forty-four. . . . While Priestley discovered oxygen in the August of 1774. Scheele's laboratory notes would show that the latter had already, more than a year previously, obtained the same gas from mercuric oxide, nitre, and various other substances. . . . Scheele's paper on manganese dioxide appeared in 1774, and gave information of three discoveries, those of the gas chlorine, the metal manganese, which, however, was not isolated, and the earth baryta. . . . Other discoveries of Scheele were those of hydrochloric acid and am-

monia,—these quite independently of Priestley—of molybdic acid and tungstic acid, of arsenic and prussic acids. Before Scheele organic chemistry had been almost entirely neglected. Though the chemists of the iatro period based all their claims on a supposed knowledge of the working of the digestive system, their views had scarcely extended beyond general conceptions of acidity and alkalinity. . . . He isolated, for the first time, tartaric, malic, citric, and gallic acids, and was able to identify the acid of sorrel with that produced by the action of nitric acid on sugar. All these acids he examined rigorously, and showed how they might be differentiated, and how detected in their parent plant. . . . That which Scheele did for organic chemistry another Swede, Torbern Bergman, did for analytical chemistry, giving to the whole system of quantitative and qualitative analysis a sound foundation."—F. P. Armitage, *History of chemistry*, pp. 36-41, 43-45.—While it is true that chemistry advanced during the phlogiston period, its gain had little to do with the erroneous phlogiston hypothesis. We should rather attribute the cause to a more correct appreciation of the aims of chemical science. The great lesson of the period was set forth by the phlogistonists in their endeavour to arrive at the truth. From the chaotic sciences of alchemists and iatrochemists, the phlogistonists produced ordered, well arranged facts. They began to apply the doctrine set forth by Francis Bacon in his "Novum Organum": "True experience begins with an ordered, not chaotic, knowledge of facts, deduces axioms from these, and from the axioms again designs new experiments. Equipped with such axioms, chemistry might enroll itself amongst the exact sciences." The phlogistonists were wrong in their theory, but not in their practice. They obtained by their experiments an ordered knowledge of facts, deduced axioms from these facts, and from these axioms designed new experiments. Chemistry was, in fact, at length in the way of becoming an exact science.—See also MEDICAL SCIENCE: Modern: 17th century: closing of humoral pathology.

ALSO IN: W. A. Tilden, *Short history of chemistry*, pp. 1-17.—F. J. Moore, *History of chemistry*, pp. 25-46.—A. Ladenburg, *History of chemistry*, pp. 1-12.—T. E. Thorpe, *History of chemistry*, v. 1, pp. 54-83.—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 224-274.—W. Ramsay, *Essays biographical and chemical*, pp. 18-30.

Modern period: Lavoisier's theories of combustion and the indestructibility of matter.—Atomic theory.—Further discoveries.—Electrochemistry.—Periodic law.—"The later chemists of the Phlogiston Period began to get approxi-

mately quantitative observations, which were gradually seen to be inconsistent with this hypothesis. Scheele was inclined to the opinion that combustion consists not only in a *decomposition*, but also in a *formation of a compound*. In France the way began to be cleared for a new theory of chemistry as early as 1775, but in England, Sweden, and Germany the phlogiston theory held its place longer. The consequence was that from 1780 till 1790 both the phlogiston and antiphlogiston theories had a following. That man wrought a complete revolution in chemistry, who proved, amongst other things, that when metals are burned and their weight increases, a portion of air equal to their increase in weight is absorbed, and that burning, rusting, and calcination are not processes of decomposition. He thereby established a theory entirely opposed to the older one to which we have alluded, and introduced into the methods of chemical investigation the same precision, and into chemical generalisations and principles the same accuracy and deductive reasoning, as are found in other branches of science. The history of the life and work of such a man reveals . . . the foundations of modern chemistry. . . . His name was **Antoine Laurent Lavoisier** (1743-1794). . . . Priestley came to Paris about the end of 1774, and as we said before, explained to Lavoisier the method of preparing dephlogisticated air from the red calx (or oxide) of mercury. This supplied the clue to the meaning of the experiments and to the nature of combustion. Lavoisier prosecuted experiments with oxygen for twelve years in a very precise way, and disproved the phlogiston theory, demonstrating the behaviour of the gas towards divers kinds of substances. [To this gas he gave the name of 'oxygen,' meaning *acid-former*, supposedly the essential constituent of all acids.] Berthollet in 1785 declared his adherence to the views of Lavoisier, and was soon followed by De Morveau and Fourcroy, while in 1792 the new doctrines received recognition at Berlin. . . . We shall now try to sum up the principal services which this epoch-making man rendered to chemistry. His success in this respect was mainly due to his having made the balance the *ultima ratio* of the laboratory. The following seven propositions were deduced from the experiments of Lavoisier:—

"1. That however long water is heated it cannot be converted into earth.

"2. That when metals, sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, and similar substances, are burned in air, they increase in weight to an extent exactly equal to the volume of oxygen which they derive from the atmosphere; and, on the other hand, when calces are reduced by means of charcoal, the resulting metal weighs less than the calx to an extent exactly equal to the volume of oxygen which has combined with the carbon and escaped in the form of carbon dioxide.

"3. That the diamond is pure carbon, and is converted by combustion into a gas, which he named carbonic acid (carbon dioxide).

"4. That sulphuric acid differs from sulphurous gas by containing a larger proportion of oxygen; and likewise nitric acid from the nitrous gas discovered by Scheele.

"5. That metallic salts are formed (firstly) by the disengagement of oxygen from the acid, which unites with the metal, forming an oxide, and (secondly) by the union of the acid with the oxide thus produced.

"6. That by burning alcohol, oil, wax, or similar organic substances in a known volume of oxygen, the quantity of carbon, hydrogen or oxygen present

in the organic body burned, can be calculated from the weight of water and carbon dioxide produced during combustion.

"7. That there are three states of aggregation of matter—solid, liquid, and gaseous—depending upon the amount of fire-matter with which the ponderable substances are interpenetrated and combined. Lavoisier anticipated that gases could be reduced to liquids and solids by the influence of cold and pressure. He also clearly enunciated the first scientific proof of the indestructibility of matter.

"The opinion of Lavoisier on these subjects has been modified by the results of modern research; but on the whole these propositions still form portions of chemical philosophy, and are accepted by modern chemists. . . . Of all the men whom we have as yet mentioned in this history, Paracelsus alone can be ranked with Lavoisier as a fundamental reformer of the science. . . . Although Lavoisier was the leader of the reformation of chemistry, in the latter portion of the eighteenth century, the work of his followers was of great importance. His views were adopted by the principal chemists of France and Germany, and rapidly spread over the continent of Europe. The great English chemists held back for a time, but in the end they too became adherents of the new doctrines, and carried these to a higher development."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 293-295, 300-301, 303.

"The nineteenth century was opened with a series of important and far-reaching discoveries in the nature of the composition of compounds. In 1802, Dalton (1776-1844) announced his *atomic theory*, based upon his study of gases and their composition. He believed that an element is made up of small particles called atoms exactly alike in their properties, but differing from the atoms of any other element. Further, according to Dalton, a compound is formed by the coming together or combination of atoms of different kinds; and since the nature of the compound will necessarily depend on the number and kind of the atoms present, *the composition of the compound must be definite*. This is the first fundamental law of chemistry, the law of constant or definite proportions. And still further. Since the fundamental assumption of the atomic theory is that atoms are indivisible, that they cannot be broken up into anything smaller, it follows that if one particular element A combines with another element B to form compounds containing different proportions of A and B, the higher proportions of the elements must be *whole* multiples of the lowest proportion. That is to say, we can have the compounds AB, A₂B, 2AB, 2A₃B, etc., where A and B represent atoms of the elements A and B. Here, then, we have the explanation of the second fundamental law of chemistry, the law of multiple proportions."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, p. 10.

"The conception of atoms was at once accepted by the leading chemists, but most of these (e. g. Davy, Gay-Lussac, Wollaston) perceived that the actual relative weights determined according to Dalton's principles were merely the combining weights, and that no light was thereby thrown on the relative weights of the atoms themselves."

—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, p. 35.—Dalton did not distinguish between the smallest particle of an element or the smallest particle of a compound, which caused much confusion since the atom of a compound could still be split up into the atoms of the component elements. In 1811, Avogadro (1776-1856), an Italian chemist, solved the difficulty by calling

the smallest particle of a compound a molecule, which consisted fundamentally of the atoms of the component elements. The atom, then, is the smallest particle of an element which enters into the composition of a molecule, or which can participate in chemical reaction. Ampère, in 1814, by independent research made a similar exposition of the atoms and molecule. "The conception of an Atomic Theory, based upon equivalent weights, and the determination of the fundamental laws of chemical combination, not only added precision to chemical philosophy, but facilitated the labours of the student of chemical principles, the laboratory worker, and the manufacturer. . . . The Laws of Chemical Combination are founded upon the conception that all the simple atoms in an elementary body are alike, and that a compound atom or molecule can only be altered by the addition or subtraction of one or more complete atoms, hence the proportional relation which always subsists between the elements in their several combinations. It is possible that the Daltonian Atomic Theory may share the fate of other hypotheses which have preceded it. As research extends, it may have to be abandoned, and may give place to some other doctrine, which will be more consistent with later discoveries. But that time has not yet arrived. The Theory and the Laws of Chemical Combination have been, and are still being, modified in parts, but no modern discovery has discredited the possibility of atoms, although it seems probable that they are neither so imperishable, nor so indivisible, as Dalton conceived. The laws, therefore, are still received by chemists as being founded upon fact, and the atomic theory is still accepted as a useful working hypothesis."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 333-334.

"Returning to the previous point, viz., the difference between equivalent weight and atomic weight, we might fill a chapter with a description of the uncertainty and confusion which prevailed in the first half of last century with respect to these two terms. Some, like Davy or Gay-Lussac, held that the determination of the relative weights of atoms themselves was impossible; others, and of these Berzelius was foremost, adopted the opposite conclusion. Berzelius himself attacked the problem with amazing thoroughness, and in the course of ten years had made fairly reliable analyses of compounds of practically all the known elements. . . . This first atomic weight table of Berzelius was complete about 1817. . . . His second atomic weight table (1826) was rendered necessary because he found reasons for halving many of the values he had previously selected."—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 36, 37.—"Jöns Jacob Berzelius was born 20th Aug. 1779. . . . He early occupied himself with the effects of the Voltaic pile, and in 1803 published, jointly with Hisinger, a paper on electrolysis. He spent much time in determining the proportion of oxygen present in many oxides, and showed the connection between the quantity of oxygen in the base and the amount of acid required to form with it a neutral salt. . . . Berzelius introduced the symbols which since his time have been used to represent atoms, namely, the initial letters of the Latin names of the respective elements. His electro-chemical theory of affinity has been considerably modified, but Berzelius was the first to show experimentally that in organic compounds the elements are united, as in inorganic compounds, in definite atomic proportions. . . . He died at Stockholm, 7th Aug. 1848.—W. A. Tilden, *Progress of scientific*

chemistry in our own times, p. 18.—"The years which witnessed the rise of electro-chemistry also witnessed an extraordinary advance in chemical knowledge. The ten years before and twenty years after the beginning of the nineteenth century formed one of the most fruitful periods in the history of chemistry. Never were a greater number of distinguished chemists at work in different countries at the same time seeking to discover the mysteries of the science, and never were their labours more liberally rewarded. The isolation of potassium, sodium, calcium, magnesium, strontium, barium, selenium, iridium, osmium, palladium and other rare metals; the recognition of the elemental character of chlorine, iodine, fluorine, and bromine; the adoption of platinum apparatus; the improvement of blowpipe manipulation; and the introduction of more accurate methods of analysis—had all tended to effect an entire change in the state of chemical knowledge. Chemists were now taking an enlarged view of the number and variety of chemical elements and their possible compounds. Not only oxides and sulphides, but phosphides, chlorides, iodides, fluorides and bromides had to be studied. Much had still to be learned regarding salts; the oxygen-acid theory had been overturned, but the hydrogen-acid theory was yet in its infancy. Although inorganic chemistry had been developed to a great extent, the vast field of organic chemistry and the carbon compounds was almost untouched; it was for a later group of chemists to open up that immense subject of research. But a firm base of operations had been secured, from which further advance was rendered easier and more certain."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 251-252.

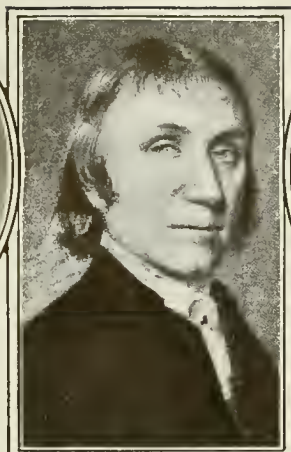
Among the noteworthy contemporaries of Berzelius is Sir Humphrey Davy (1778-1829) who, in 1807, isolated the alkali metals, sodium and potassium, by means of electrolysis. About four years later he established chlorine as an element, and not an oxide as was formerly believed, thus overthrowing Lavoisier's theory that oxygen was the characteristic component of all acids. In America there was Robert Hare (1781-1858) and Benjamin Silliman (1779-1864). Hare invented the compound blowpipe, making possible new excursions into the field of blowpipe analysis. "Hare also invented a galvanic battery which he called a 'deflagrator,' consisting of a large number of single cells in series. With this, using carbon electrodes, he was able to obtain a higher temperature than with his oxy-hydrogen blowpipe. He was the first to apply galvanic ignition to blasting, and he first carried out electrolysis with the use of mercury as the cathode. In this way he prepared metallic calcium and other metals from solutions of their chlorides, while the principle employed by him has in recent times been used as the basis of a very important process for manufacturing caustic potash and soda."—H. L. Wells and H. W. Foote, *Century of science in America*, p. 280.

Also in: E. F. Smith, *Life of Robert Hare*.

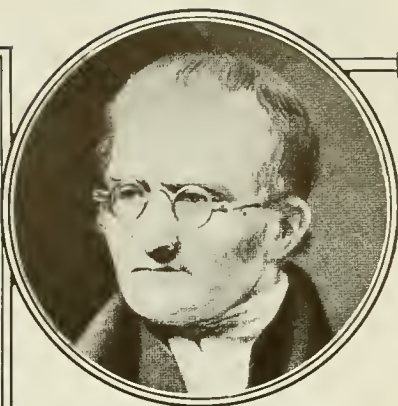
Silliman, by means of Hare's deflagrator, showed that carbon could be volatilized at the temperature produced in the electric arc. He also was the pioneer in the production of hydrofluoric acid in America, and discovered the presence of bromine in one of our natural brines. The two distinguished German chemists, Justus Liebig (1803-1873) and Friedrich Wöhler (1800-1882) must also be mentioned here. Liebig, pioneer in the fields of physiological and agricultural chemistry, was also the first to give systematic laboratory instruction. Wöhler in 1828 announced one of the most epoch making discoveries in the history of science. By



H. BECQUEREL



JOSEPH
PRIESTLEY



JOHN DALTON



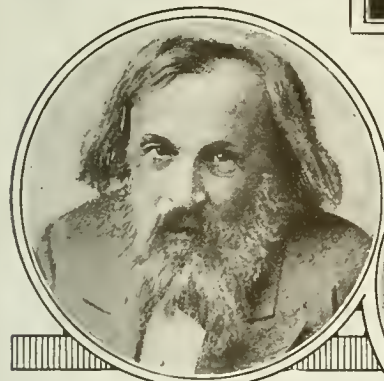
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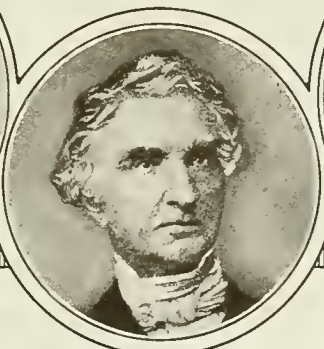
LAVOISIER



WILHELM RÖNTGEN



DMITRI I. MENDELEEFF



JUSTUS LIEBIG



J VON BERZELIUS

PIONEERS IN CHEMISTRY

his artificial preparation of an organic compound, he destroyed the belief that the production of such compounds were dependent upon a "vital force" and thus opened up the great and important field of modern synthetic chemistry. "The electrochemical views which were put forward and developed by Davy, Berzelius, Gay-Lussac, and Thénard received their full development at the hands of Faraday [1791-1867], to whose work we owe our knowledge of the principal facts and laws of electrical science. Besides being an electrician *par excellence*, Faraday was a distinguished chemist, and published many purely chemical researches, but his chief influence on chemistry has arisen from his physical and electrical researches. . . . The bulk of his work lies outside the scope of our history, the only portion of Faraday's electrical researches which bears on chemistry being his work in relation to electrolysis. . . . From these observations he deduced what is called Faraday's Law (*Experimental Researches*, 505); 'For a constant quantity of electricity, whatever the decomposing conductor may be, whether water, saline solutions, acids, fused bodies or the like, the amount of electro-chemical action is also a constant quantity.' This law, which implies that the same quantity of electricity will produce the same amount of chemical effect, is the basis of all electro-chemical work. . . ."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 353-355, 361.—Faraday extracted the first coal tar product, benzene, and was thus the forerunner of a mighty modern industry. One of the great French chemists of the first half of the nineteenth century was Jean Baptiste Andre Dumas (1800-1884) whose contributions to theoretical and analytical chemistry were prolific. Dumas was followed by Louis Pasteur (1822-1895) whose work in biological chemistry has made his name immortal. His contributions were of the most far-reaching importance to almost every branch of natural and physical science, but those on the chemistry of fermentation and its allied subject, contagious diseases, were perhaps the most valuable. In 1854 the spectroscope was perfected by Robert Bunsen (1811-1899) and Kirchhoff (1824-1887). This gave the chemist his most delicate instrument for detecting elements. About the middle of the nineteenth century more attention began to be given to the physical properties of substances—their boiling points, melting points, specific gravities, and their optical properties. It was discovered that many substances had the power of turning the plane of polarization of a ray of polarized light to the right, but in 1848 Pasteur made the astonishing observation that substances having the same composition rotated the plane equally to the left. If the atoms of such a pair of compounds be conceived as being arranged in a particular order, then the atoms of the other must be arranged in the same order, but inversely. Twenty years later (in 1874), Van't Hoff (1852-1911), a Dutch chemist, and Le Bel, a French chemist, set forth a theory that "all compounds of carbon which in the liquid state rotate a polarised ray, or when crystallised produce hemihedral forms which are mirror images of each other, are found to contain at least one atom of carbon which is united directly to four dissimilar atoms or groups of atoms and which is therefore said to be asymmetric." This principle forms the basis of modern "stereo-chemistry." Kekulé (1829-1896) was another chemist of this period who advanced new theories on the constitution of carbon compounds, and his work together with that of Van't Hoff revolutionized the domain of organic chemistry. The science of physical chemistry has been tremendously furthered

by the distinguished Swede, Arrhenius (1859-), who succeeded in establishing the theory of electrolytic dissociation.

With all this advance in the realm of general chemistry, no fundamental law governing the relationship of elements and compounds had yet been discovered. Many important isolated facts relating to their atomic weights were known, but no one had welded this information into a coherent system. "By 1860, however, data had become available for fixing these numbers, and their mutual relationships attracted more and more attention. . . . At about the same time Newlands in England was publishing a series of papers dealing with atomic classification. . . . He called his generalization the Law of Octaves and . . . pointed out more clearly than any previous chemist the periodic recurrence of similar properties among the elements. His system, however, showed no gaps and therefore left no room for new elements unless some entire octave should be discovered. This judicious sense of where the gaps must be, characterize the more complete systems of Lothar Meyer and Mendelejeff. . . . There was for a time a good deal of feeling between the friends of Lothar Meyer [1830-1895] and those of Mendelejeff [1834-1907] upon the question of priority in the discovery of the periodic law. Such questions, however, need not detain us here. The fundamental idea, that the properties of the elements are a periodic function of their atomic weights, had been a slow growth, to which these two men independently gave the permanent form of expression. In 1882 the Royal Society conferred the Davy medal upon both in recognition of this fact, and we can well follow the spirit of their compromise. . . . In 1854 Kirchoff came to Heidelberg as professor of physics and he soon began to work with Bunsen upon problems connected with optics. . . . The result was the spectroscope, an instrument which has added constantly to human knowledge from that day to this."—F. J. Moore, *History of chemistry*, pp. 178, 182-185, 196, 198.

ALSO IN: J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 313-352.—T. E. Thorpe, *History of chemistry*, v. 1, pp. 84-100.—T. E. Thorpe, *Essays in historical chemistry*, ch. 16, pp. 514-553.—H. C. Jones, *New era in chemistry*, pp. 1-75.

ANALYTICAL

This branch concerns itself primarily with the determination of the constituents of a chemical compound. The two great subdivisions of analytical chemistry are *qualitative* analysis which is interested only in the detection of the constituents, and *quantitative* analysis which ascertains the amount of the constituent present. In chemistry, the methods of analysis are generally classified according to types of reactions it undergoes. Thus, *dry* or *blowpipe* analysis consists of the examination of the dry substance, quantitative work being termed "dry assaying"; wet analysis is the treatment of a solution of the substance with different reagents to produce known reactions. In quantitative analysis two methods of examination are practiced: (1) Gravimetric in which the constituent is precipitated as an insoluble compound by reagents or by the passage of an electric current; (2) Volumetric by means of which the strength of the unknown is compared with the known strength by means of standardized solutions. Robert Boyle may well be considered the founder of analytical chemistry, although inklings are to be found in the writings of chemists of the iatrochemical period.

He first realized that certain substances give certain precipitates with various solutions, and introduced vegetable indicators to detect bases and acids, a discovery which laid the foundation of all chemical analysis. It remained for Bergman, however, to lay the foundations of a systematic qualitative analysis. He is responsible for the systematic separation of the metals into groups according to their behaviour with reagents, a division which is of fundamental importance in determining the constituents of minerals. For the introduction of blowpipe analysis we must credit Axel Fredrik Cranstedt while the systematization is due to Berzelius, Hausmann, and in recent times K. F. Plattner. Flame coloration due to the presence of certain metals was first observed by Marggraf and Schiele, but it remained for Bunsen and Merz to perfect this new branch of chemical analysis with the introduction of the spectroscope. Until the advent of Lavoisier, quantitative chemistry can hardly be thought of as having existed. He may properly be said to be its founder, for it was his research which first opened the eyes of the scientific world to the importance of this branch. Praust, Dalton, and Berzelius in their exposition of the different phases of atomic action contributed enormously to the development of the field. In 1865 O. Wolcott Gibbs applied the principle of electrical precipitation of metals to analytical chemistry, working out the electrolytic separation of copper. This phase was more extensively studied by Alexander Classen, who published his results in his "Qualitative Chemical Analysis by Electricity" in 1903.

PHYSICAL

Laws of gases.—Crystallography.—Solutions.—Colloids.—"At the outset we should note that the basis of the whole science rests on two 'laws'—the conservation of mass and the conservation of energy. . . . The first of these was proved by Lavoisier when he showed that in chemical reactions matter is never either created or destroyed, but quite recently (1893-1908) elaborate experiments have been carried out by H. Landolt in order to test how far the law is an accurate expression of fact, the final result being that it is rigidly correct to within the limits of one part in ten million. The accompanying doctrine of the conservation of energy is due more to Mayer and to Joule (1842) than to any other physicists, though not a few workers dealt with the subject in the earlier part of the nineteenth century. The first to realize the varying chemical nature of different gases were van Helmont (who introduced the term 'gas' about 1620) and Rey (who showed that air possessed weight, in 1630). The relation of the volume of gases to external pressure was discovered by Boyle (1660) and Mariotte (1670), while the effect of temperature was quantitatively investigated by Charles (1785) and Gay-Lussac (1808). Dalton (1807) showed that, in any mixture of gases, each exercised its own 'partial pressure' independently of the rest. Again, in 1808, Gay-Lussac found that the volumes of reacting gases always bore a simple ratio to each other and to the volume of the products (if gaseous), and this served in certain cases to contradict Dalton's atomic hypothesis until in 1811 Avogadro put forward the hypothesis that equal volumes of gases contained equal numbers of molecules (Ampère attempted to extend the same hypothesis to solids, with indifferent success, a few years later). In the meantime, from a purely physical standpoint, others were developing the kinetic theory of gases. The idea that gas particles are

in motion was expressed by Bernoulli (1738) and Herapath, but a physical estimation of their mean velocities was first made by Joule in 1851. The modern kinetic theory of gases was practically stated by Waterson (1845) in an unpublished paper which was only brought to light in 1892 by Lord Rayleigh, and consequently the fame of evolving the theory rests with Clausius (1857) and Maxwell (1860). From this in 1881 van der Waals constructed a modified form of the 'gas-equation' $PV=RT$ (Horstmann), which should express the deviations from Boyle's and Gay-Lussac's laws shown by readily liquefiable gases, and also to a smaller extent (Amagat, 1880) by the then-called permanent gases (nitrogen, hydrogen, oxygen). This equation,

$$\left(p + \frac{a}{v^2}\right) (v - b) = RT$$

(where a and b are specific constants), is so accurate an expression of fact that by its means, on the one hand, Guye and Friedrich were able in 1900 to deduce practically coincident values for the 'gas-constant' R from measurements of different gases, and, on the other, Daniel Berthelot (1899) has theoretically calculated the atomic weights of various elements from the densities of their compounds (or of the elements themselves) determined by Regnault (1845), Lord Rayleigh (1888), and others. The values so obtained agreed excellently with those from chemical data. The *liquefaction of gases* was a subject of careful study by Northmore (1805), who liquefied chlorine, and by Michael Faraday (1823), who condensed ammonia, sulphur dioxide, and other gases by the combined application of considerable pressure and a freezing mixture.

"His principle was improved by later workers, such as R. Pictet (1877), Cailletet (1877), Wroblewski and Olzsczewski (1883), and, finally Dewar (1884), by increasing the pressure and the degree of cold, so that all the known gases (even the so-called permanent ones), with the exception of hydrogen and helium (discovered later), had been liquefied by 1885. Dewar succeeded in liquefying hydrogen in 1898, and in the meantime a new principle (Hampson-Linde, 1895, the intense cooling of a gas by its own expansion when already cooled under great pressure) led to the cheapening of liquefaction processes. Finally, H. Kammerlingh Onnes condensed helium in 1908 to a colourless liquid boiling at 4.5° Abs., and has also obtained it in the solid state. In 1821 Cagniard de la Tour noticed that many gases could not be liquefied above a certain temperature by any pressure, and in 1869 Andrews minutely studied the phenomenon and found that for each gas there existed a temperature above which no amount of pressure would condense it; he called this the *critical temperature* and the pressure necessary to produce liquefaction at that temperature the *critical pressure*, while the specific volume of the liquid formed was the *critical volume*. Much important theoretical work has since been carried out on the critical data, notably by Mendelejew (1884) and by Ham-say and Young (1894). Finally the decomposition of some gases by heat and their reformation on cooling was studied by Deville in 1857 and named '*dissociation*.' About the same time Kopp and Kekulé observed the effect and set it down to partial decomposition. Gaseous dissociation has been studied quantitatively by methods of effusion (sal ammoniac, Pebal, 1862), colorimetry (phosphorus pentachloride, Deville; nitric peroxide, Salet, 1868), and specific heat (nitrogen peroxide, acetic acid vapour, Berthelot and Ogier, 1882).

—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 172-175.

Also in: W. Hempel, *Methods of gas analysis*.—L. M. Dennis, *Gas analysis*.—J. Hornby, *Gas engineer's laboratory handbook*, London, 1894.—N. M. Latta, *Handbook of American gas-engineering practice*.—C. H. Stone, *Present status of candle power standards for gas*.—H. C. Russel, *Drying apparatus*.

"This sub-science [crystallography], so important for mineralogy, was given a definite shape by Romé de L'Isle, Haüy, and Werner, who in the early years of the nineteenth century classified crystals according to physical form and assumed that difference in form entailed difference in chemical composition. This was overthrown later by Mitscherlich's discovery of *polymorphism* (1821). Later crystal-systems, by means of which all crystal-forms were finally divided into thirty-two geometrical classes, are due to Hessel (1830), Gadolin (1867) and P. Curie (1884). In 1888 Beinitzer noticed that cholesteryl benzoate, before melting to a clear liquid, passed through a turbid or milky phase, and in 1890 other instances were observed by Gattermann. Lehmann (1890) found that the turbid liquid rotates the plane of polarized light, and must therefore be doubly-refracting and possess crystalline structure. Such substances are said to be *liquid crystals*, and although Tammann (1901) disputed the crystalline structure, the previous explanation is usually adopted at the present time. The relation of crystalline form to chemical composition has naturally been the subject of much study. In 1846 Buys-Ballot stated that the elements and simpler compounds tended to crystallize in the simplest forms (regular and hexagonal) and more recently Retgers has statistically demonstrated the truth of the proposition (1892). Before this, however, Mitscherlich discovered *isomorphism* (1819), following on Gay-Lussac's and Bendant's observations on the growth of potash alum in ammonia alum, and of ferrous sulphate in copper sulphate solutions respectively. Mitscherlich based his views of isomorphism on phosphoric and arsenic acid salts, selenic and sulphuric acid salts, and the alums and oxides of iron, chromium, and aluminium, and, with Berzelius, held that isomorphous bodies contained similar atomic structures—a point utilized by Berzelius to assist in determining atomic weights. Fuchs, similarly, discussed the constitution of isomorphous minerals (1872). Finally, reference must be made to Mitscherlich's further discoveries of *dimorphism* and *polymorphism* (1821), and to Scherer's use of the term *polymeric isomorphism* (when atoms had been replaced by an atomic group to form an isomorph). Kopp's work on the specific volumes of isomorphs is noteworthy. Other interesting points are the phenomenon of *isogonism* or *hemi-hedry* observed by Pasteur in 1861, wherein the slightest change of constitution (change of asymmetric configuration) causes a similar change in the position of the crystal facets, and that of *morphotropy*, studied by Groth (1876)—the definite alteration of form caused by definite substituents in organic compounds, especially in the aromatic series. In conclusion, we have to describe the comprehensive theory recently elaborated by Barlow and Pope (1906), who 'regard the whole of the volume occupied by a crystalline structure as partitioned out into polyhedra, which lie packed together in such a manner as to fill the whole of that volume without interstices. The polyhedra . . . are termed the spheres of atomic influence of the constituent atoms.' The crystalline forms of many of the elements and simpler compounds,

at all events, agree with the postulates of this theory, which is also capable of furnishing a steric formula for benzene expressing, according to the authors, all the necessary chemical facts."—*Ibid.*, pp. 175-176.

Further progress was made in the laws of solutions. "The osmotic pressure of solutions is a field opened up by the work of Pfeffer (1877) who made use of Traube's 'semi-permeable membranes' (1867). Pfeffer found that substances in solutions obeyed definite laws with reference to their osmotic pressure, etc., but it was van't Hoff who first perceived that dilute solutions are amenable to the same laws as gases, and that hence, among other corollaries, it follows that the molecular weight of a dissolved substance is related to the vapour pressure of the solution. This led to the determination of molecular weights by lowering the vapour pressure of a solvent (Raoult, 1887) or, what amounts to the same, lowering of freezing-point or elevation of boiling-point; it then appeared that solutions of electrolytes in water gave abnormal values for the molecular weight, and this found an explanation in Arrhenius' ionic theory (1886), which assumed that ions exist ready formed in dilute solution, the electric current exerting simply a directive effect. This does not, however, afford an absolutely perfect explanation, and it seems likely that the final theory of solutions will be a combination of Mendelejew and Arrhenius' theory of hydration of ions and molecules (1888) for concentrated solutions, with the ionic theory for dilute solutions and electrolysis. The electrical conductivity of solutions has been the subject of experiment ever since Hittorf (1853-9) determined the 'transport numbers' for the migration of the ions and Kohlrausch (1870) discovered, first, the relation of the 'transport number' to conductivity (1870) and then the law of the 'independent migration of the ions' (1885), whereby the total conductivity of a solution was shown to depend upon the sum of the two ionic velocities. The conductivity of acids (organic, Ostwald, 1878-87; Walden, 1891; very weak acids, Walker, 1900) has been shown to be a measure of their 'relative affinity,' . . . while that of pure water has been concordantly determined by the E.M.F. of an acidalkali cell (Oswald, 1893), the hydrolysis of salts (Arrhenius, 1893), and the rate of hydrolysis of methyl acetate in pure water (van't Hoff and Wiis, 1893), and finally, by direct measurement (Kohlrausch and Heydwiller, 1894). *Ampho-teric electrolytes* (both acid and basic, such as methyl orange, sulphanilic acid, glycocoll, zinc hydroxide and other feebly acidic metal oxides) have been studied by Küster (1892), Winkelhlech (1901), J. Walker (1904), and many others; similar fields have been opened by Hantzsch in the case of *pseudo-acids and bases* (1896), and Noyes and Whitney on *complex ions* ('double salts') in 1894. *Conductivity* in solvents other than water has been investigated by Tessori (1896, formic acid), Carrara (1896, acetone) and especially by Jones (1902-6) and by Walden (1901-6, tetra ethylammonium iodide in liquid sulphur dioxide, sulphur oxychloride, ether, etc., etc.), while Kahlenberg (1902-3) has proved that the dissociating power of a solvent depends directly upon the magnitude of its dielectric constant. Finally, Nernst has recently given theoretical explanations of 'Volta's pile' and of the ordinary galvanic cells by means of a diffusion theory based upon van't Hoff's theory of solutions.

"The solutes we have so far dealt with are all crystalline substances, but we must now refer to another branch of soluble bodies, the *colloidal sub-*

stances. The purification of these has been rendered possible by the process of *dialysis*, discovered by Graham in his researches on *diffusion*. The phenomenon of diffusion seems to have been first noticed by Parrot in 1815, and a mathematical treatment of the subject appeared by Ficks in 1855. In the meantime the different rates of diffusion and effusion of gases had been studied by Graham in 1851, and later the same chemist extended his observations to the diffusion of dissolved bodies through animal membranes. He found that these were permeable to one set of substances (crystalloids) and impermeable to others such as dextrin, silicic acid, tannin, which he termed *colloids* (1862). Work on osmosis by Jolly, Brücke, and Pfeffer (1877) proved that the osmotic pressure of such bodies was very small, and consequently their molecular weight should be enormously large, that of many being greater than 10,000 (Linebarger found by osmotic pressure measurements in 1892 that tungstic acid, one of the simpler colloids, possessed a molecular weight of 1700-1720: $(\text{H}_2\text{WO}_4)_n = 1750$. Much work has been done of late years on this subject (especially by Bredig, 1903, and Biltzer, 1903).—T. P. Hilditch, *Concise history of chemistry*, pp. 175-179.—Through the work of P. P. von Weimarn, especially, it was discovered that Graham's classification of substances into colloidal and crystalloidal worlds was wrong. He mathematically calculated the main formulae governing the appearance of a substance in either the colloidal or crystalloidal state and introduced general methods for making colloids. Von Weimarn himself produced over 400 substances in the colloidal state. Zsigmondy will be remembered not only for his work in the production of new colloids but also for his invention of the ultra-microscope, which has more than any other factors combined contributed to advance this new and increasingly important branch of chemistry.

ALSO IN: W. Ostwald, *Handbook of colloid chemistry*.—P. Rohland, *Die Kolloidstoffe in den Tonen*.—E. Hatschek, *Introduction to the physics and chemistry of colloids*.

Due to the work of Bredig, "colloidal suspensions of the metals were found to have very remarkable properties. They were found to be excellent catalyzers, and to effect many of the same reactions that are brought about by the organic enzymes. Thus, finely divided platinum will oxidize alcohol to acetic acid in the presence of the oxygen of the air, just as the ferment *mycoderma aceti* will do. Oxalic acid is broken down by finely divided metals, just as it is by yeast. These finely divided metals invert cane sugar just like the organic ferments. The reaction which was studied most thoroughly from the standpoint of the analogy between the action of colloidal suspensions of the metals and organic enzymes, was the decomposition of hydrogen dioxide. This substance is decomposed by all of the finely divided metals, and also by all of the organic ferments. It is an especially good reaction to study from this standpoint, because the velocity of the decomposition can be so readily measured. That the metals decompose this substance catalytically is shown by the fact that the reaction is, as we say, of the first order; that is, the metal does not enter into the reaction at all, only the mass of the hydrogen dioxide present undergoing change. The analogy between the action of the finely divided metals and the organic enzymes is strikingly illustrated by the behavior of poisons on the two. The same substances which poison the ferments and which retard the rate at which they decompose hydrogen

dioxide, also 'poison' the platinum and retard the rate at which it effects the same decomposition. Thus, mercuric chloride and hydrocyanic acid, in the merest traces, poison the organic enzymes. The same quantities produce almost exactly the same effect on the finely divided metals, with respect to their power to decompose hydrogen dioxide."—H. C. Jones, *New era in chemistry*, pp. 243-244.—More recently, within the period of the World War, colloidal gold solutions have been used to test spinal fluids. This work was developed chiefly at the Bellevue Hospital where Dr. Getter succeeded in obtaining a suitable colloidal gold solution which served as an extremely delicate test for spinal fluids of paretics, luetics, or meningetics. The condition is determined by examining the color changes caused by the precipitation of the colloidal gold in a series of succeeding tubes with degrees of diluted spinal fluid. The whole test is based on the fact that colloids are protective in nature, two explanations of the action being given: First, that here is something in abnormal spinal fluids which will precipitate colloidal gold, the degree of concentration exerting an influence on the precipitation; second, that the colloidal gold is protected by something which exists in normal spinal fluid, but which has been destroyed in abnormal conditions, thus causing precipitation.

ALSO IN: W. C. McC. Lewis, *System of physical chemistry*.—K. Jellinek, *Lehrbuch der physikalische Chemie*.—H. W. Nernst, *Theoretical chemistry*.—E. N. Washburn, *Introduction to principles of physical chemistry*.—J. Walker, *Introduction to physical chemistry*.—J. L. R. Morgan, *Elements of physical chemistry*.—S. L. Bigelow, *Theoretical and physical chemistry*.—H. C. Jones, *Elements of physical chemistry*.—W. Ramsay, *Modern chemistry, theoretical and systematic*.—A. Reychler, *Physikalisch-chemische Theorien*.

ORGANIC

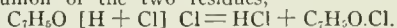
Defined.—Use of term "radicle."—Synthesis of organic compounds.—Laws of substitution and types.—Further discoveries.—"Organic chemistry is the chemistry of the carbon compounds; the study of the hydrocarbons and their derivatives. So early as at the close of the seventeenth century mineral substances were classed apart from vegetable and animal, the three being treated separately in text-books of chemistry. . . . This division was in accordance with the classification of natural substances according to the three 'kingdoms of nature,' which was even then in vogue. It was from this empirical standpoint that the chemistry of organic compounds developed itself, after Lavoisier had proved qualitatively that the main constituents of these were carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and sometimes nitrogen, occasionally together with sulphur and phosphorus. . . . While Lavoisier and other chemists after him remained true to the old classification of substances, Bergman began about the year 1780 to distinguish organic from inorganic bodies. But, in spite of the simplicity which this proposal had to recommend it, the line which remained drawn between vegetable and animal substances was only gradually removed as the knowledge increased that the same chemical compounds occurred both in vegetables and animals, as proved, e. g., in the case of several fats, formic acid, benzoic acid, etc. Still it was generally felt to be necessary to strictly separate organic from inorganic bodies, it being represented as an infallible distinction that the former could not be prepared directly from their elements. But even this barrier was destined to

fall before very long, and both classes of compounds to be regarded henceforth from the same standpoints."—E. von Meyer, *History of chemistry*, pp. 246-248.—"Liebig [1803-1873] defined organic chemistry as the chemistry of compound radicles. The term 'radicle' was first mentioned in 1787 by Guyton de Morveau; but the idea of radicals, as we now conceive them, arose in the time of Lavoisier, who applied the term to that part of a compound which united with oxygen. Berzelius adopted the idea, and said in 1817 that the difference between inorganic and organic compounds lies in the circumstance that in inorganic compounds all the oxidised substances have a *simple* radicle, while all organic substances have *compound* radicles. Gay-Lussac had already, in 1815, discovered cyanogen, and demonstrated that it is the radicle of the prussiates, while Ampère and Berzelius had worked out the constitution of the ammonium salts on the theory that ammonium (NH_4) is a radicle. Starting with a knowledge of these views of his seniors, Liebig first worked on organic compounds containing the radicle cyanogen (CN). Then, in 1832, working with Wöhler, he showed that benzoyl ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}$) is the radicle of a series of bodies. This demonstration was followed by the long controversy on the constitution of alcohol and ether. Gay-Lussac had in 1815 suggested that these substances were compounds of olefiant gas. Dumas and Boullay in 1828 developed this suggestion, and termed olefiant gas (C_2H_4) the radicle of all the ethers, as ammonium (NH_4) is the radicle of all the ammonium compounds. Thus, sugar would be ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{CO}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), and might be called the bicarbonate of this radicle, just as the principal ingredient of smelling salts is called the bicarbonate of ammonium ($\text{NH}_2\text{CO}_2\text{H}_2\text{O}$). Berzelius, after opposing, accepted this etherin theory. Liebig in 1833 argued that just as sal ammoniac is regarded as NH_4Cl , not NH_3HCl , so muriatic ether should be regarded as $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{Cl}$, not $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{HCl}$, because, he said, contrary to the opinion of Dumas, alcohol contains combined water, which ether does not. Thus, alcohol ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$) contains oxidised hydrogen, as water is oxidised hydrogen, while, on the other hand, ether is (C_2H_5) $_2\text{O}$. Regnault explained this constitution on the basis of the radicle aldehydene (C_2H_3), and Liebig compared this with NH_3 . In short, Liebig borrowed his radicle theory from Berzelius, but carried it out from a more practical point of view, further, and more consistently.

"The first . . . synthesis of a truly organic compound [was made by Wöhler in 1828]. By this experiment, which depended on the molecular transformation of ammonium cyanate, of purely inorganic origin, into urea, an eminently characteristic animal product, he broke down the idea that organic compounds are the result of a vital action, which is independent of ordinary chemical laws, and which often brings about changes in defiance of them. A new era began from this discovery—an era which has already been marked by the synthetical production of innumerable carbon compounds, resembling in character, and often identical with, those produced in the organs of plants and animals. Wöhler also worked on urine, and on the physiological secretion through it of matter from the body. In 1830 he published, in collaboration with Liebig, papers on mellitic and cyanic acids. . . . A new era in chemistry, as Berzelius said, was created in 1832 by the publication of Liebig and Wöhler's researches on the radicle of benzoic acid (*Annalen der Chemie und Pharmacie*, Vol. III, p. 249). They demonstrated that that radicle, which they termed ben-

zoyl ($\text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{O}$), might be regarded as a compound element entering into a host of combinations. The idea of a radicle containing oxygen was then quite a new suggestion. In 1837 Dumas was converted by Liebig to his views, and they jointly published a paper, in which they asserted that numerous organic compounds are formed from a small number of simple substances, which first combine to form radicles, some of which resemble chlorine and oxygen, and others resemble metals. These radicles are the elements of organic chemistry, and they cannot be decomposed into their simple elements without annihilating their organic nature. The dualistic theory of the constitution of chemical compounds thus included organic bodies, but the electro-chemical theory also held its place. The next great advance took place about 1834, when Dumas evolved his Law of Substitution from a number of discoveries—Gay-Lussac's chloride of cyanogen (1815), Faraday's series (1821) from ethylene dichloride ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{Cl}_2$) to carbon sesqui-chloride (C_2Cl_6), Liebig and Wöhler's chloride of benzoyl, the formation of chloral, and his own substitution compounds of turpentine. This law and the facts upon which it was based interfered with the electro-chemical view of Berzelius, and led Laurent in 1836 to propose his Nucleus Theory. According to this theory, every organic compound contains a group of atoms called 'kernel' or 'nucleus' (Fr. *noyau*; Ger. *Kern*). Primary nuclei are hydrocarbons, of which the hydrogen may be replaced by chlorine, or another element, without altering the shape of the nucleus. There are also secondary nuclei, of which the compounds are substitution products of the corresponding compounds of the primary nuclei. Laurent's views are noticeable, inasmuch as he doubled the old formulæ, as indeed we do now. The nucleus theory was the basis of classification in Leopold Gmelin's large *Handbook of Chemistry* . . . but was not much further recognised. The Substitution Theory led Dumas himself to his Theory of Types [1839]. According to it, all bodies which are derived from each other by simple substitution belong to the same type; for example, acetic acid and its chlor-derivatives: chloroform, bromoform, and iodoform; aldehyde and chloral. He further recognised with Regnault mechanical types [1840]—that is to say, bodies containing the same number of equivalents but having different properties, as alcohol and acetic acid. A fierce contest now ensued between Berzelius, with his electro-chemical dualistic theories, and Dumas with his substitutions, which ended in the victory of the Substitution Theory and the Type Theory in improved form. These prevailed because they were in the main founded upon ascertained facts; while Berzelius had to meet these facts by endless modification and complication of formulæ, in order to make the new bodies, discovered in great numbers at this period, appear to conform to his theoretical views. . . . Liebig argued against the views of Berzelius because they were founded upon supposition, rejected Laurent's nucleus theory as being unscientific and useless, and said that Dumas went too far with his Substitution Theory, especially in saying that even carbon could be replaced by other elements or groups. The continually increasing number of new substitution compounds firmly established the Law of Substitution in the form in which we now have it. Great support was rendered to it by Melsens in 1842, when he showed that the original compound can be reproduced by inverse substitution; for example, that by the action of potassium amalgam on trichloroacetic acid one again obtains acetic acid.

Hoffman in 1845 discovered the chlorinated anilines, whereupon Liebig enunciated the doctrine that the nature of a compound depends not on the nature of the elements composing it, but on their position in the compound. This admission of chlorine into radicles subsequently led to the recognition that oxygen might exist in a radicle. At first it was not conceived that it might be possible to isolate radicles, any more than the nuclei of Laurent; both were deemed hypothetical bodies. But this idea of radicles was gradually modified, until their isolability was held to be possible, and became an object of research. Then followed Bunsen's work on the cacodyl compounds, which resulted in his isolation of cacodyl (C_6H_6As)₂, a radicle that enters into numerous combinations, in which it plays the part of a metal. . . .—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 374, 375, 379-380, 408-411.—“Gerhardt, in 1839, regarded substitution as a particular case of the copulation of two residues or radicles. Thus when chlorine acted on oil of bitter almonds, the former lost a chlorine and the latter a hydrogen atom in the form of hydrogen chloride, and the product was formed by the union of the two residues,



In this way the idea of substitution could be extended to include the products obtained by the action of sulphuric acid and nitric acid on benzene, of acetic acid on alcohol, of ammonia on benzoyl chloride, etc. Gerhardt regarded his residues, not as real substances, but as expressions of the changes which a compound could undergo; he therefore distinguished between the radicles H and Cl and the gases H₂ and Cl₂. He also halved the formulæ of nearly all organic compounds and used simple formulæ based on Avogadro's hypothesis.”—T. M. Lowry, *Historical introduction to chemistry*, p. 445.

“After Liebig and Dumas, Wurtz is most conspicuous as one of the founders of organic chemistry. . . . In 1845 he discovered sulphophosphoric acid and potassium oxychloride, and three years later cyanic and cyanuric ethers, thus opening out a new field of research in organic chemistry, and discovering a method of forming primary amines from cyanic ethers. In 1840 he discovered methylamine, the simplest organic derivative of ammonia, and also the compound ammonias, which he regarded as conjugated compounds of olefines and ammonia (C_2H_4, NH_3), until Hoffmann reproduced them by another process, and thus disclosed their true nature. His study of the compound ureas followed in 1851. Wurtz then interpreted Berthollet's glycerine and its derivative on the ‘condensed type’ theory, and discovered in 1856 the first diatomic alcohol, named glycol. This he formed by combining olefiant gas with bromine and replacing the bromine by the radicle ‘hydroxyl’ (OH). By the action of hydrochloric acid on glycol he produced ethene chlorhydrate, which by oxidation yields chloracetic acid, and by ammonia chloracetamide. A controversy ensued between Frankland and Kolbe, on the one hand, who maintained that the radicles isolated from the alcohols remained free, and Laurent, Gerhardt and Hoffmann, on the other, who asserted that they combined with themselves, as, for example, $C_2H_5.C_2H_5$. Wurtz entered into this discussion, and produced evidence in favour of the latter view by treating a mixture of iodides of two different alcohol radicles with sodium, and so forming a mixed radicle. But a more important branch of his research was his work on lactic acid, by which he contributed to the development of the doctrine of the atomicity, as distinguished from the basicity, of an acid.

Lactic acid was first isolated from sour milk by Scheele; Berzelius obtained it from other sources; Liebig and Mitscherlich determined its composition; and Strecker produced it synthetically. Wurtz formed it by the oxidation of propyl-glycol. . . . In 1867 he produced neurine by synthesis, and in 1872 discovered aldol, which possesses the double character of an alcohol and an aldehyde, hence its name. He also conducted an investigation into vapour densities, discovered phosphorus oxychloride, and worked upon the saturation capacity of the nitrogen atom. Of great importance also was the discovery of phenol, which was first observed by Wurtz and Kekulé by fusing benzene-sulphonic acid with potash. The next chemist whom we have to mention is Antoine Jerome Balard (1802-1876). . . . In addition to the discovery of bromine, Balard discovered hypochlorous acid and studied the bleaching compounds of chlorine. In organic chemistry he did valuable work. He discovered oxamic acid, and investigated amylic alcohol, the decomposition of ammonium oxalate, the cyanides, and the difference between nitric and sulphuric ethers. . . . “Friedrich August Kekulé (1829-1896) is intimately associated with the doctrine of the linkage of atoms. . . . After Frankland [1825-1899] had enunciated the theory of atomicity, Kekulé declared carbon to be tetravalent, and then set forth his doctrine of the linkage of atoms. He said that in a substance containing several carbon atoms it must be assumed that some of the affinities of each carbon atom are bound by the affinities of the atoms of other elements in the substance, and some by an equal number of the affinities of the other carbon atoms. But he engaged in other research of great moment. His theory of the constitution of benzene founded on the linkage of atoms has been called ‘the most brilliant piece of prediction to be found in the whole range of organic chemistry.’ It has led to the elucidation of the constitution of the aromatic compounds, and to new methods which amongst other things have conduced to the development of the coal-tar colours, and to the preparation of artificial and synthetic medicines.”—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 424-426, 429, 437-438.

ALSO IN: J. B. Cohen, *Organic chemistry (text book)*.—F. G. Pope, *Modern researches in organic chemistry*.—A. W. Stewart, *Recent advances*.—F. A. K. Heinrich, *Theorien der organischen Chemie*.—E. I. Hjelt, *Geschichte der organischen Chemie*.—H. T. Clark, *Introduction to organic chemistry*.—C. Mouren, *Notions fondamentales de chimie organique*.—J. F. Norris, *Principles of organic chemistry*.—K. Graebe, *Geschichte der organischen Chemie*.

PRACTICAL APPLICATION

The progress which the organic chemist has made during the past few decades has been most astonishing. To-day he produces drugs to allay fever, to dispel pain, to calm the nerves, and to stimulate the heart; he manufactures dyes for wool, silk, and cotton, dyes of evanescent beauty of shade, or of such ruggedness as to resist all harsh treatment; fibers of the glossy beauty of silk or of the coarseness of horse-hair. He produces explosives, for use in war and in peace; cosmetics and perfumes; disinfectants and foods. In short, in every walk of life we detect the product of the organic chemist's ingenuity, from the moving picture and medicine to the Panama Canal. The dye industry is as closely related to the manufacture of high explosives as the manufacture of steel for rails is to

that of making cannon and battleships. In times of war, it is a simple matter to shift from the manufacture of the dyes to that of explosives, by the rearrangement of the molecules, as is shown by a study of the formulas of the different substances.

ALSO IN: E. Molinari, *Treatise on general and industrial chemistry*.—G. Martin, *Industrial and manufacturing chemistry*.—A. Rogers (in coll. with J. Alexander, etc.), *Manual of industrial chemistry*.—J. R. von Wagner, *Manual of chemical technology* (trans. and ed. by W. Crookes).—C. E. Groves and W. Thorp, *Chemical technology, or Chemistry in its applications to arts and manufactures*.—A. J. Hale, *Modern chemistry*.

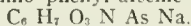
Drugs: Early synthetic processes.—**Chloroform; iodoform; chloral; veronal; adrenaline; antifebrin; phenacetin; aspirin; salvarsan; strychnine; morphine; atropine; coniine; formaldehyde; saccharin.**—"A systematic study of synthetic processes was first undertaken by Berthelot the famous French chemist [1827-1907]. He showed how, by starting from the elements and from mineral substances, carbon can be combined step by step with hydrogen, then with oxygen, and again with nitrogen, producing thereby organic compounds, some identical with certain products of nature, others only analogous thereto, but at the same time serving as starting points for the formation of natural organic compounds. A single example taken from Berthelot's work will suffice by way of illustration. By heating carbon (coke or charcoal) in the electric arc surrounded by an atmosphere of hydrogen, acetylene, C_2H_2 , is formed. By an easy process acetylene can be made to combine with more hydrogen so as to produce ethylene, C_2H_4 . Ethylene dissolves in concentrated sulphuric acid, and the compound thus formed when mixed with water unites with the elements of water and, distilled, yields *alcohol*, C_2H_5O . The alcohol thus formed is identical in every respect with alcohol produced by fermentation of sugar. The synthetic process is so practicable that a company was at one time actually formed with the object of manufacturing alcohol from common coal-gas, of which ethylene is a constituent. This was fifty years ago, but the development of the same idea as that which was the basis of Berthelot's experiments has led in later times to the building up of numberless chemical compounds previously known only as limited products of animal or vegetable life. Before proceeding to describe the origin of some of the most modern of chemical drugs the reader may be reminded that previous generations have already enjoyed the use of some of the agents originating in the chemical laboratory. The most familiar of anæsthetics, 'the gas' used by every modern dentist, was breathed for the first time by Sir Humphry Davy so long ago as 1798, and in the earliest of his works he describes his 'Researches Chemical and Philosophical chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxide and its Respiration' (1800). Ether has been known from the times of the alchemists and from its being produced by the action of strong sulphuric acid on alcohol, it was called in those days *oleum vitrioli dulce*. Its use as an anæsthetic belongs exclusively to quite modern practice; it is generally associated with chloroform."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, pp. 334-336.—"The earliest of these synthetic products dates from 1832, when Liebig prepared the anæsthetic **chloroform**, by the action of bleaching powder on alcohol. Who will dare to compute the sum of misery and suffering from which this one discovery has freed mankind, or place a money value on the service it has rendered?"

But the discovery of chloroform has been followed by the discovery of other anæsthetics; general anæsthetics like ether and ethyl chloride (also, like chloroform, produced from alcohol); and local anæsthetics like novocaine (a derivative of coal tar benzene), used as a substitute for the vegetable alkaloid cocaine."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 240-241.—"The alkaloids of opium and those of cinchona bark and many other vegetable principles had also been introduced into regular medical practice long ago. The characteristic of our own time in respect to medicine arises from the great advances which have been made in the knowledge of physiology and theoretical chemistry, and recognition of the interdependence the one on the other. . . ."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, p. 336.—"Side by side with chloroform we may place the closely related compound **iodoform**, a yellow crystalline compound largely used as an antiseptic. Following closely on the discovery of chloroform came the discovery of **chloral**, the first hypnotic to be produced commercially. But the dangers attending the use of chloral led to the search for and discovery of other hypnotics which are free from the bad qualities of chloral; and at the present day quite a number of synthetic hypnotics are known, of which perhaps the most familiar are **veronal**, and the inter-related compounds, **sulphonal**, **trional**, and **tetralon**. If the introduction of the anæsthetic chloroform marked a new era in surgery, a similar claim may perhaps also be made in connection with the substance **adrenaline**, the active principle of the supra-renal glands. This substance when injected subcutaneously even in *excessively minute amounts*, produces so violent a contraction of the arteries that the blood is driven away from the injected tissues and 'bloodless' surgery becomes a possibility. Adrenaline was isolated for the first time in 1901, from the supra-renal glands of sheep and oxen, close on 11,000 lbs. of tissue (the glands from 20,000 oxen) being required to yield 1 lb. of adrenaline. It was not long, however, before the nature of the substance had been determined, and a process for preparing it synthetically on an industrial scale had been devised. It is now placed on the market under the name *suprarenine*. . . ."

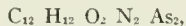
"The great development which has taken place in recent times in the industrial production of the synthetic drugs is due mainly to the discovery in 1887 of **antifebrin**, the first of a series of synthetic antipyretics which have entered into competition with the natural alkaloid quinine. Strangely enough, the discovery of the antipyretic properties of antifebrin, a compound derived from acetic acid and aniline, and known in chemistry as *acetanilide*, was due to a mistake on the part of a laboratory boy who supplied this substance in mistake for naphthalene. During a pharmacological investigation of the substance, its strongly antifebrile action was detected, and from a chemical analysis, it was learned what the substance really was. The success of the first synthetic antipyretic soon led to the preparation and systematic study of the physiological action of a large number of other substances, but although hundreds, indeed thousands, of these have been found to have certain medicinal value, only a few have, by their special properties or effectiveness, obtained a place in actual practice. Among synthetic drugs, however, there exists a ceaseless competition, and antifebrin has been largely superseded by newer and better drugs. Antifebrin, as we have seen, is derived from aniline, and is liable to undergo decomposition in the body, giving rise again to

aniline which exerts a toxic action; and the continued use of the drug is therefore dangerous. By slightly modifying the composition of antifebrin, however, another compound, the well-known phenacetin is obtained, a substance which possesses the valuable antipyretic properties of antifebrin, but is much less toxic. One other synthetic drug of which special mention may be made is the anti-rheumatic, aspirin, a derivative of salicylic acid, which is itself a therapeutic agent of value, and is prepared from the coal-tar product, phenol or carbolic acid. Owing, however, to the large amounts of phenol used in different departments of synthetic chemistry, the amount obtained from coal tar is quite insufficient to supply the demand, so that phenol itself is now largely manufactured from coal-tar benzene."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 241-243.—Phenol is also the starting point in the manufacture of salicylic acid, discovered by Kolbe in 1874.

"The discovery of new remedies depends more and more on a combination of chemical and physiological knowledge. No better illustration of this principle could be adduced than the case of the remarkable compound 'salvarsan,' or '606,' the use of which was introduced into medicine by Professor Ehrlich. Salvarsan is an artificial chemical compound containing the element arsenic in such a condition that it does not produce the ordinary effects of arsenical poisoning. It possesses the property of seeking out and destroying the specific organism of syphilis, the *Spirochata pallida*. Salvarsan does not represent the first attempt to use arsenical compounds for medical purposes. Common white arsenic, the arsenious oxide As_2O_3 , has long been recognised as a valuable alterative and tonic medicine when given in minute doses. It is also known to act as a dangerous poison in quantities exceeding a small fraction of a grain. Some fifty years ago cacodylic acid (dimethylarsinic acid $[(CH_3)_2 As O.OH]$) was tried in cases of tuberculosis, and arsenic acid itself was reported to have some value. Later a number of arsenical organic compounds were prepared by the French chemist Béchamp and others. Among the rest a substance named 'atoxyl' was introduced into medicine. Its constitution was, however, unknown and misrepresented till, in 1907, Ehrlich, in conjunction with A. Berthelm, proved that atoxyl is the sodium salt of para-amino phenyl-arsenic acid,



The use of atoxyl has been practically abandoned in favour of the more complicated dioxidiamino-arsenobenzene,



the hydrochloride of which is *salvarsan*. The rapid rise into notoriety of this remarkable substance is known to all the world, but it appears to be still doubtful whether it is effectual in all cases, and its action occasionally becomes poisonous. This is probably partly due to the fact that on exposure to the air it readily undergoes oxidation yielding a more poisonous compound. . . .

"Time alone can show whether these expectations are justified. Several of the natural drugs provided by the vegetable kingdom were mentioned. Of these the most important by far are those which are familiarly known as 'alkaloids,' inasmuch as the majority of them possess very powerful physiological action, and in many cases act as violent poisons when introduced into the animal economy either by the mouth or by hypodermic injection into the circulatory system. It is only necessary to mention strychnine, morphine, and atropine, all of which are used in medicine. These and many other substances of the same class have

been known for a long time, approaching a century. But beyond the fact that they contain beside carbon, hydrogen, and commonly also oxygen, together with nitrogen, little was known until recent times as to their chemical constitution. They agree in possessing the power of uniting with acids forming definite and usually crystalline salts. This property is connected with the nitrogen they contain, and down to about forty years ago they were assumed to be derivatives of ammonia, and the name *alkaloid* applied to them all had reference to the basic or alkaline character exhibited more or less strongly by every one. A considerable number of basic substances have been discovered in animal tissues or in products of decomposition and in a few cases these are identical with alkaloids derived from vegetable substances. Adenine, for example, is a base of comparatively simple composition with the formula $C_8 H_8 N_6$, which occurs not only in the pancreas but in small quantity in tea, beetroot, and shoots of bamboo. Its constitution is perfectly well known, not only from a study of its products of decomposition, but from the fact that it has been produced synthetically in the laboratory. Another case of a natural alkaloid which has been produced by artificial processes is *coniine*, the poisonous principle of hemlock (*Conium maculatum*). This is a colourless, oily substance, having the formula $C_8 H_{17} N$, which is obtainable from the hemlock plant or fruits by distillation with a solution of sodium carbonate. It rotates the plane of polarisation to the right. The artificial product is optionally inactive as it consists of equal quantities of two stereo-isomeric bases, the one rotating to the right, the other to an equal extent to the left. These were separated from each other by Ladenburg [1842-1911] by fractionally crystallising the tartrates, and the artificial right-handed base was found to be identical with the natural."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, pp. 330-341.

"One of the most remarkable compounds which has come into use during recent years is formaldehyde. This is obtained on a large scale by bringing the vapour of methyl alcohol (wood spirit) mixed with air into contact with heated platinum or copper. The formaldehyde produced is a gas, but dissolves readily in water, and a solution containing nearly 40 per cent is sold under the name of 'formalin.' This is used as a disinfectant and antiseptic. A very minute quantity of it added to milk, for example, will prevent change for many days. It has also the remarkable property of rendering gelatine in any form, such as glue, insoluble in water, whence many applications of this property to technical purposes. When brought into contact with ammonia it is converted into a solid crystalline substance, hexmethylene tetramine $(CH_2)_6 N_4$, used in medicine under the name *hexamine*, urotropin or formin.

"Among the many synthetic products which have become familiar in our own time is *saccharin*, a compound which is reputed to have a sweetening power four to five hundred times the sweetness of cane sugar. Saccharin, or *gluside* as it is called in the *British Pharmacopœia*, is orthosulphamido benzoic anhydride. $C_6 H_4 \left\langle \begin{array}{c} C \\ SO_2 \end{array} \right\rangle NH$.

It is produced by a series of operations which have for starting point the hydrocarbon toluene obtained from coal-tar. It is used as a substitute for sugar in the diet of patients suffering from diabetes and other disorders."—*Ibid.*, p. 337.

Essential oils and perfumes: *Early syntheses of coumarin, vanillin, and compound ethers.*—

"If the synthesis of colouring matters and of drugs constitutes an achievement of the greatest importance, the significance of which is all too little realised, scarcely less notable are the successes of the chemist in the synthesis of those natural spices and perfumes, which have been valued by man from the earliest days. For thousands of years the volatile substances to which the different flowers and plants owe their odours have been prepared by distillation or by extraction by means of solvents. But in the past thirty or forty years the secrets of nature have been largely unravelled, and the chemical laboratory has become as odorous as a garden, and filled with the perfumes of violet and rose, heliotrope, lilac, hyacinth, and orange blossom; and from the stills of the chemists there also flow liquids whose flavours imitate those of the apple, pear, pineapple, and other fruits, and which, in consequence, find application as artificial fruit essences. Although in a number of cases these perfumes and flavouring essences merely imitate the products of nature, in other cases the chemist has succeeded in preparing the identical substances to which the flavour of the natural fruit or the perfume of the growing flower is due. . . .

The synthetic production of sweet-smelling substances, often at only a fraction of the cost of the natural product has led to a great extension in the use of such substances, more especially for the perfuming of soaps, creams, and other toilet materials."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 244-245.—"It was among these things that one of the earliest triumphs of synthetical chemistry was celebrated when Perkin, the discoverer of the first coal-tar dye, contrived a process by which salicylic aldehyde could be transformed into coumarin. This was in 1868, and since a method was found in 1876 by which salicylic aldehyde could be produced from phenol, the synthesis may be regarded as complete, for, if necessary, phenol can be made from benzene, and benzene from acetylene, and the last can be formed by uniting carbon and hydrogen. Coumarin is the fragrant substance to which the perfume of the Tonquin bean, of woodruff, and some other plants is due, and artificial coumarin is now an article of manufacture without the aid of the plant. It was not long before a second step of the same kind was taken, for in 1876 a method was discovered for the synthesis of vanillin, the sweet-smelling constituent of the vanilla pod, so long used in confectionery. Here again it would be possible to proceed from the elements carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen. This, however, would necessitate several roundabout processes, and fortunately nature provides, in the substance called *eugenol*, a convenient and not too expensive material. Eugenol is the chief constituent of oil of cloves, and by acting on it with oxidising agents vanillin is produced. . . . Many years before such achievements could be placed on record the chemist had already learned that some of the fragrant essences so lavishly provided in fruit and flower and leaf could be reproduced by purely laboratory operations. As soon as organic chemistry began to be seriously studied nearly a century ago, among the earliest results was the production of what used to be called **compound ethers**, by the action of various acids on common alcohol, on the alcohol from wood spirit, and on the alcohol from fusel oil separated in the rectification of whiskey. Among these products were speedily recognised such odours and flavours as those of the pineapple, the jargonelle pear, and others. Pineapple owes its fragrance to ethyl butyrate, the pear to amyl acetate, wintergreen

(largely used in the United States) to methyl salicylate, while the strawberry and raspberry contain mixtures of several such ethereal compounds. These are now common articles of commerce. These, however, were not alone, for already in those early days the odour developed when bitter almonds are crushed with water was found to be due to the formation of another kind of substance . . . namely, benzaldehyde. Similarly the flowers of the meadowsweet contain salicylic aldehyde, the barks of cinnamon and cassia yield cinnamic aldehyde, the hawthorn and many garden flowers secrete other characteristic aldehydes. Nor were the older chemists altogether ignorant of the constitution of the essences to which the pungency of mustard, garlic, onions, and horse-radish are due. There are also ethereal salts or compound ethers which are characterised by the presence in them of sulphur associated with a radicle called *allyl* in reference to their frequent presence in plants of the genus *Allium*, belonging to the onion tribe."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, pp. 342-343.

Composition and Extraction of Essential Oils.—"There is perhaps no department of applied organic chemistry which has attracted during the last thirty years a larger number of workers, nor one in which a larger amount of definite progress has been achieved, for although the preparation of perfumes from plants is an industry which dates back many centuries, any knowledge of the composition of the 'essential oils' has been derived almost wholly from chemical researches conducted within living memory. Before proceeding to the most recent advances it will be in the interest of those who are quite unacquainted with the technology of the subject to explain briefly what is understood by an essential oil. An oil is usually understood to be a liquid fat which is practically insoluble in water and which floats on that liquid. When boiled with an alkaline liquid, such as solution of caustic soda, it slowly dissolves, forming a solution of soap. And if a drop of oil is placed on paper it forms a translucent spot which is permanent, for common oil does not evaporate away when exposed to the air. An essential oil is distinguished from the fatty oils first by a strong and characteristic odour; it usually floats on water, but it is slightly soluble, for the odour is commonly communicated to the water, as in such instances as the familiar rose-water or orange-flower water. An essential oil is usually changed by contact with caustic alkali, but it does not produce a soap. And lastly if a drop of essential oil is placed on paper the translucent stain disappears gradually as the oil evaporates away. Most commonly, though not invariably, an essential oil is a mixture of two chief ingredients. One of these is a terpene—a compound of carbon and hydrogen only—the other is usually a compound of carbon and hydrogen with oxygen, and consists of an aldehyde, a ketone, a compound ether or 'ester' or something else. To the latter ingredient the characteristic odour of the oil is mainly due. . . . The extraction of essential oils from the plants which contain them is accomplished in most cases by a process of distillation with water. The essential oil usually boils at a much higher temperature than water, but the vapour rises with the steam and both are condensed together, the oil then floating to the surface of the water from which it may be separated. . . . There are, however, other essential oils which cannot be extracted from the flowers or fruit containing them by a process of distillation without injury to their delicacy. In such cases as

the violet, for example, the flowers are macerated in hot lard, which is afterwards pressed out, retaining the perfume. . . . According to another plan, the scent may be extracted by immersing the flowers in light petroleum spirit, which can afterwards be separated and distilled off, leaving the essence behind. . . .

"The use of perfumes is a form of luxury which in ancient times was probably limited to the rich, but in our own day they are used more or less unconsciously by everybody. For while nearly all women delight in perfumes, few men deliberately scent their persons or their clothes, but they cannot escape the use of soap, which in the form of toilet soap invariably contains some kind of essential oil. . . . The consumption of essential oils is, however, not the greatest in the form of perfume. Immense quantities are used in making drinks like lemonade and alcoholic liqueurs of all kinds, also in confectionery and cookery. There is also an enormous demand for certain oils as medicinal agents, some for external use, others to be administered by the mouth, and many of them are included in all the pharmacopeias. . . . This synthetic industry is a development which follows naturally on the pursuit of knowledge in pure scientific chemistry without regard to possible applications. And much of the knowledge thus accumulated during the last forty years or more was no doubt regarded by the 'practical' man in years gone by as useless. . . . Though many of the discoveries were originally made in German laboratories, the later developments have gone forward elsewhere, and many of the leading French perfumery houses are devoting attention and capital to the subject."—*Ibid.*, pp. 344-346, 348-349, 351.

Synthesis of Perfumes (aromatics): Lilac; lily of the valley; violet; hawthorn; rose; hyacinth; orange blossom; camphor.—"The methods by which coumarin and vanillin have been produced were described. . . . To these we may now add, two other examples which on account of their scientific interest as well as their commercial importance cannot be overlooked. The first of these is the substance known as terpineol, a crystalline solid of which there are two varieties having a pleasant odour. It is the basis of the lilac and lily of the valley artificial perfumes, and is now manufactured by the ton. . . . The chemical structure of terpineol, which is a kind of alcohol, has been the subject of many researches, but it is now fully understood, as it has been produced synthetically from compounds of known constitution by Professor W. H. Perkin in 1904. The perfume of the violet was the subject of research by Tiemann and Kruger so long ago as 1893. They found it impossible to obtain sufficient material for their work from the flowers, but as this characteristic fragrance is possessed by the dried root of iris (orris), the latter was used by these chemists as the source of the fragrant oil on which their experiments were made. To this substance when purified they gave the name irone. It belongs to the class of compounds, called in chemical language ketones. . . . Protracted study of this compound led to the synthetical production of another substance to which the name ionone is given. This has the same ultimate composition . . . and closely similar properties, including especially the fragrant odour of the violet. No time was lost in applying these facts to the manufacture of artificial essence of violet. Ionone is made from citral, an aldehyde existing in considerable proportion in essences of lemon, and citron, and in lemon grass oil, to which the characteristic lemon odour of these materials is due. Ethyl and amyl salicylates are made and

used in perfumery, but they are not known to be contained in any natural essential oils. The odour of the heliotrope is said to be due to piperonal [C₈H₆O₂] which has long been known. The only important compound not referred to so far is camphor. This substance has been known from very early times, and before the sixth century was brought to Europe by the Arabians. In China and the East generally it has always been regarded as a valuable medicine, and is familiar enough in modern use both as a medicinal agent and antiseptic, as well as for other purposes, for example in the manufacture of celluloid. The greater part of the camphor of European commerce is obtained from the island of Formosa, and is distinguished as Japanese or Chinese camphor to distinguish it from borneol camphor, which is obtained from the *Laurus camphora*, the latter from *Dryobalanops camphora*, both large trees. . . . Camphor has always been procured by the crude and wasteful method of cutting up the wood, in which the camphor exists in crystals, and distilling it with water in stills of very primitive construction. It is purified by resublimation and is obtained in large hemispherical masses called bells, or being obtained in crystalline powder is then compressed into cakes. Common camphor is a natural constituent of several essential oils, especially those of lavender, rosemary, and sage. Borneo camphor does not come into European commerce, but it is preferred in Eastern Asia, where it commands a high price, and is used chiefly for making incense and generally for ceremonial purposes. . . . Camphor has been the subject of very protracted investigations, as its constitution was for many years somewhat mysterious. These difficulties have now been cleared away, and the knowledge now existing of the relation of camphor to the terpenes has enabled chemists to contrive a process by which it can be made from oil of turpentine. . . . The artificial camphor is identical in every respect with natural camphor, except that it is optically inactive, while all the natural products rotate the polarised ray. The manufacture of camphor has been the subject of several patents, and for a time synthetic camphor was found in the European markets, but has disappeared again in consequence of a reduction of price in the Japanese product."—*Ibid.*, pp. 351-352, 354-356.

ALSO IN: R. F. Bacon and W. A. Hamor, *Problem in the utilisation of fuels*.—W. A. Hamor and F. W. Padgett, *Technical examinations of crude petroleum and natural gas*.—I. I. Redwood, *Practical treatise on mineral oils and their by-products*.—L. E. Andes, *Animal fats and oils*.—D. Holde, *Examination of hydrocarbon oils, etc.*

Dyes.—*Ancient sources*.—*Aniline derived from coal tar* (1834-1854).—*Mauve produced by Perkin* (1856).—*Magenta by Medlock and Nicholson* (1862).—"From time immemorial, men, denied by nature the more varied and gorgeous colourings of the animals, have delighted in staining their bodies or dyeing their garments by means of the various colouring matters with which the animal and vegetable creation supplied them—the colouring matter of logwood; the animal dye carmine or cochineal which was used in this country [England] to dye the scarlet tunics of our soldiers; the blue dye, indigo or woad, one of the oldest of dyes; the red dye, alizarin, obtained from the root of the madder plant and employed in the production of Turkey red; and the costliest and most famous dye of the ancient world, Tyrian purple, obtained from a shell-fish found on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean. Until the

middle of the nineteenth century these and some other dyes, mainly of animal or vegetable origin, were practically the only dyes with which man was acquainted. But in 1856 a new chapter, and one of the highest importance in the history of dyes, commenced with the discovery of the once favourite synthetic dye, mauve, which found its last use for colouring the postage stamps of the late Victorian era. This dye was prepared from crude aniline, which was in turn produced from the benzole derived from coal tar, and it was the first of a long list of synthetic dyes prepared by chemists from the constituents of coal tar. Starting from benzene, toluene, phenol, naphthalene, anthracene, and a few other constituents of the thick black liquid, coal tar, which less than a hundred years ago was a useless waste material and a nuisance to the gas manufacturer, synthetic dyes, to the estimated value of nearly £20,000,000, are now manufactured annually, more than two-thirds of this amount being produced, in 1913, in Germany. These dyes have, by reason of their almost infinite variety and applicability, their range of colour and delicacy of tone, ousted the natural dyes to a very large extent from the dye-works. It is, of course, now universally known that these numerous coal-tar dyes are not present as such in the coal tar, but that they are obtained from the constituents of coal tar by a more or less complex series of chemical reactions. Thus, from some eight or nine primary constituents of coal tar (benzene, toluene, xylene, phenol, cresol, naphthalene, anthracene, etc.), there are produced, by the action of various chemical reagents—nitric acid, sulphuric acid, chlorine, caustic soda, etc.—some two hundred and ninety 'intermediate' compounds, and from these 'intermediates,' by their mutual combinations and interactions, the finished dyes are prepared, of which upwards of nine hundred actually find application at the present time. The production of a dye, therefore, is by no means a simple operation, except in a very few cases, and is, in most cases, a very complex process involving, it may be, fifteen or twenty distinct and separate chemical reactions. That the industry of dye-manufacture is a very intricate one will, therefore, be readily understood, and if success is to be attained, each step in the process of manufacture must be scientifically controlled and carried out with the highest degree of efficiency. But a further very serious complication is introduced owing to the fact that in the preparation of many of the intermediates, 'by-products' are produced in varying amounts, and for these by-products a remunerative outlet must be obtained. Even when all the products formed in the manufacture of a given intermediate can be used up in the manufacture of dye-stuffs, the demand for the dye-stuffs thus obtained may differ very greatly, and by no means always in the same direction or in the same measure as the intermediates. The problem of working up, completely and remuneratively, without waste and without over-production, all the by-products formed in the manufacture of the intermediates, is one of the utmost importance for the success of the industry. Owing to the enormous development of her organic chemical industry, embracing the manufacture of dyes, drugs, perfumes, and 'fine' (organic) chemicals generally, the solution of this problem has become more easy for Germany than for any other country.

"In the year 1815, largely owing to the efforts of the Prince Consort [Albert] and of the Queen's physician, Sir James Clark, there was founded the Royal College of Chemistry in London, and A. W. Hofmann, a young German chemist, who had been

trained under the renowned Justus von Liebig at Giessen, was appointed Professor of Chemistry. For some time chemists had been interesting themselves in the nature and composition of coal tar, and Hofmann and his students engaged energetically in the work of investigation. One of the earliest results to be obtained was the isolation from coal tar of the hydrocarbon benzene, a compound which was first discovered by Michael Faraday in 1825; and after the work of [Charles B.] Mansfield [1810-1855] coal tar became the chief source of the compound. As early as 1834 Mitscherlich had shown that when benzene is treated with concentrated nitric acid, it is converted into an oily liquid, nitro-benzene, $C_6H_5NO_2$, which, even before the introduction of the coal-tar dyes, was manufactured in small quantities and used under the name of Essence of Mirbane, for scenting soap. Nitrobenzene, in its turn, as was found by Béchamp in 1854, could be converted into aniline, $C_6H_5NH_2$, by acting on it with a mixture of acetic acid and finely divided iron. We see, then, that coal tar became not only a convenient source of supply of benzene, but also, through the chemical transformation of this substance, of the compound aniline. Entering into this heritage of knowledge, W. H. Perkin, who had, as one of Hofmann's students, been trained in an atmosphere of purely scientific investigation, made his important discovery of the first coal-tar dye. It was in 1856, while engaged in an attempt to produce the naturally-occurring alkaloid quinine from simpler substances, that Perkin treated a solution of aniline in dilute sulphuric acid with potassium dichromate. As a result, there separated out from the liquid a dark-coloured, resinous mass, and from this unpromising material Perkin separated the first-known aniline dye, which he somewhat later manufactured and sold under the name of 'aniline purple,' or 'Tyrian Purple' or 'mauve,' the name given to it by the French dyers to whom, as we learn, the industrial application of this dye was largely due. . . . The success which attended the introduction of mauve, the vogue of which among the women of 1859 became so 'epidemic' that *Punch* referred to it as 'The Mauve Measles,' naturally led chemists to try the action on aniline of other oxidising agents (substances capable of giving up oxygen to other substances) than the potassium dichromate used by Perkin; and although they did not succeed in displacing the latter for the preparation of mauve, their efforts led to the discovery of a new dye, aniline red, magenta, or fuchsine. The formation of this red dye had been observed by several chemists, even as early as 1856, and although it was manufactured in small quantity in France in 1858-59, by a process due to Verguin, the greatest success in its manufacture was achieved, in 1860, by two English chemists, Medlock and Nicholson, former pupils of Hofmann, who prepared it by the action of arsenic acid on commercial aniline. "The manufacture of this important dye was carried out by Messrs. Simpson, Maule and Nicholson, and the 'crown' of magenta crystals prepared by this firm was one of the most notable exhibits of the International Exhibition of 1862. . . . Just as aniline formed the basis of manufacture of mauve and of magenta, so magenta became, in its turn, the starting-point for the preparation of a series of new dyes, the number of which now began rapidly to increase. In 1861 Girard and de Laire prepared aniline blue or Lyons blue by heating magenta with aniline in presence of benzoic acid; and by treating this dye with concentrated sulphuric acid, E. C. Nicholson, in 1862, produced the more valuable Nicholson's blue or water blue,

which possessed the great advantage of being soluble in water and in solutions of alkalis, and was better adapted for dyeing wool than the dyes previously prepared. Hofmann, also, prepared brilliant but not very stable violet dyes, Hofmann violets, by acting on magenta with methyl iodide and ethyl iodide."—A. Findlay, *Treasures of coal tar*, pp. 48-50, 52-58.

Theoretical investigation.—Chromophores and their action.—Azo-dyes, 1860, 1876, 1884.—"But although the preparation of new dyes and the perfecting of their industrial production were carried on with much vigour along the lines opened up by W. H. Perkin, chemists were not unmindful of the need of more theoretical investigations for the purpose of determining the composition and unravelling the constitution of these important new substances. Without such knowledge the dye industry could not be placed on a secure scientific basis and its further development ensured. In this work of investigation Hofmann took a leading part and in 1862 he showed that the dye magenta was the salt of a base which he called rosaniline. Moreover, in 1864 he confirmed what had already been discovered by Nicholson, that magenta cannot be obtained by the oxidation of pure aniline but only of commercial aniline which contained the two isomeric substances, ortho- and para-toluidine, as impurities. . . . From the study of a large number of substances the conclusion has been reached that colour is associated with the presence of certain groups or arrangements of atoms in the molecule—such groups being known as 'chromophors' or colour-bearing groups. When a chromophor is present in a compound the latter is said to be a 'chromogen,' and may or may not be coloured. To convert the latter into a coloured substance, it is necessary to introduce certain groups (especially OH and NH₂), called 'auxochromes.' In the dyes the colour is believed to be due to a modification of one of the benzene rings. But although the character of a dye-stuff is derived from its chromophor, the actual colour and shade may be very distinctly altered by the introduction of different groups into the molecule. Thus, if we write down the different primary colours, namely: Greenish-yellow → yellow → orange → red → purple → violet → indigo → cyanide-blue → bluish-green, it is found that the introduction of methyl and ethyl groups, and still more the introduction of phenyl, benzyl, and other groups derived from benzene, produces a change of colour in the direction shown by the . . . [arrows]. By introducing three methyl or ethyl groups into the molecule of magenta (red), Hofmann obtained violet dyes. Moreover, by increasing the number of such groups the violet shade becomes bluer, as is shown in the case of methyl violet and crystal violet, which contain five or six methyl groups. . . . Some years after the epoch-making discovery of mauve an observation was made which led in time to the development of an entirely new class of compounds which, in number and importance, now occupy a foremost place among coal-tar dyes. In 1860 it was found by Dr. Peter Griess, chemist in the brewery of Messrs. Allsopp & Sons, Burton-on-Trent, that when nitrous acid acts on aniline, or on any other derivative of benzene containing the amino-group (NH₂), an unstable compound—a so-called diazo-compound—is produced. The diazo-compounds which were thus obtained possessed the very important property of combining or 'coupling' with aromatic amines (compounds containing the NH₂ group), or with phenols (compounds containing the OH-group). In this way were produced the so-

called azo-dyes, which have found their special application as wool-dyes, and which owe their colour to the presence of the chromophoric azo-group or pair of linked nitrogen atoms,—N:N—. Even in 1863, although its constitution was not then known, an azo-dye, aniline yellow, had been prepared and put on the market, with only a limited success; but it was not till 1876, and after the constitution of the compounds had been elucidated, that the production of azo-dyes began to undergo a rapid development. Many hundreds, even thousands, of azo-dyes have now been prepared, and a very considerable number have been found suitable for use as dyes. Not only can one produce azo-dyes from aniline, toluidine, phenol, etc., and from their derivatives, but one may also use similar compounds derived from other hydrocarbons. In this connection the coal-tar hydrocarbon naphthalene has been found of especial value, and very many dyes have now been produced from the amino- and hydroxyl-derivatives of this compound. By thus drawing naphthalene within the sphere of the dye industry, an important outlet was secured for this coal-tar product—otherwise but little used—and at the same time a large number of valuable new dyes were obtained. . . . Although most of the dyes to which reference has been made, dye silk and wool directly, vegetable fibres, e.g., linen and cotton, must first be mordanted before they will take up the dye from the bath. It was therefore an event of the first importance when, in 1884, the German chemist Böttinger discovered a new group of azo-dyes which were able to dye cotton and linen directly without requiring a mordant. . . . There is a very complex dye primuline, discovered by Professor A. G. Green in 1887, which will dye cotton directly of a yellow shade. This dye is somewhat fugitive, and is, consequently, of comparatively little value in itself. If, however, a piece of calico, dyed with primuline, is passed through a cold, dilute solution of nitrous acid, the primuline (which contains an amino-group), is diazotised; and if the fabric is then passed through a solution of an amine or phenol, a dye is produced or 'developed' on the fibre. Thus, with beta-naphthol, primuline red; with resorcinol, primuline orange; with metaphenylene-diamine, primuline brown; and with salicylic acid, oriole yellow is obtained. To these colours developed on the fibre the name of 'ingrain dyes' is given; or, since the solution of the diazo-compound has, on account of its instability, to be kept cool by means of ice, the name 'ice colours' is also sometimes applied to this group of dyes. Another pigment dye . . . which carries us back again to the substance, aniline, from which the first artificial colouring matter was prepared, is the very important black dye, aniline black. This dye, which has a very complex structure, and is not an azo-dye, is obtained by a modification of the process first used by Perkin in the production of mauve, the dye being formed, however, directly on the fibre. Thus, if a piece of cotton is first steeped in a solution of aniline in hydrochloric acid and afterwards immersed in a cold solution of sodium bichromate, a fast black colour is developed on the fibre. Various improvements have more recently been introduced for the purpose both of cheapening the dye and of obtaining more readily a black which will not turn green; and it has been found by Professor A. G. Green that in the presence of certain substances the oxidation of the aniline may even be effected by atmospheric oxygen."—*Ibid.*, pp. 58-59, 65-66, 70-71, 74, 78-79.

Synthesis of Natural Color: Madder; indigo; Tyrian purple.—"The technique of dye manufacture has become so perfected, and our knowledge of the variation of colour with the constitution of the compound has become so well established, that the synthetic production of new shades is no longer a haphazard process, but one of which the conditions of success are clearly known. But it is, perhaps, in the artificial production of Nature's own colouring matters, more especially of alizarin and indigo, that organic chemistry has achieved its most striking successes. . . . Forty or fifty years ago, over the whole of Southern Europe, and eastwards to Asia Minor, great tracts of land were devoted to the growing of the madder plant; in France alone, 50,000 acres were devoted to its culture. When the roots of this plant were allowed to ferment, a substance alizarin, so called from the name given by the Arabs to the madder root, was formed, which was capable of dyeing cotton of a bright red colour—the so-called Turkey red, one of the oldest of dyes and most largely used in the dyeing of cotton goods. But these madder fields have now all disappeared; for when the composition and nature of this dye-stuff had once been ascertained, it was not long before chemists discovered a method by which the dye could be manufactured from what was then practically a waste material, anthracene, one of the constituents of coal tar. . . . In this way the madder dye can be manufactured much more cheaply than nature can produce it, and instead of the 750 tons of alizarin extracted from madder roots in 1870, over 2,000 tons are now manufactured annually in chemical works. The fate of the madder threatens also to be the fate of another dye-producing plant (*Isatis tinctoria*), from which the much prized dye-stuff, indigo, has for thousands of years been obtained. Even as late as the seventeenth century, the wood was cultivated in Europe, but with the opening up of trade with the East, the European dye could not hold its own with the cheaper indigo obtained from the Indian plantations, and these, until recently, controlled the markets of the world. But even they have not been able to stand against the march of science, and, in the production of synthetic indigo, the conquest of Nature by the chemist and manufacturer constitutes one of the most striking features of the nineteenth century. . . . As far back as 1880, the artificial production of indigo was first achieved by the German chemist, Adolph von Baeyer, using as raw material the substance toluene, which is one of the constituents of coal tar. But although this laboratory production of indigo constituted an achievement of the highest scientific importance, the chemical manufacturer strove in vain to use this discovery in his struggle to oust the natural product. Indigo certainly could be manufactured, and manufactured in quantity, but—and this is the whole essence of the matter—the artificial indigo cost more than the natural, and the raw material, toluene, was not procurable in sufficient amount to make the displacement of the natural indigo possible. For seventeen years the struggle went on, the chemist assisting with his brains and experience, the manufacturer assisting with his money, until at last, in October, 1897, after many attempts and many failures, and the expenditure of close on £1,000,000, synthetic indigo (indigo, that is prepared by the skill of man from simpler substances), was placed on the market in competition with the natural product from the Indian plantations. And what, to-day, is the result of this competition? Hear how eloquently the following figures speak. In 1896 India ex-

ported indigo to the annual value of over £3,500,000; in 1913 her exports of this dye were worth about £60,000, while the German export was valued at about £2,000,000. Moreover, in the above period, the price of indigo fell from about 8s. to about 3s. 6d. per lb. Since the production of indigo involves a considerable number of different processes, and requires the use of a number of different substances, of which sulphuric acid, ammonia, chlorine, and acetic acid are the chief, the success of the synthesis as a whole, depends upon the success with which each step of the process can be carried out, and on the cost of the substances employed. . . .

"Closely related, chemically, with indigo, is that other ancient dye, Tyrian purple. Some years ago the nature of this dye was investigated by a German chemist, who extracted it from the glands of two species of marine snail, the *Murex brandaris* and *Murex trunculus*, and ascertained that this 'dye of dyes whereof one drop worked miracles,' was a compound of indigo with bromine, a compound which can be prepared synthetically with comparative ease. The costliness of this natural dye was almost proverbial, and the reason for this is not far to seek; for the colouring matter obtained by the German chemist from the glands of 12,000 shell-fish, amounted to only about 23 grains, and the estimated cost of the dye was nearly £60 an ounce."—A. Findlay, *Chemistry in the service of man*, pp. 234-239.

ALSO IN: I. W. Fay, *Chemistry of coal-tar dyes*.—J. C. Caine and J. F. Thorpe, *Synthetic dyestuffs*.—T. Beacall, *Dyestuffs and coal-tar products*.—E. Knecht, *A manual of dyeing*.—A. G. Green, *Analysis of dyestuffs*.—D. Fierz, *Fundamental processes of dye chemistry*.

Explosives.—If we examine closely a history of civilization, we should undoubtedly find it to be to a great extent, the history of man's endeavor to utilize and control energy. Progress is determined by the quantity of energy which mankind has been able to turn to useful account and by the degree to which it has been able to concentrate energy. With this in consideration, we can the more realize the value of explosives, representing as they do, highly concentrated forms of potential energy capable of being released for work almost at will. While their use in war has played an all-important rôle in our history, we must not overlook the fact that explosives have had powerful influences in the peaceful progress of civilization. We have but to note some of our great modern engineering feats, and we realize the prominent part taken by these sources of energy. "An explosive may be defined as a substance or mixture, solid or liquid, capable of undergoing extremely rapid combustion or decomposition, with production of gaseous substances which occupy a volume which may be ten or twelve thousand times as great as that of the explosive itself. In the case of gunpowder, cordite, and other propellants (low explosives), there is a rapid combustion of the explosive, but in the case of high explosives—to which class all the coal-tar explosives belong—the molecules of the compound are in a somewhat unstable condition, and, when subjected to a suitable shock, undergo decomposition into more stable substances. This decomposition is generally initiated by means of a 'detonator,' or substance which is, comparatively, very sensitive to shock, and the 'explosive wave' which is set up is transmitted with a very great velocity—amounting in some cases to more than four miles per second—and so causes an almost instantaneous decomposition of the explosive."—A. Findlay, *Treasures of coal tar*, p. 123.

Gunpowder and early use of explosives.—The origin of *gunpowder*, the only explosive known until the middle of the nineteenth century, is uncertain. Greek Fire, extensively used in the defense of Constantinople in the seventh century, is generally regarded as a form of gunpowder, but the theory is also advanced that it was merely an incendiary mixture to which nitre had been added to make it burn more fiercely. There is evidence that the Chinese used gunpowder in warfare about 1232, and the writings of Roger Bacon also leave no doubt but that he was fully acquainted with the explosive properties of sulphur, charcoal, and nitre mixtures. There are indications that the Arabs, too, at this period, possessed a knowledge of these properties. The early usages of gunpowder were confined chiefly to warfare, in the form of hand grenades. While it is officially recorded that the English used cannon at the battle of Crecy in 1346, they seem to have been used a few years prior in the Hispano-Moorish wars. "The manufacture of gunpowder was originally carried out by the very crude method of pounding the ingredients together by hand in mortars, but edge runners were introduced towards the end of the sixteenth century. The original mixtures were of very fine grain, were deliquescent, and the ingredients separated very easily when the powder suffered vibration as in transport. In the fourteenth century attempts were made to avoid this latter defect by the addition of camphor, sal-ammoniac and gum, and in the sixteenth century the process of 'corning' or 'granulating' was introduced. This was done by moistening the powder during the latter stages of mixing, so as to obtain a cake which was subsequently broken up and sifted. *Fuzed shells* were first introduced in 1588, but the fuzes were naturally of a very crude nature. More accurate fuzes were employed by the British at the siege of Gibraltar in 1779, and *shrapnel shell* was introduced a few years later. Berthollet, as a result of his researches on *chlorates*, in 1788 suggested substituting potassium chlorate for nitre, and obtained a more powerful explosive by this means, but it was too dangerous to make or use. A chlorate powder, however, was adopted in 1805 by Forsyth as a priming charge. *Fulminate caps* seem to have come into use first about 1815, and in 1831 Bickford first introduced *safety fuze*."—E. DeB. Barnett, *Explosives*, pp. 1-6.

Black gunpowder.—"Up to about 1886 black gunpowder had been used, but as it had been found that with increased length of the gun the pressure on the breech became injurious to the gun without giving the desired velocity to the projectile, many modifications were tried in the size of the grain, and in the cubes, prisms or perforated slabs in which form the powder was used. The old powder, however, had one insuperable defect, namely, the large quantity of smoke produced in firing. This arises from the fact that black gunpowder is composed of nitre, charcoal, and sulphur in the proportions on the average of 75:15:10 per cent., respectively. Hence when burnt the potassium of the nitre is converted into a mixture of potassium carbonate, potassium sulphate, with a small quantity of potassium sulphide, all of which are solids, and being dispersed in fine powder give rise to clouds of smoke. . . . Changes in the guns then demanded changes in the rate of combustion of the powder used in them, while the conditions of modern warfare required a propellant which should be practically smokeless. It seemed useless to construct quick-firing guns and machine guns capable of delivering a shower of bullets if after the first discharge or two all view

of the enemy in front of the guns became impossible. Gun-cotton [see below], which is the essential basis of all modern propellants, differs from the old powder in yielding only gaseous products in its explosion, without any solid and hence without smoke. There is also an important difference between the two, in the fact that the old powder is merely a mechanical mixture of solid ingredients, the particles of which, under a microscope, can be seen lying side by side but quite distinct from one another, while gun-cotton is a chemical compound."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, pp. 375-377.

Gun-cotton.—"The discovery of *gun-cotton* by Schönbein in 1845, and of nitroglycerine by Sobrero in 1846, opened up new fields, although the accidents attendant on the manufacture of these substances at first greatly delayed their general introduction. Schönbein sold the British rights of his patent to John Hall & Sons, of Faversham, who manufactured *gun-cotton* for a few months, but abandoned it in 1847, after a disastrous explosion. Six years later the Austrian Government took up the matter, and General von Lenk constructed some batteries in which *gun-cotton* was used both as a propellant and as a bursting charge for the shell. These were not an unmitigated success, and after two disastrous explosions in 1865, they were abandoned. In the meantime the British Government had taken up the subject, and Frederick Abel [1827-1902] carried out investigations on their behalf. He quickly realized that the instability of *gun-cotton* was due to the difficulty in washing it, and in 1865 introduced the pulping process. Simple as it may seem, this must be regarded as an epoch-making discovery, as it at once changed a very dangerous process into one of the safest known in an explosive works. Also the wet pulp could be compressed into blocks which were convenient for transport and use. The usefulness of these blocks was greatly enhanced by the discovery by Braun in 1868 that dry *gun-cotton* could be fired by a fulminate detonator, and that wet *gun-cotton* could be fired in the same way if a small primer of dry *gun-cotton* was used. The value of this discovery will be realized when it is remembered that wet *gun-cotton* is non-inflammable and insensitive to shock. These slabs of wet *gun-cotton* have for many years been the standard explosive for military demolitions and for signal maroons, and until quite recently have been the invariable charge for torpedoes."—E. DeB. Barnett, *Explosives*, pp. 1-6.

Sprengel explosives.—*Smokeless powder.*—*Picric acid.*—T. N. T.—A new class of explosive was introduced by Sprengel in 1871. He found that mixtures of suitable organic matter, such as nitrobenzole, and strong or fuming nitric acid or liquid nitrogen tetroxide, could be detonated. These had the advantage that the ingredients were kept separate and only mixed just before the shot was fired, and although nitric acid is an inconvenient liquid to transport, *Sprengel explosives* enjoyed some vogue. A more rational explosive of the Sprengel class was introduced by Devine in 1880. This consisted in a cartridge of potassium chlorate which immediately before use was dipped into an organic liquid such as nitrobenzole. *Rack-a-rock* was an explosive of this nature, and was used in 1885 for blasting Hell Gate Rock in New York harbour. The first ammonium nitrate explosive was introduced by Favier in 1885, but attracted scant attention at the time on account of its objectionable hygroscopic properties. Finally, in recent years proposals have been made to employ mixtures of liquid air or oxygen in conjunction with organic

matter, and although a good deal of the blasting in connection with the Simplon tunnel was carried out with explosives of this class, they suffer from obvious disadvantages and are never likely to come into general use. They have been used, however, for general blasting purposes in Germany during the war [1914-1918]. . . . Berthollet in 1788 was the first to propose the use of *chlorates*, but was compelled to abandon the scheme on account of the great sensitiveness of his mixtures. This danger was remedied by Street in 1897, who prepared safe chlorate mixtures from potassium chlorate and castor oil thickened with a nitrohydrocarbon. These have met with considerable success under the name of *Cheddite*. The first *smokeless powder* after von Lenk's nitrocotton batteries was introduced by Schultze in 1865. It consisted of pellets of wood which were nitrated and then impregnated with barium nitrate or potassium nitrate. A great stride was made by Volkmann five years later, who partly gelatinized nitrated wood by treatment with a mixture of alcohol and ether. This must be regarded as having laid the foundation of the modern smokeless powder industry. A similar powder, E. C. powder, was introduced in 1882 by the Explosives Company of Stowmarket. It consisted of partly gelatinized nitrocotton impregnated with a mixture of barium and potassium nitrates, and found immediate favour among sportsmen. The first smokeless military powder was Poudre B, introduced by Vielle, in 1886, and adopted by the French Government. It was made by forming a dough of nitrocellulose with alcohol and ether, which was then rolled out into sheets, cut up into strips, and dried. . . . Sprengel in 1871 drew attention to the fact that *picric acid* could be detonated, but no use was made of this discovery until Turpin proposed its use in 1886 as a bursting charge for shells. For this purpose it found wide application under the names of *Melinite*, *Lyddite*, etc., but has now been largely replaced by the cheaper and safer *trinitrotoluol*.—E. DeB. Barnett, *Explosives*, pp. 1-6.—“Trinitrotoluene, which was later to become known as such an excellent explosive, was prepared in 1863 by Wilbrand, and in 1869 by Beilstein and Kuhlberg. Paul Hepp, in 1880, produced particularly pure trinitrotoluene from p- and o-nitrotoluene. . . . Toluene itself is recovered almost exclusively from the coal-tar of gas works and coke ovens, and after all the necessary separations, purifications, and distillations of the tar have been carried out and the final rectification undertaken. . . . In the explosive industry the raw material used for the manufacture of trinitrotoluene is either pure toluene, mononitrotoluene, which is manufactured for other purposes than explosives, as, for instance, for the dyeing industry, or finally from ‘dinitro oil.’ . . . In order to discover the effect of friction on trinitrotoluene, a sample of the material was taken first alone and then mixed with sand and thoroughly ground in an iron mortar without any extraordinary phenomena being observed. By striking a sample of the material upon an anvil, it was only possible to cause a slight decomposition which was accompanied by the development of a small quantity of smoke. . . . Further experiments proved that trinitrotoluene could not be made to explode either by heating in an open flame or by simply heating in air in open vessels. . . . Only by the rapid heating of large quantities in closed vessels was it possible to cause a moderate detonation, which was, moreover, only accompanied by very small effects. . . . This behaviour of trinitrotoluene to blows, friction, and high tem-

peratures was amply confirmed in a research undertaken at the Technischen Hochschule of Hanover in April, 1903. . . . It has been proved to be one of the most insensitive and safe compounds which has been used up to the present time. The insensitivity of mixtures of trinitrotoluene and ammonium nitrate is so great that much research was necessary to find thoroughly satisfactory means for their ignition when used as fillings for high-explosive shell. . . . Whilst trinitrotoluene having a melting point of 72° to 76° C. practically finds its sole use in combination with substances rich in oxygen, pure trinitrotoluene having a melting point of 80.6 is most advantageously used alone as a filling for bombs, mines, shells, or torpedoes, and for this purpose is rapidly displacing picric acid, which was believed to be unique in this respect. On account of the acknowledged excellence of picric acid as an explosive, it will not be without interest to enumerate a few of the reasons why it is being replaced by trinitrotoluene, which is a somewhat less powerful explosive, but which nevertheless possesses many distinct advantages. The unpleasant bitter taste of the dust and fumes of picric acid are known to every chemist, but only experts and those who come into contact with it know of the baneful action that picric acid dust has on health, leading as it does to heart disease and disturbances of the digestive organs. These so-called poisonous vapours are concerned not only with the manufacture of the explosive, but also with its use as a filling for shells when the picric acid is being melted and when it is used as a dry powder. In addition to these properties, which can have such an injurious effect on the health of the workers, the chemical properties of picric acid, in so far that it acts as a strong acid, must be taken into consideration, since highly-explosive picrates are readily formed which make the manipulation of the explosive extremely dangerous. It will therefore be readily understood that a material so chemically stable, so insensitive, and so completely durable as trinitrotoluene, and one which neither during its manufacture nor its subsequent manipulation, provided the necessary precautions are taken, causes such a deleterious or injurious effect upon the health of the workers, should have taken the place of picric acid as an explosive. . . . For military purposes only crystallised, commercially pure, so-called 81/82 trinitrotoluene is used. . . . Attempts were next made to compress the crystallised trinitrotoluene. . . . [The] insensitivity of pressed trinitrotoluene, however, caused great difficulty when it was used for artillery purposes. . . . In modern practice trinitrotoluene is both pressed and cast on a large scale.”—E. de W. S. Colver, *High explosives*, pp. 18, 172, 174, 222-223, 242-244.
Nitroglycerine.—Dynamite.—Blasting gelatine.—Cordite.—Nitroglycerine, a compound similar in constitution to nitrocellulose, both being nitrates, was discovered by Sobrero, an Italian chemist, in 1847. Though its explosive properties were known it was regarded as dangerous, and was not generally used as a blasting agent till after 1867 when Alfred Nobel discovered a method of rendering it portable and less dangerous by incorporating the liquid with a sufficient quantity of a fine silicious earth, called kieselguhr. The product is *dynamite*, which is familiar enough by name to the public. Nitroglycerine is produced very simply by the interaction of a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acid with pure glycerine. Glycerine is the secondary product obtained in boiling fat or oil with caustic alkali for the purpose of producing soap. But a large quantity is also produced by

distilling fats in super-heated steam, when the fatty acid and glycerine are obtained, and it is only necessary to evaporate the watery part of the distillate to obtain the glycerine. Glycerine, or glycerol as it is called in systematic chemical language, is a familiar colourless syrupy liquid, with a sweet taste. It mixes with water in all proportions, and when mixed with nitric acid it is converted into the nitrate, or nitroglycerine, at the same time that water is produced. While formerly only small quantities at one time of glycerine were acted on by the acids, a charge of 1400 lbs. of glycerine may be now used in one operation in the apparatus called a nitrator-separator. In the modern practice a mixture of strong nitric acid with sulphuric acid is used, to which is added a certain amount of anhydrous sulphuric acid in the form of what is called oleum, which combines with a larger proportion of water, with the result that the yield of nitroglycerine is not far short of the theoretically possible amount. From the formulæ 100 parts of glycerine should yield 246.7 parts of nitrate, while in practice upwards of 230 parts are obtained. . . . In 1875 it was discovered by Alfred Nobel that when a low grade of guncotton and nitroglycerine are mixed together the cotton loses its fibrous or cellular structure and becomes gelatinised. In the product each constituent has its explosive properties modified, and the mass becomes better suited to blasting purposes than either ingredient separately. This substance has been largely used under the name 'blasting gelatine,' and it is otherwise interesting as the forerunner of the various mixtures which have been the subject of experiment and which have resulted in the production of the chief military propellant *cordite*. It was discovered that not only could the lower nitro-celluloses be gelatinised by nitroglycerine, but that the most highly nitrated cotton could be blended with nitroglycerine if the mixture was treated with a common solvent such as acetone."—W. A. Tilden, *Chemical discovery and invention in the twentieth century*, pp. 382-385.

Interrelation between dyes, drugs, perfumes, and explosives.—One of the most fascinating studies for the chemist—and also for the layman—is that of the interrelation between the different branches of organic chemistry. The many substances, with totally different physical as well as chemical properties, produced by the slightest rearrangement of the atomic structure present only one of the interesting phases. Thus, from alcohol, C_2H_5OH , we can obtain substances such as mustard gas, $(C_2H_5)_2SCl_2$, so frequently used during the World War and dyes as pontamine yellow; from toluene, $C_6H_5.CH_3$, easily obtained as a coal-tar distillate, are produced substances such as saccharine,



synthetic oil of bitter almonds, C_6H_5COH , the high explosive T.N.T., $C_6H_2(NO_2)_3CH_3$, as well as various important and essential dyes and intermediate dye products. The industries manufacturing dyes, drugs, and explosives are in most cases closely interwoven, and three products usually being simultaneously manufactured in the same plant, due to their intimate chemical relationship. It is a matter of but a moment's notice, and the dye plant has been turned, as if by magic, into one manufacturing the modern high explosives; and the return can be accomplished in as short a time.

This interrelation is now (1922) playing an important rôle in the commercial policies of the

great powers of the world, for in all these countries, the lessons of the recent war have been vividly brought home to them in the form of German preparedness for conflict. It is urged that protective measures be passed to insure the comparatively new home industries against being wiped out by the competition offered by German dye manufacturers, thus saving an industry which can be made to play an important part in any scheme of military preparedness.

ALSO IN: H. Brunswig, *Explosives*.—O. Guttman, *Manufacture of explosives, 20 years' progress*.—A. Marshall, *Short account of explosives*.—E. de W. S. Colver, *High explosives, a practical treatise*.—A. S. Cushman, *Rôle of chemistry in the war*.

See also FERTILIZERS: Chemistry applied to soil cultivation; GRENADES; LIQUID FIRE: 1914-1918; POISON GAS: First employment at Ypres; WORLD WAR: Miscellaneous auxiliary services: VI Military and naval equipment: c, 3.

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RADIO-ACTIVITY

"The phenomena of radio-activity revive interest in the prophetic views of Michael Faraday. In 1816, when he was but twenty-four years of age, he delivered a lecture at the Royal Institution in London on Radiant Matter. In the course of his remarks there occurs this passage:—"If we now conceive a change as far beyond vaporization as that is above fluidity, and then take into account the proportional increased extent of alteration as the changes arise, we shall perhaps, if we can form any conception at all, not fall short of radiant matter; and as in the last conversion many qualities were lost, so here also many more would disappear. It was the opinion of Newton, and of many other distinguished philosophers, that this conversion was possible, and continually going on in the processes of nature, and they found that the idea would bear without injury the applications of mathematical reasoning—as regards heat, for instance. If assumed, we must also assume the simplicity of matter; for it would follow that all the variety of substances with which we are acquainted could be converted into one of three kinds of radiant matter; which again may differ from each other only in the size of their particles or their form. The properties of known bodies would then be supposed to arise from the varied

arrangements of their ultimate atoms, and belong to substances only as long as their compound nature existed; and thus variety of matter and variety of properties would be found co-essential.”

—G. Iles, *Inventors at work*, pp. 204-205.

Electric discharges in attenuated gases.—“If a first step towards understanding the relations between aether and ponderable matter is to be made, it seems to me that the most hopeful foundation for it is knowledge derived from experiments on electricity in high vacuum.”—Lord Kelvin (1893). The study of the phenomena attending the passage of electricity through gases has led to astounding developments . . . and abundantly justified Lord Kelvin’s prognostication. Under ordinary conditions, gases are such poor conductors of electricity that they are classed as good insulators. In order to get electricity to pass through air at ordinary atmospheric pressures, an electrical pressure approaching 30,000 volts per cm. is required; and as the pressure of the air is diminished the voltage required to produce a discharge diminishes in almost exactly the same proportion. If a glass tube, about 30 cm. long, be connected with a mercurial air pump and the aluminium electrodes—disc and point—be connected with an ordinary induction coil and battery, either no spark, or thin zig-zag sparks will pass through the tube; all depends on the distance of the electrodes apart, and on the electric pressure produced by the coil. If the pump be started, the spark passes more and more readily as exhaustion proceeds; first, forked brush-like bluish sparks begin to leap from electrode to electrode. . . . As exhaustion continues, the striæ diminish in number and size; and they appear to be paler in colour. . . . The pressure is then about 0.03 mm. of mercury. With further exhaustion the tube looks as if it were empty, but the glass still glows brightly, particularly about the cathode. With still further exhaustions, the current from the induction coil is unable to pass through the vacuum tube. The fact that the tube when highly evacuated is non-conducting shows that the electric current must somehow be carried from one electrode to the other by something. W. Hittorf (1860) showed that if a solid body—say, a Maltese cross—made of mica be placed between the anode and cathode, a true shadow appears on the glass; the shape of the cross shows that something must travel from the neighbourhood of the cathode in straight lines. This ‘something’ which causes the phosphorescence of glass was called by E. Goldstein (1876) cathode rays. His conclusions were: ‘(1) the cathode rays travel in straight lines normal to the surface of the cathode; and they will cast a well-defined shadow if a solid object be placed between the cathode and the wall of the vacuum tube . . . (2) cathode rays can exert mechanical pressure . . . (3) many minerals become phosphorescent when exposed to the cathode rays . . . (4) the cathode rays raise the temperature of bodies on which they fall . . . (5) the cathode rays can produce chemical or physical changes . . . (6) the cathode rays are negatively electrified while the other contents of the tube are positively electrified . . . (7) the cathode rays can be deflected from their normal course by means of a magnet . . . (8) the cathode rays can penetrate and pass through thin sheets of metal, but not through thick sheets.’ At first, the cathode rays were thought to be a stream of negatively electrified atoms or molecules of the residual gas in the evacuated tube; C. Varly (1871), or rather W. Crookes (1879), suggested that they were particles or molecules of a

fourth state of matter—an ultragaseous state which was called radiant matter—in which the free paths of the molecules were so long that collisions could be disregarded. Owing to their high penetrative power (Lenard rays), and the fact that no difference in the properties of electrons can be detected by changing the kind of gas in the evacuated tube, nor by changing the electrodes, it follows that (9) the cathode rays are independent of the kind of matter present; and if the particles be matter at all, the matter is the same in kind from whatever source it is derived. E. Wiechart (Jan., 1897) and J. J. Thomson (Apr., 1897) suggested the startling hypothesis that what Crookes called ‘radiant matter’ or the cathode rays, is a stream of negatively charged particles or corpuscles which have been formed by the disintegration of atoms of the gas in the vacuum tube. The term electron was applied by G. J. Stoney (1881) to designate the unit or atomic charge of electricity, and it is now almost universally applied to the sub-atomic particles supposed to stream from the negative electrode when a discharge is passing through an attenuated gas. No difference can be detected in the corpuscles derived from different gases, and hence it is inferred that the electrons are common constituents of all gases. If a stream of electrons be directed into an atmosphere of moist air, each electron serves as a nucleus about which moisture collects, and each electron becomes the centre of a visible drop of water. Hence (10), a stream of electrons, when directed into moist air, forms a cloud. The cloud or mist is an aggregate of minute falling raindrops; and it is assumed that, like a particle of dust in moist air an electron in moist air can serve as a nucleus for the condensation of the water vapour.”—J. W. Mellor, *Modern inorganic chemistry*, pp. 826-830.

Cathode ray theory.—“According to hypothesis, the electric discharge in attenuated gases splits the atoms of the gas into positively and negatively charged electrons. The cathode rays are a stream of negatively charged electrons sent from the cathode with a high velocity. It is inferred that ordinary atoms are probably made of nothing but aggregates of sub-atomic particles—positively and negatively charged. Under ordinary conditions, the charges counteract one another and the atom is electrically neutral. By the action of an electrical discharge, negative electrons are supposed to be detached from the atom, leaving a residue with a positive charge, and called a positive electron or positive ion. If a negative electron attaches itself to a neutral atom, the latter will acquire a negative charge. In reviewing the evidence derived from the properties of cathode rays J. J. Thomson (1897) said: ‘The explanation which seems to me to account for the facts in the most simple and straightforward way is founded on the view of the constitution of the chemical elements which has been favourably entertained by many chemists.’ The view is that the atoms of the different chemical elements contain different aggregations of particles of the same kind; otherwise expressed, that a part at least of all atoms consists of electrons. . . . Compared with the atom, the electron has quite a microscopic size. The electrons can travel with a velocity ranging as much as 90,000 miles per second. Their speed is dependent upon the intensity of the electrical force passing through the vacuum tube. A cathode particle travelling at this speed could go nearly twice round the earth in a second. The idea that the electrical condition of matter and its chemical activity depend upon the addition or

removal of electrons from atoms or molecules has been incorporated with the ionic hypothesis."—*Ibid.*, pp. 830-831.

Röntgen or X-rays.—"When the exhaustion of a vacuum tube is such that the tube is on the verge of becoming electrically non-conducting, and the glass opposite the cathode is brilliantly fluorescent, rays proceed from the fluorescent glass, outside the tube; these rays—called X-rays or Röntgen rays—have quite different properties from the cathode or Lenard rays, because they will pass through glass, and they are not deflected by a magnet. Like rays of light, Röntgen rays can be reflected, refracted, and polarized; and they are not appreciably affected by the most powerful electric or magnetic fields as charged particles would be. It is supposed that Röntgen rays—like rays of light, radiant heat, and electro-magnetic waves—are due to pulses or waves set up in the aether by the impact of electrons on matter. . . . The discoverer of the X-rays, W. C. Röntgen (1895), found that they can excite fluorescence on a paper screen coated with barium platinocyanide, BaPtCy, or calcium tungstate, CaWO; they can fog a photographic plate; and make the air through which they pass a conductor of electricity. They have a remarkable power of penetrating substances opaque to ordinary light. Röntgen rays are produced by the destruction of the cathode rays and are formed when the cathode rays impinge on solid objects. Every substance when bombarded by electrons emits Röntgen rays—the glass walls of a vacuum tube, heavy metals like platinum or uranium, etc."—*Ibid.*, p. 831.—"Provided with a Röntgen bulb, the photographer passes from the exterior to the interior of an object, almost as if he were a sorcerer with power to transmute all things to glass. Equipped with a simple X-ray apparatus, dislocations and fractures are detected by the surgeon, diseases of bones are studied, and shot, needles, and bits of glass or corroding wire within the muscles of a patient are located with exactitude. . . . The same means of exploration offers equal aid to medicine; it demonstrates the calcification of arteries, and aneurisms of the heart or of the first part of the aorta; . . . Dr. C. M. Mouillin, addressing the Röntgen Society of London as its president, states that the fluorescent screen has now reached such a degree of perfection that the minutest movement of the heart and lungs, and the least change in the action of the diaphragm, can be watched and studied at leisure in the living subject. . . .

"Manifestly, the unseen universe which enfolds us is steadily being brought to the light of day. The investigations of Hertz established that the light-waves which affect the eye are but one octave in a gamut which sweeps indefinitely far both above and below them. In his hands, as in those of Joseph Henry long before, electric waves found their way through the walls and floors of a house; in the Marconi telegraph these waves pass through the earth or a fog, a mist or a rain-storm, with little or no hindrance. What does all this mean? Nothing less than that, given its accordant ray, any substance whatever is permeable, and that, therefore, to communicate between any two places in the universe is simply a question of providing the right means."—G. Hes, *Flame, electricity and the camera*, ch. 24.

Positive or canal rays.—"When a perforated cathode is employed in the vacuum tube for producing cathode rays, E. Goldstein (1866) first noticed that streams of violet light passed through the perforations or canals and emerged behind

the cathode on the side remote from the anode, and hence he called these streams Kanalstrahlen (Canal rays). . . . The canal rays have been investigated by methods similar to those employed for the cathode rays. The results indicate that the canal rays are streams of particles the majority of which are positively electrified—hence, the term positive rays replacing the older term, canal rays. The streaming particles travel in straight lines and produce a phosphorescence (usually violet) when they impinge upon glass, etc. The speed of the positive electrons is usually much less than that of the negative electrons; and they are not so sensitive to magnetic influences. . . . It is probable that when a gas is ionized, one or more negatively electrified particles—electrons—are expelled from the atom, and the corresponding positively charged nucleus remains."—J. W. Mellor, *Modern inorganic chemistry*, pp. 833-834.

Becquerel rays.—"About the time Röntgen (1895) discovered the peculiar X-rays, radiating from phosphorescing Crookes' tubes, H. Becquerel (1866) repeated some experiments of Niepce de St. Victor (1867) in order to find 'if the property of emitting very penetrative rays is intimately connected with phosphorescence.' In other words, does the principle of reversibility apply? If Röntgen rays make a fluorescent substance shine in the dark, will a fluorescing substance emit invisible penetrative rays?"—*Ibid.*, p. 836.—"The efforts of Becquerel were crowned with success in an unexpected direction. He exposed a uranium salt to the light, and then placing it in a dark room on a photographic plate covered with opaque paper he demonstrated the action of these rays on the plate through the paper, thin sheets of metal, etc. But the supposed and sought-for relation of the rays to the previous fluorescence was not evident, for Becquerel obtained precisely the same results with preparations of uranium which had not only not been previously exposed directly to the light, but had purposely been kept some time in darkness and could therefore display no stored-up luminescence. He had, however, discovered the uranium or Becquerel rays."—F. Himstedt, *Radioactivity (Annual Report, Smithsonian Institution, 1905-6, pp. 117-118)*.

Radium: discovery and properties.—"At Becquerel's suggestion, Madame Curie undertook a systematic investigation of all the chemical elements and established the fact that with none of them, excepting uranium and thorium, could an appreciable effect indicating rays be obtained with her apparatus. On the other hand, she found that many of the minerals investigated showed noticeable action in this direction. The fact that a few of them, the uranium pitchblende, for example, from Joachimsthal, Bohemia, emitted rays three or four times stronger than those of pure uranium, and which could not therefore be announced as uranium rays, led her to suppose that in the pitchblende itself, apart from the uranium, there must exist a still more powerful radioactive substance. It is a matter of record how, in this research, which might serve as a model for such work, she and her husband, so soon afterwards to lose his life by a deplorable accident, succeeded in tracing this supposed substance more and more accurately, and finally in obtaining it pure. Madame Curie thus became the discoverer of radium, a new element possessed of wonderful, of fabulous qualities."—*Ibid.*—It was these results "that determined the attribution in 1903 of the Nobel Prize to Monsieur Becquerel

and Monsieur and Madame Curie jointly and severally for their researches in phenomena of spontaneous radiation. A new science had sprung up—a science of the deepest importance: the science of radio-active phenomena. . . . In 1912 [Madame Curie] was occupied in establishing an international standard of radium—*i. e.*, making the comparison of different specimens of radium from wherever they might have been obtained. . . . It should be noted that the last miracle of the series—*i. e.*, the 'isolation' of radium, and therefore the existence of pure radium—was only accomplished by Madame Curie many years after the first discovery. . . . She first made out a list methodically of every common and uncommon element, every combination possible, . . . and never rested till she had gone through the lot. 'Madame Curie experimented with some very rare elements' (Rutherford). 'It seems she broke up the bromide by electrical methods—and there in her tiny crystal retort was the minute film of bright metal.' 'She also determined correctly the atomic weight of radium (pure) hitherto unknown.' For these further discoveries she was again awarded the Nobel Prize, this time alone."—M. Cunningham, *Madame Curie and the story of radium*, pp. 29, 33, 34.—"The Becquerel rays evolved from radium chloride closely resemble those from uranum and they produce similar effects, but over a million times more intense. The Becquerel rays from radium chloride or radium bromide incite phosphorescence in diamonds, rubies, fluorspar, calcium sulphide, zinc sulphide, barium platinocyanide, etc. If the eyes be closed, and a tube of radium bromide be held near the forehead, the retina of the eye becomes phosphorescent, and light will be seen though the eyes are closed. A tube containing a little radium bromide when held near the skin for a few hours produces painful sores. Caterpillars and other small animals are said to be killed if shut up in a box with a minute fragment of radium. The radiations coagulate proteid matter—*e. g.*, globulin. It is also claimed that the exposure of malignant skin diseases, superficial cancer nodules, etc., has proved beneficial in many cases although the testimony of medical experts is not unanimous. . . . It has been estimated that a gram of radium will continue radioactive for about 2500 years, and it therefore follows that a gram of radium gives energy equivalent to that obtained by burning 9/10ths of a ton of coal during the period of radioactive change. Otherwise expressed, radium furnishes 250,000 times as much energy as is given by burning an equal weight of coal. Obviously, too, a relatively large amount of energy is needed for the continuous decomposition of water by radium salts in aqueous solutions. Hence radium is continually doing work at an undiminishing speed without any external supply of energy; otherwise expressed, the reaction is exothermal."—J. W. Mellor, *Modern inorganic chemistry*, pp. 840-841.

Rutherford's work on thorium.—Theory of atomic disintegration.—Formation of helium from radium.—"The subject of radioactivity entered upon a new stage when, in 1900, Sir Ernest Rutherford, then professor in Montreal, began an intensive study of the radio-activity of thorium, the only previously well-known element except uranium which had thus far shown the property. Acting upon the observation of Owens that some of the effects produced by radioactive products were modified by currents of air, Rutherford found that air which had been passed over an active thorium preparation had itself acquired activity,

but that this activity decayed rapidly with the time in accordance with the equation

$$\frac{I_t}{I_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

where I_0 represents the initial intensity, I_t that at the time t , e the base of natural logarithms, and λ a constant characteristic of the substance. It has since been found that all radioactive materials follow this law of gradual decay and it is perhaps the most important single generalization in the subject of radioactivity. The experiments showed that thorium was continually producing an extremely attenuated but highly radioactive gas, and to this Rutherford applied the name of the thorium emanation. He found that when the gas is retained for some time in any vessel the walls of the latter become coated with active material. This he called the *radioactive deposit*. It exhibited some remarkable properties. If a negatively charged wire was suspended in a vessel containing the emanation, all the deposit was concentrated upon the wire. The quantity of material was so small that it could be recognized only by its activity, but that it was a solid adhering to the wire seemed amply proved by the fact that it could be driven off by heat, or removed by rubbing with sandpaper. Still another substance, therefore, had been formed by the decomposition of the emanation, whose activity and period of decay were different from the latter. In 1902 Rutherford and Soddy pointed out another decomposition of thorium compounds of a somewhat analogous character. When a solution of thorium nitrate, for example, is precipitated by ammonia, the hydroxide thrown down, when filtered and dried, is found to be almost inactive. If the filtrate, however, be evaporated to dryness and the ammonia nitrate expelled by heat, an extremely small residue is left which possesses practically the whole activity of the original preparation. At the end of about a month, however, this has been practically lost, while that of the precipitated thoria has by this time regained practically all its original value. Subsequent investigation has shown that the changes just mentioned are in reality a good deal more complex, but these experiments sufficed to prove that radioactivity is accompanied by the formation of new material. Any single process, therefore, cannot be of infinite duration.

"On the strength of this evidence Rutherford and Soddy in 1902 advanced their theory of atomic disintegration, which thus far has accounted for all observed phenomena and is the present working hypothesis of the subject. Its fundamental principles may be stated as follows: The chemical atom is not to be regarded as an impenetrable and indivisible point, but as an extremely complex structure, and the forces which determine the relations of its component parts are incomparably greater than any which obtain in chemical combination between the atoms. The atoms of a substance which we call radioactive are unstable, and manifest this instability in the peculiar manner that certain ones (determined solely by the total number present) decompose explosively every instant, throwing off with great velocity the material composing the various kinds of rays above described, and leaving behind a new chemical element with properties of its own, which may or may not include radioactivity.

"Since radium occurs only in minerals containing uranium, this theory made it probable that radium is a product of the latter, and since most active minerals such as monazite sand contain helium,

this might be looked upon as one of the products of such activity. The latter point was established beyond question in 1903 when Ramsay and Soddy undertook a thorough study of the radium emanation. This material is a true gas obeying Boyle's law. It can be separated from other gases, condensed to a liquid, and frozen. Its atomic weight as determined from its density by Ramsay is 222. He classified it in the argon group and named it *niton*. The most striking observation made by Ramsay and Soddy was that when this gas has been kept for some days it disappears and helium appears in its place. This discovery, which represented the first known production of one element from another, seemed a realization of the dreams of the alchemists, and aroused a popular interest almost equal to that excited by the discovery of the X-rays. The experiment was soon successfully repeated in several laboratories. In the same year Rutherford pointed out that helium could not well be the only decomposition product of radium, as indeed was improbable, because the radium emanation like that of thorium also yielded an *active deposit*, which probably represents the greater portion of the products of decomposition. Rutherford suggested that the α rays emitted by the emanation, as well as other radioactive substances might really consist of electrically charged atoms of helium. In 1909 he was able to prove this by an extremely ingenious experiment. Some of the radium emanation was sealed into a tube of glass so extremely thin that α rays could penetrate it with considerable ease. This tube was then placed inside another which was attached to a spectrum tube. The outer tube was then evacuated. After two days its contents showed the principal lines in the spectrum of helium and after six the spectrum was complete.

"As a control a similar experiment was tried in which the inner tube was filled with helium instead of the emanation. None of this, however, penetrated to the outer tube. Meantime it had been shown that many other radioactive changes take place with evolution of α rays, and it follows from this, that the production of helium is not a particular property of the radium emanation but is a frequent accompaniment of perhaps the majority of such changes.

"From the chemical standpoint there is greater interest in certain researches carried on simultaneously with those described above, and which had for their object the discovery of new kinds of radioactive material. These for the most part had to be sought in the transformations of elements already known. Here it was soon found that many products at first deemed homogeneous like the *active deposit* really represented mixtures of several substances passing consecutively into each other. The relationships involved seemed at first sight hopelessly complex, but by applying the law of decay it became possible to recognize the activities of different elements even when they were superposed. In this way elements were discovered whose 'period of average life' had sometimes to be reckoned in seconds. This constant varies widely. For radium it is 2,440 years, for the emanation 5.55 days, and for uranium it is millions of years. In all about thirty radioactive elements have been discovered, each of which belongs to one of three series or families. The first comprises the products of disintegration of uranium and contains radium and polonium. The second series is formed by the decomposition of thorium, and the third is derived in the same way from actinium, a natural radioactive element allied to lanthanum, which was discovered by

Debiere in 1800. There is some reason to suppose that all three of these series end in ordinary lead, but this has not yet been proved."—F. J. Moore, *History of chemistry*, pp. 254-257, 261.

"H. S. Sheldon (1913) has emphasized the fact that the indifference of radioactive changes to temperature and other physical conditions must be a relative phenomenon, and a consequence of the limited range of our resources. The highest temperatures of our laboratories—3000°—are feeble when contrasted with those ten times hotter, which prevail in the colossal furnaces revealed by stellar spectra of the hotter stars. Consequently, the indifference of radioactive changes to external conditions cannot be accepted as absolute. Suppose, he adds, that electricity were unknown and it was only possible to attain variations of temperatures of a few degrees in our laboratories, then a large number of so-called compounds would be classed as elements, and the slow decomposition of many substances with the evolution of heat would appear as marvellous sources of energy, as unaccountable as radioactive changes are today."—J. W. Mellor, *Modern organic chemistry*, p. 853.—See also SCIENCE: Modern: 20th century: Chemistry.

CHEMISTRY, Agricultural.—Agricultural chemistry is that branch of chemical science which deals mainly with the problem of the soil, the nutrition of plants, and the composition of their products. "The rise of agricultural chemistry was necessarily contemporaneous with the rise of scientific agriculture. As there was really no science of agriculture until the latter part of the eighteenth century, it follows that the discussion of chemistry applicable to the cultivation of the soil has had a short history." Although the cultivation of the soil had been in progress for many centuries, "it cannot be said that the scientific side of agriculture received adequate consideration until after the Union of the Crowns in 1603. It is true that Tusser, who may be termed the father of modern agriculture, the author of the 'Hundred Points of Husbandry,' lived in the preceding reign of Elizabeth, but the admirable advice which he gave to farmers received little attention in his own day." With the growth in population in the eighteenth century, came the necessity for an improved system of agriculture. "Regular rotation of crops was introduced, turnips were sown in drills or rows, instead of broadcast." In 1790, the University of Edinburgh established a chair of agriculture. Twelve years later (1802), the first attempt to bring together the teachings of chemistry as applied to agriculture was made by Sir Humphry Davy who was invited by the British Board of Agriculture to deliver a series of lectures on agricultural chemistry. "The recognition of a distinct branch of chemistry, dealing with plants and soils, may be said to date from this period."

"Sir Humphry described the simplest method known of analysing soils to ascertain the constituents and chemical ingredients which appear to be connected with fertility. In the previous century it was supposed that minute earthly particles supplied the whole nourishment of the vegetable world, and that manures acted in no other way than in ameliorating the texture of the soil. Their agency was thought to be mechanical. But after the time of Cavendish, it was shown by Saussure and Hassenfratz's experiments that animal and vegetable matters deposited in soil are absorbed by plants, and that neither water, nor air, nor earth supplies the whole of the food of plants, although they all operate in the process of vege-

tation. Water acts as a solvent, vegetables decompose the carbonic acid gas of the atmosphere in the sunshine, and saline manures furnish a part of the true food of plants. The use of gypsum, particularly in the growth of clover, was recognised; slaked lime had been used by the Romans for manuring the ground in which fruit trees were grown; and marl had been employed by the British and the Gauls from the earliest times as a 'top-dressing.' Davy's experiments favoured the opinion that soluble matters pass unaltered into the roots of plants, and in consequence that water is essential to vegetable growth; the action of the roots is not selective, poisons being absorbed as well as useful substances. The great object in the application of manure, therefore, should be to make it afford as much soluble matter as possible to the roots of the plants. At the period when Sir Humphry Davy was lecturing on agricultural chemistry, it was popularly believed, although not universally accepted, that plants under the influence of sunlight absorb carbonic acid gas (carbon dioxide), decompose it, and exhale oxygen, while the reverse process takes place in the dark. It is now known that this is only a very rough, and not invariably correct, generalisation. Thirty years later, in Liebig's time, great importance was attached to humus, as the principal food of plants, absorbed from the soil by the roots. Experiments and calculations, however, have shown: (1) that the largest conceivable proportion of humus absorbed could not introduce more than a very small proportion of the carbon actually produced in vegetation; and (2) that humus in the form in which it exists in the soil is not absorbed, and does not yield the smallest degree of nourishment to plants. The mistake arose through the crude observation that dark soils rich in humus are always very fertile. Saussure's investigations established the belief that the carbonaceous material of plants is derived from carbonic acid gas, although it was not known in what way the change took place. The rotation of carbon and other elements between plants and animals was clearly established before 1845. The carbonic acid gas is mainly derived from the air, but a small quantity in solution is constantly absorbed by the roots. During the night carbonic acid gas is accumulated in all parts of plant structure, and decomposition begins when the rays of the sun strike the growing plants. It has to be observed, however, that humus exposed to the air by tilling and loosening supplied an atmosphere of carbonic acid gas. Next to Davy, no one has done more for agricultural chemistry than Baron von Liebig. His most important influence on agriculture was his recognition of the necessity of a sufficient, though small, supply of mineral matter as part of the essential food of plants and his observation that most soils contain very small proportions of these soluble mineral constituents, which are soon expended by continual cropping and removal of the crop, while, on the other hand, carbonic acid gas is furnished spontaneously by Nature. He made analyses of the ashes of plants, and introduced the practice of applying to the land manures containing potash salts, lime, and phosphates. The action of light was not well understood in Liebig's time. The conversion of starch into sugar was recognised as a hydrolytic action, but the chemists of that period had no conception of the way in which carbonic acid is transformed either into starch, or sugar, or any other vegetable matter. The synthesis of sugar by Fischer, and the formation of formaldehyde from

carbonic acid, have rendered it easy in modern times to conceive that carbonic acid gas may be reduced to formaldehyde, and then polymerised to formose, from which all other plant constituents may conceivably be produced. The only thing remaining to be determined at the present day [1912] is by what agency light falling upon the green parts of plants reduces carbonic acid to formaldehyde. Such conjectures are very easily formed, but very difficult to verify by experiment. From Liebig's time onwards the supplying of artificial manures has been an important industry, and has resulted in greatly increasing the yield of food crops by most soils. Opinion has varied from time to time as to the source of plant nitrogen. The investigations of Liebig naturally led to the belief that it is mainly derived from ammonia or nitrates, through the roots of the plants. . . . On the other hand, however, it has more recently been established, without leaving much room for doubt, that leaves have the power, in some plants at any rate, of absorbing nitrogen from the air."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, pp. 451-455.—The observations of Baron von Liebig concerning the mineral constituents of plants have been studied in recent times by Gabriel Bertrand. In a lecture on the "Chemical Infinitesimal in Agriculture" before the Eighth International Chemical Congress of Applied Science of September, 1912, he brought out the relations of metals and metalloids to the yield of crop. He proved "that some metalloids and metals, which are present in the plant in the most minute proportions may nevertheless be physiological factors, as necessary for the general metabolism of plants as carbon or nitrogen." Among these are manganese, baron, iodine, bromine, fluorine, arsenic, lithium, strontium, barium, zinc, copper, and cobalt. By a study of the composition of the plants, he found that he could increase the crop per acre by the addition of the soluble salt of the metal with the fertilizer. In an experiment with corn, he increased his weight of crop 61 per cent. by using as additional fertilizer 50 lbs. of boric acid, and 56 per cent. by using 25 lbs. as compared with the yield when no boric acid was added. Experiments with beets also showed marked increase in yields. Recent studies in the field of colloidal chemistry have brought out interesting and useful information for the agriculturist.

"One of the chief sources of usefulness of agricultural chemistry to the farmer, has been its poisons for the dreaded insects which have destroyed so many millions of dollars of crops. Insects may be divided into two classes, biting and sucking, while a third class is retained for the injurious fungi. Biting insects are destroyed by spraying the plants eaten with poisonous material that will be taken in by the insect with its food. The materials used are usually those compounds of arsenic having decided toxic effects and along with the other insect poisons are called insecticides. Among the more important ones for biting insects are, Paris Green first used for the Colorado Beetle (potato bug) in the United States; Bordeaux Mixture, first used in 1890 by Gillette; London Purple, imported from England in 1878 by Bessey as a substitute for Paris Green in the destruction of the potato beetle; calcium arsenite first used by Kilgare; lead arsenite, which was put on the market in 1892 as a caterpillar poison, and hellebore. To kill the sucking insects, it is necessary to close their pores. The surrounding atmosphere is therefore filled with poisonous fumes.

The more important of these poisons are lime-sulphur mixtures, used in California as a sheep dip in 1886, kerosene emulsions, soaps, nicotine sulphate solution, and carbon disulphide. The fungicides are most effectively destroyed by Bordeaux mixtures (made from milk of lime and copper sulphate), used since 1883 when Millardet used it against downy mildew of grape; lime-sulphur; sodium thiosulphate, used since 1885 against leaf blight; ammoniacal copper carbonate; and formaldehyde solution. It is thus apparent in the brief history of agricultural chemistry, as in the longer history of the science in general, that there has been much diversity of opinion in regard to matters of principle. But if there has been much diversity of opinion as to theory, there has been still more as to practice. While the judicious application of suitable chemical manures in appropriate quantities has a beneficial influence upon crops, it is quite possible to overdo such application. The commercial zeal of rival manufacturers has in many cases forced the use of chemical manures without sufficient regard to measure or propriety, with the result that serious injury has been done to the soil. The right understanding of the relation between soils and manures is a matter of study. With the extension of technical classes and laboratories, excessive use of chemical applications will be restrained, and mistakes will be avoided. Agricultural chemistry will then be esteemed one of the most important branches of the science."—J. C. Brown, *History of chemistry*, p. 455-456.—See also BIOLOGY: Applications.

CHEMISTRY, Bureau of (United States). See AGRICULTURE, DEPARTMENT OF (UNITED STATES).

CHEMNITZ, Battle of (1639). See GERMANY: 1634-1630.

CHEMULPO, the port of Seoul, the capital of Korea, on the Western coast, landing place of Japanese troops during Russo-Japanese war. See JAPAN: 1902-1905; and Map.

CHENENSU, Egyptian name of the ancient town of Hanes. See HANES.

CHENIER, André de (1762-1794), French poet. See FRENCH LITERATURE: 1700-1794.

CHEOPS, Egyptian king who built the Great Pyramid. See KHUFU.

CHERBOURG, seaport in France on the English channel, destroyed by the British in 1758. See ENGLAND: 1758 (July-August).

CHEROKEES.—"The Cherokee tribe has long been a puzzling factor to students of ethnology and North American languages. Whether to be considered an abnormal offshoot from one of the well-known Indian stocks or families of North America, or the remnant of some undetermined or almost extinct family which has merged into another, appear to be questions yet unsettled."—C. Thomas, *Burial mounds of the Northern sections of the U. S.*, (*Fifth Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology*, 1883-4).—Facts which tend to identify the Cherokees with the ancient "mound-builders" of the Ohio Valley—the Alleghans or Talligewi of Indian tradition—are set forth by Prof. Thomas in a later paper, on the "Problem of the Ohio Mounds," published by the Bureau of Ethnology in 1880 [see ALLEGHANS] and in a little book published in 1890, entitled "The Cherokees in Pre-Columbian Times."—"The Cherokee nation has probably occupied a more prominent place in the affairs and history of what is now the United States of America, since the date of the early European settlements, than any other tribe, nation, or confederacy of Indians, unless it be possible

to except the powerful and warlike league of the Iroquois or Six Nations of New York. It is almost certain that they were visited at a very early period [1540] following the discovery of the American continent by that daring and enthusiastic Spaniard, Fernando de Soto. . . . At the time of the English settlement of the Carolinas the Cherokees occupied a diversified and well-watered region of country of large extent upon the waters of the Catawba, Broad, Saluda, Keowee, Tugaloo, Savannah, and Coosa rivers on the east and south, and several tributaries of the Tennessee on the north and west. . . . In subsequent years, through frequent and long continued conflicts with the ever advancing white settlements, and the successive treaties whereby the Cherokees gradually yielded portions of their domain, the location and names of their towns were continually changing until the final removal of the nation [1836-1839] west of the Mississippi. . . . This removal turned the Cherokees back in the calendar of progress and civilization at least a quarter of a century. The hardships and exposures of the journey, coupled with the fevers and malaria of a radically different climate, cost the lives of perhaps 10 per cent. of their total population. The animosities and turbulence born of the treaty of 1835 not only occasioned the loss of many lives, but rendered property insecure, and in consequence diminished the zeal and industry of the entire community in its accumulation. A brief period of comparative quiet, however, was again characterized by an advance toward a higher civilization. Five years after their removal we find from the report of their agent that they are again on the increase in population. . . . With the exception of occasional drawbacks—the result of civil feuds—the progress of the nation in education, industry and civilization continued until the outbreak of the rebellion. At this period, from the best attainable information, the Cherokees numbered 21,000 souls. The events of the war brought to them more of desolation and ruin than perhaps to any other community. Raided and sacked alternately, not only by the Confederates and Union forces, but by the vindictive ferocity and hate of their own factional divisions, their country became a blackened and desolate waste. . . . The war over, and the work of reconstruction commenced, found them numbering 14,000 impoverished, heart-broken, and revengeful people. . . . To-day their country is more prosperous than ever. They number 22,000, a greater population than they have had at any previous period, except perhaps just prior to the date of the treaty of 1835, when those east added to those west of the Mississippi are stated to have aggregated nearly 25,000 people. To-day they have 2,300 scholars attending 75 schools, established and supported by themselves at an annual expense to the nation of nearly \$100,000. To-day, 13,000 of their people can read and 18,000 can speak the English language. To-day, 5,000 brick, frame and log-houses are occupied by them, and they have 64 churches with a membership of several thousand. They cultivate 100,000 acres of land and have an additional 150,000 fenced. . . . They have a constitutional form of government predicated upon that of the United States. As a rule their laws are wise and beneficent and are enforced with strictness and justice. . . . The present Cherokee population is of a composite character. Remnants of other nations or tribes [Delawares, Shawnees, Creeks, Natchez] have from time to time been absorbed and admitted to full participation in the benefits of Cherokee citizenship."—C. C.

Royce, *Cherokee nation of Indians (Fifth Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, 1883-84)*.—This elaborate paper by Mr. Royce is a narrative in detail of the official relations of the Cherokees with the colonial and federal governments, from their first treaty with South Carolina, in 1721, down to the treaty of April 27, 1868.—“As early as 1798 Barton compared the Cherokee language with that of the Iroquois and stated his belief that there was a connection between them. . . . Mr. Hale was the first to give formal expression to his belief in the affinity of the Cherokee to Iroquois. Recently extensive Cherokee vocabularies have come into possession of the Bureau of Ethnology, and a careful comparison of them with ample Iroquois material has been made by Mr. Hewitt. The result is convincing proof of the relationship of the two languages.”—J. W. Powell, *Seventh Annual Report of the Bureau of Ethnology, p. 77*.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area; 1893-1899; 1920: Facts on Oklahoma Indians; MUSKIOGEAN OR MASKOKI FAMILY; ALABAMA: 1835-1838; GEORGIA: 1825-1838; OKLAHOMA: 1824-1837; 1830-1844; 1860-1865; 1891-1901; SOUTH CAROLINA: 1750-1761.

ALSO IN: S. G. Drake, *Aboriginal races of North America, bk. 4, ch. 13-16*.

CHERRONESUS, name of one of the proposed states in the Northwest territory. See NORTHWEST TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES: 1784.

CHERRY VALLEY, Massacre at. See U. S. A.: 1778 (June-November).

CHERSO, island in the Adriatic Sea off the Istrian coast, promised to Italy by the Treaty of London. See LONDON, TREATY OR PACT OF.

CHERSON.—“A thousand years after the rest of the Greek nation was sunk in irremediable slavery, Cherson remained free. Such a phenomenon as the existence of manly feeling in one city, when mankind everywhere else slept contented in a state of political degradation, deserved attentive consideration. . . . Cherson retained its position as an independent State until the reign of Theophilus [Byzantine emperor, 829-842], who compelled it to receive a governor from Constantinople; but, even under the Byzantine government, it continued to defend its municipal institutions, and, instead of slavishly soliciting the imperial favour, and adopting Byzantine manners, it boasted of its constitution and self government. But it gradually lost its former wealth and extensive trade, and when Vladimir, the sovereign of Russia, attacked it in 988, it was betrayed into his hands by a priest, who informed him how to cut off the water. . . . Vladimir obtained the hand of Anne, the sister of the emperors Basil II. and Constantine VIII., and was baptised and married in the church of the Panaghia at Cherson. To soothe the vanity of the Empire, he pretended to retain possession of his conquest as the dowry of his wife. Many of the priests who converted the Russians to Christianity, and many of the artists who adorned the earliest Russian churches with paintings and mosaics, were natives of Cherson.”—G. Finlay, *History of the Byzantine empire from 716 to 1057*.—See also BOSPORUS, CIMMERIAN: 565-574.

CHERSONESE, Golden. See CHRYSE.

CHERSONESUS, the Greek name for a peninsula, or “land-island,” applied most especially to the long tongue of land between the Hellespont and the gulf of Melas.

CHERUBINI, Maria Luigi (1760-1842), Carlo Zenobio Salvatore, Italian composer, studied in

Bologna with Sarti, 1777-1791. Became musician to the Chapelle Royale, Paris, 1816; director of Paris Conservatory 1882. Widely influenced young French composers of that period; noted composer of sacred music, of which his “Requiem in C” is his greatest and most famous work. He wrote about thirty operas. See also MUSIC: Modern: 1730-1816; 1774-1864; 1800-1908.

CHERUSCI, Germanic tribe. See CHAUCI; GERMANY: B. C. 8-A. D. 11; A. D. 14-16; SAXONS.

CHESAPEAKE, American frigate, attacked and boarded by a British man-of-war in 1807 and captured in 1813 during a fight with the British frigate *Shannon*. See U. S. A.: 1804-1809; 1812-1813: Indifference to the navy.

CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO CANAL. See CANALS: American canals: Rehabilitated.

CHESAPEAKE AND OHIO RAILWAY: Consolidation plan. See RAILROADS: 1921: Twenty rail systems proposed.

CHESS, Origin of the game of.—“If we wished to know, for instance, who has taught us the game of chess, the name of chess would tell us better than anything else that it came to the West from Persia. In spite of all that has been written to the contrary, chess was originally the game of Kings, the game of Shabs. This word Shah became in Old French *eschac*, It. *scacco*, Germ. *Schach*; while the Old French *eschecs* was further corrupted into *chess*. The more original form *chec* has likewise been preserved, though we little think of it when we draw a cheque, or when we suffer a check, or when we speak of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. The great object of the chess-player is to protect the king, and when the king is in danger, the opponent is obliged to say ‘check,’ i. e., Shah, the king. . . . After this the various meanings of check, cheque, or exchequer become easily intelligible, though it is quite true that if similar changes of meaning, which in our case we can watch by the light of history, had taken place in the dimness of prehistoric ages, it would be difficult to convince the sceptic that exchequer, or scaccarium, the name of the chess-board was afterwards used for the checkered cloth on which accounts were calculated by means of counters, and that a checkered career was a life with many cross-lines.”—F. M. Müller, *Biography of words, ch. 4*.

CHESTER, ancient city, capital of Cheshire, England. See DEVA.

CHESTER, Palatine earldom. See PALATINE, ENGLISH COUNTIES; also WALES, PRINCE OF.

CHESTER, Battle of.—One of the fiercest of the battles fought between the Welsh and the Angles, 613. The latter were the victors.

CHESTERFIELD, Philip Dormer Stanhope, 4th earl of (1694-1773), English writer, orator, politician; achieved fame as man of fashion. Filled several diplomatic posts; 1744-1746 lord lieutenant of Ireland. “Letters to His Son,” published in 1774, give instructions in manners and morals.

CHESTS, medieval financial system at Oxford. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 912-1275: England: Early Oxford.

CHEWODE, Sir Philip Walhouse, 7th baron (1869-), British lieutenant-general in the World War. See WORLD WAR: 1914: I. Western front: n; o; 1916: VI. Turkish theater; b, 2, i; b, 2, iv; c, 1.

CHEVANNES, P. de (1842-1898), French mural painter. See PAINTING: Europe: 19th century.

CHEVES, Langdon (1776-1857), American lawyer and congressman who desired war against England in 1812. See U. S. A.: 1810-1812.

CHEVREUX, village in France west of Neufchatel captured by Germans, recaptured by the French in 1917. See **WORLD WAR: 1917: II. Western front: f, 3.**

CHEYENNE, capital of Wyoming, settled in 1867. See **WYOMING: 1863-1870.**

CHEYENNE INDIANS. See **ALGONQUIAN (ALGONKIN) FAMILY; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Plains area; 1865-1876; PAWNEE FAMILY; SHOSHONEAN FAMILY; SIOUAN FAMILY: SIOUX; also OKLAHOMA: 1885: Threatened Indian outbreak; U. S. A.: 1866-1876; WYOMING: 1851-1865.**

CHIABRERA, Gabriello (1552-1638), Italian poet, who, because of his adherence to the classics, was called the Italian Pindar. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1600-1700.**

CHIARI, Battle of (1701). See **ITALY: 1701-1713.**

CHIARINI, Giuseppe (1833-1908), Italian scholar and poet. See **ITALIAN LITERATURE: 1830-1912.**

CHIBCHA INDIANS.—The most northerly group of the tribes of the Andes "are the Cundinamarca of the table lands of Bogotá. At the time of the conquest the watershed of the Magdalena was occupied by the Chibcha, or, as they were called by the Spaniards, Muyscas. At that time the Chibcha were the most powerful of all the autochthonous tribes, had a long history behind them, were well advanced toward civilization, to which numerous antiquities bear witness. The Chibcha of to-day no longer speak the well-developed and musical language of their forefathers. It became extinct about 1730, and it can now only be inferred from existing dialects of it; these are the languages of the Turiero, a tribe dwelling north of Bogotá, and of the Itoco Indians who live in the neighborhood of the celebrated Emerald mines of Muzo."—J. S. Kingsley, ed., *Standard natural history*, v. 6, p. 215.—"As potters and goldsmiths they [the Chibcha] ranked among the finest on the continent."—D. G. Brinton, *Races and peoples*, p. 272.—See also **COLOMBIA: Inhabitants; INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Chibcha area.**

CHIBKAT INDIANS. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.**

CHICAGO: Geographical position.—Area.—Population.—"Chicago, Cook County, Illinois, is situated on the south-western shore of Lake Michigan, at the head of lake navigation. . . . The spot now covered with stately blocks of buildings, and alive in every direction with a busy and eager multitude . . . was [about 1832] . . . a low and marshy plain."—*Chicago directory*, 1839 (*Fergus' historical series*, No. 2, pp. 53-54).—Chicago, in 1920, had an area of 123,142.6 acres, or about 192.4 miles, with a population of 2,701,705.

Also in: E. Atkinson, *Story of Chicago and national development*.—J. S. Currey, *Chicago; its history and its builders*.—H. C. Chatfield-Taylor, *Chicago*.

Industries.—"In 1916 Chicago manufactories numbered ten thousand; their finished products were valued at two billions; and furnished work for three hundred thousand wage earners who were paid two hundred million dollars. . . . [It is] the world's first city in live stock, in cement . . . and in food production. These and like statistics are self-evident facts."—W. D. Moody, *What of the City?* pp. 154, 155.—The great meat packing industry, is centered at the Union Stock Yards on the south side, together with the industries provided by its by-products, such as butter substi-

tutes, lard, soap, toilet articles, animal and poultry foods, glue, fertilisers, all manufactured from the waste of the meat packing industry. "Chicago is located in the center of the richest agricultural region of the world. . . . It is the great railroad center—great meat packing industries are located here—the receipts and shipments of grain at this point perhaps exceed those of any other city; and manufactured articles of all kinds carry the name 'Chicago' to the uttermost ends of the world—but the chief contribution to Chicago's greatness is the agricultural wealth of the great states contiguous to the city. Let us consider the great manufacturing plants where agricultural machines and implements are made. . . . Among the plants devoted to the manufacture of farm machines, wagons and implements, the largest are the McCormick, Deering, Weber, and Plano, known as the International Harvester Company. . . . The buildings of the various plants cover more than 700 acres of ground. The output includes grain binders, reapers, headers, header-binders, rice binders, mowers, corn binders, huskers and shredders, hay rakes, hay tedders, sweep rakes, hay stackers, hay presses, knife grinders, binder twine, wagons, cream separators, gasoline engines, auto-buggies, manure spreaders, and feed grinders, together with duplicate parts of all machines and implements. [Other great industries are the Illinois Steel Company, Portland cement, furniture in wood and steel, clothing, shoes, mining machinery, aeroplanes. The largest manufacturing plant of the Western Electric Company is just outside the city limits.] . . . Chicago has a favorable location. Being situated in a broad and fertile valley, she is able to command abundant supplies of food for her great population, as well as raw materials for the various lines of industry carried on in her manufactories, foundries, and shops. Her position at the head of Lake Michigan gives her control of the commerce of the lakes, and invites to her door the products of the varied industry of the North and East during the season of lake navigation. This control of the lakes and her easy access to the productive prairies west and south have naturally made Chicago the terminus of many lines of railroads and these railroads have proved important factors in her phenomenal development."—Editorial staff Little Chronicle Company, *Industries of a great city*, pp. 68, 128.—"Twenty-seven railways, making thirty-two main trunk lines have terminals in Chicago. None of the systems run trains through the city. All of them stop there. In addition seventeen steamship lines provide water transport, and, to supply them with proper dockage, four new harbor sites were established by ordinance in 1911."—W. D. Moody, *What of the City?*, pp. 154-155.

Also in: L. R. Wells, *Industrial history of the United States*.

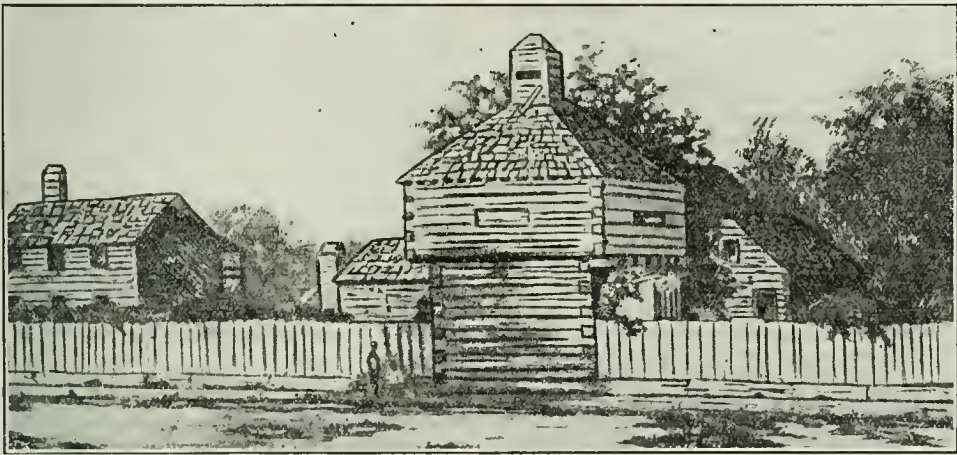
1673-1804.—Foundation.—Early history.—"In regard to its earlier history . . . very little can be affirmed with any degree of certainty. The original proprietors and first inhabitants of the region were, of course, the aborigines. The description of the first appearance of the vicinity by some of its earliest explorers, leads to the belief that they were here from a very early period, that this was then, and from time immemorial had been, the site of an Indian village."—*Chicago directory*, 1830 (*Fergus' historical series*, No. 2, p. 54).—"The earliest record that has come down to us of the coming of white men to Chicago is that of Joliet and Marquette's visit in the summer of 1673, while returning from their famous voyage of exploration of the Mississippi River."—M. M.

Quaife, *Development of Chicago, 1674-1914*, p. 1.—“On the 3d of August, 1795, at the treaty held by General Wayne, with the Pottawatomies and other tribes at Greenville, the title to six miles square of territory, at the mouth of Chikajo River, as it is expressed in the treaty, was obtained by the United States. From the language of this treaty, it appears that a fort had formerly stood on the land thus ceded, which renders it pretty certain, that the French, who alone could have required anything of the sort, had made a settlement here, many years before. In 1804, Fort Chicago was built on the site of the [later] . . . Fort. About the same time, the American Fur Company, having been organized shortly before, established a trading station, under the protection of the garrison. The little colony thus planted here, some forty years ago [written in 1839], for military and trading purposes, may be regarded as the first attempt to effect a permanent settlement of Chicago.”—*Chicago directory, 1839 (Fergus' historical series, No. 2, p. 50)*.

1812-1837.—Evacuation in the war with England.—Fort Dearborn.—City's incorporation (Mar. 4, 1837).—“The regular and monotonous life

Indians, from whom they were descended—and their log or bark houses as low, filthy, and disgusting, displaying not the least trace of comfort, and as a place of business, affording no inducements to the settler—the whole amount of trade on the Lake, not exceeding the cargoes of five or six schooners, even at the time when the garrison received its supplies from Mackinaw.’ This picture, though perhaps too highly colored, presents, in the main, a correct view of Chicago, in 1832. . . . The year 1832 may then be regarded as the period from which to date the commencement of the city. . . . In 1837, Chicago became an incorporated city, the Act of the Legislature conferring its charter being granted and approved March 4th, of that year.”—*Chicago directory, 1839 (Fergus' historical series, No. 2, pp. 56-59)*.

1848-1852.—First railroads.—Connection with the east.—The Galena and Chicago Union railway was completed in 1848. In 1852 the Michigan Southern and the Michigan Central, the first roads connecting the city with the east, extended their lines to Chicago. Railroad development from that time on was remarkably rapid.



FORT DEARBORN IN 1853

led by the community, for the first eight years, afforded few incidents worthy of particular notice. In 1812, however, the war broke out with England, the consequences of which were peculiarly disastrous to all the Western settlements, exposed as they were, especially those in Illinois, to the hostility of neighboring tribes of Indians. . . . Chicago being then an extreme frontier post in this direction, and the country in every direction around it, full of Indians, with a force inadequate to its defence, was considered so much endangered as to require its evacuation. . . . This evacuation, on account of the fatal consequences which followed it (the massacre of most of the retreating garrison), . . . may be considered a memorable event in the annals of Chicago.” The fort was burned down by the Indians, but was rebuilt in 1817 and renamed Fort Dearborn. “Until 1832, and even so late as 1833, little or nothing was done towards making a commencement of the City. . . . In 1832, its appearance and condition was much the same as in 1823, when Major Long, who visited the place that year, describes it ‘as presenting no cheering prospects, and containing but few huts, inhabited by a miserable race of men, scarcely equal to the

1857.—Academy of Sciences.—The Academy of Sciences was opened in 1857.

1860.—Republican National Convention.—Chicago was the meeting place of the Republican National Convention which nominated Lincoln for president. See U. S. A.: 1860 (April-November).

1864.—Democratic National Convention. See U. S. A.: 1864 (May-November).

1865.—Union stockyards.—In 1865 the Union Stockyards, now the largest in the world, were established on the South Side, and contributed much to the city's subsequent development.

1865.—Growth of factories. See ILLINOIS: 1865.

1866.—Art Institute.—The Art Institute, known until 1882 as the Chicago Academy of Design, was opened in 1866. See ART INSTITUTE, Chicago.

1867.—Academy of Design founded. See EDUCATION, ART: Modern Period: United States.

1869-1922.—City park system.—The year 1869 marks the beginning of the city park system. To-day the main parks are Lincoln Park, the site of what is perhaps the finest of the many Lincoln statues, Jackson Park and Washington Park, while around the city stretches a vast semi-circle of park land comprising 35,000 acres of hills and valleys, meadow land and forest. The various parks are

linked together into one great system by wide boulevards, and the north shore is skirted by a beautiful driveway, known as the lake shore drive. With this driveway, the city has set a much-needed example in the beautifying of water fronts. Even on the south side shore, by which railways enter the city, the tracks have been lowered to permit of improvements being made. In addition to the large parks, there are within the city a number of neighborhood parks, which are used as playgrounds and neighborhood centers.

1870.—Increase of population.—Commercial importance of the city.—In 1870 the population of the city was 306,605, as compared to only 4,479 in 1840. In the thirty years, that is, 302,126 inhabitants had been added to the city. By 1870 Chicago had become one of the most important commercial centers of the country.

1871.—Great fire.—"The greatest event in the history of Chicago was the Great Fire, as it is termed, which broke out on the evening of Oct. 8, 1871. Chicago was at that time [except in the business center] a city of wood. For a long time prior to the evening referred to there had been blowing a hot wind from the southwest, which had dried everything to the inflammability of tinder, and it was upon a mass of sun and wind-dried wooden structures that the fire began its work. It is supposed to have originated from the accidental upsetting of a kerosene lamp in a cow barn [Mrs. O'Leary's] on De Koven Street, near the corner of Jefferson, on the west side of the river. This region was composed largely of shanties, and the fire spread rapidly, very soon crossing the river to the South Side, and fastening on that portion of the city which contained nearly all the leading business houses, and which was built up very largely with stone and brick. But it seemed to enkindle as if it were tinder. Some buildings were blown up with gunpowder, which, in connection with the strong southwest gale, prevented the extension of the flames to the south. The fire swept on Monday steadily to the north, including everything from the lake to the South Branch, and then crossed to the North Side, and, taking in everything from the lake to the North Branch, it burned northward for a distance of three miles, where it died out at the city limits, when there was nothing more to burn. . . .

[The amount of the total property loss was estimated at \$200,000,000.] Of this vast sum, nearly one-half was covered by insurance, but under the tremendous losses many of the insurance companies were forced to the wall, and went into liquidation, and the victims of the conflagration recovered only about one-fifth of their aggregate losses. Among the buildings which were burned were the court-house, custom-house and post office, chamber of commerce, three railway depots, nine daily newspaper offices, thirty-two hotels, ten theatres and halls, eight public schools and some branch school buildings, forty-one churches, five elevators, and all the national banks. If the Great Fire was an event without parallel in its dimensions and the magnitude of its dire results, the charity which followed it was equally unrivalled in its extent. . . . All the civilized world appeared to instantly appreciate the calamity. Food, clothing, supplies of every kind, money, messages of affection, sympathy, etc., began pouring in at once in a stream that appeared endless and bottomless. In all, the amount contributed reached over \$7,000,000. . . . It was believed by many that the fire had forever blotted out Chicago from the list of great American cities, but the spirit of her people was undaunted by calamity, and, en-

couraged by the generous sympathy and help from all quarters, they set to work at once to repair their almost ruined fortunes. . . . Rebuilding was at once commenced, and, within a year after the fire, more than \$40,000,000 were expended in improvements. The city came up from its ruins far more palatial, splendid, strong and imperishable than before. In one sense the fire was a benefit. Its consequence was a class of structures far better, in every essential respect, than before the conflagration. Fire-proof buildings became the rule, the limits of wood were carefully restricted, and the value of the reconstructed portion immeasurably exceeded that of the city which had been destroyed."—*Marquis' handbook of Chicago*, p. 22.—"Thousands of people on the North Side fled far out on the prairie, but other thousands, less fortunate, were hemmed in before they could reach the country, and were driven to the Sands, a group of beach-hillocks fronting on Lake Michigan. These had been covered with rescued merchandise and furniture. The flames fell fiercely upon the heaps of goods, and the miserable refugees were driven into the black waves, where they stood neck-deep in chilling water, scourged by sheets of sparks and blowing sand. A great number of horses had been collected here, and they too dashed into the sea, where scores of them were drowned. Toward evening the Mayor sent a fleet of tow-boats which took off the fugitives at the Sands. When the next day [Tuesday, October 10] dawned, the prairie was covered with the calcined ruins of more than 17,000 buildings. . . . This was the greatest and most disastrous conflagration on record. The burning of Moscow, in 1812, caused a loss amounting to £30,000,000; but the loss at Chicago was in excess of this amount. The Great Fire of London, in 1666, devastated a tract of 436 acres, and destroyed 13,000 buildings; but that of Chicago swept over 1,900 acres, and burned more than 17,000 buildings."—M. F. Sweetser, *Chicago (Cities of the World, v. 1)*.—The following is the statement of area burned over, and of property destroyed, made by the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, and which is probably authoritative: "The total area burned over in the city, including streets, was 2,124 acres, or nearly three and one-third square miles. This area contained about 73 miles of streets, 18,000 buildings, and the homes of 100,000 people."—A. T. Andreas, *History of Chicago*, v. 2, p. 760.

ALSO IN: E. Colbert and E. Chamberlain, *Chicago and the great conflagration*.

1879-1887.—Carter Henry Harrison mayor.—For four successive terms Carter Henry Harrison, Democrat, was mayor of Chicago. He was not candidate again until 1891.

1886-1887.—Haymarket tragedy.—"The whole story . . . must begin with the strikes that at intervals for many years had shaken the city; strikes of seamen, dock laborers, stockyard workers, street railroad workers; we must go back to these and to John Bonfield, Captain first and then Inspector of Police. A large, powerful, resolute, ruthless man, Bonfield has pressed his way to the front chiefly by reason of his physical prowess and unshakable courage, for of understanding he had little. He went to peace by a way old enough in history, but rather new in American communities; he cracked all heads in sight until no man was left upright, and then announced that quiet was restored and the strike broken. . . . Men that worked with their hands became convinced that the police were tyrannical, cruel, arbitrary, the professional and gratuitous enemies of the workers and the devoted champions of the

employing class. On the other hand, another part of the community got the notion that in the city was a large element of desperate men, foes to society and order, ripe for violence, and only held in check by the constant vigilance of the police. . . . On the top of this smoldering heap was now laid, by the hands of Fate, the eight-hour movement of 1886. . . . It was bitterly resented by employers. . . . It was seen that the demand for eight hours was limited chiefly to factories in which was much foreign-born labor, and the fact increased the common foreboding. . . . The most important factory involved in the eight-hour strikes was the great McCormick harvester and reaper works on the far west side. Close by, to the east, were teeming foreign quarters, mostly of Poles and Bohemians. The McCormick Company attempted to fill the places of the strikers, and riot after riot ensued."—C. E. Russell, *These shifting scenes*, pp. 81-83.—"On May 4, 1886, this discontent culminated in a terrible tragedy at the city of Chicago. An open-air meeting was held by the discontented party at the old Haymarket, on the West Side of the city. As the attitude of these men had been threatening for several weeks, a company of policemen were sent to preserve order. Their presence and their demeanor inflamed the wrath of some madman in the crowd, and a dynamite bomb was thrown into their midst, killing one policeman immediately and wounding sixty-seven others. The bomb was probably thrown by a German named Schnaubelt. This man fled, and was never captured. Seven policemen in all died, from the results of the riot. The city was seriously alarmed. There were rumors of a great conspiracy. It was whispered that a plot existed to burn the city to the ground. A raid was made on the office of the *Arbeiter Zeitung*, the organ of the Anarchists. Here dynamite bombs and infernal machines were found, as well as a large number of circulars on which there was an appeal to the workmen to arm themselves. It is said by the friends of the Anarchists that these circulars were not intended for distribution. They maintained that some ill-advised person had put that appeal upon the circulars without the knowledge of the men who were to speak at the Haymarket meeting which the circulars announced. It is said that Albert Parsons, one of the best known of the Anarchist leaders, refused to speak at the meeting unless other circulars were printed which did not contain that seditious injunction. These milder circulars had been printed and circulated, and those left in the office, it is said, were to be destroyed. But even when this point is conceded, it does not explain the presence of dynamite. . . . Eight leaders of the Anarchists were arrested on charge of conspiracy and murder. They were August Spies, Albert R. Parsons, Samuel Fielden, Oscar Neebe, George Engel, Louis Ling, Michael Schwab and Adolph Fischer."—E. W. Peattie, *Story of America*, pp. 670, 673.—The trial began July 14, 1886. The evidence closed on August 10, the argument of counsel consumed more than a week, and on August 20, the jury brought in a verdict which condemned Neebe to imprisonment for fifteen years, and all the other prisoners to death. Ling committed suicide in prison; the sentences of Schwab and Fielden were commuted by the governor to imprisonment for life; the remaining four were hanged on November 11, 1887.—Judge Gary, *Chicago anarchists of 1886* (*Century Magazine*, April, 1893).—In 1893 Governor J. P. Altgeld of Illinois pardoned Fielden, Neebe and Schwab on the ground that the presiding judge was prejudiced, that the jury was "packed" and there-

fore incompetent, and that no evidence connected the prisoners with the crime.

1890-1892.—Chicago University founded and opened. See UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1890-1892.

1892-1893.—World's Fair. See WORLD'S COLUMBIAN EXPOSITION.

1893.—Re-election of Carter Henry Harrison as mayor.—His assassination.—The closing days of the exposition were marked by the assassination of Mayor Harrison. He had been a prominent and much discussed figure in municipal politics for many years, and served for four consecutive terms before he was defeated in 1886. In spite of strong opposition, had been again elected in 1893.

1894.—Destruction of the Columbian exposition buildings.—By a succession of fires, January 9, February 14, most of the buildings of the exposition, with valuable exhibits not yet removed, were destroyed.

1894.—Pullman strike. See U. S. A.: 1894: Strike at Pullman.

1896.—Democratic National Convention. See U. S. A.: 1896: Party platforms and nominations: Democratic.

1897-1899.—Carter Henry Harrison, Jr., Mayor of Chicago.

1899.—Significance of the municipal election.—The municipal election of April 4, 1899, resulted in the reelection of Mayor Carter H. Harrison, Democrat, by 149,000 votes, against 107,000 cast for Zina R. Carter, Republican, and 46,000 for ex-Governor Altgeld, radical Democrat, running independently. In the opinion of a correspondent of the *Review of Reviews*, "The campaign disclosed three interesting results—namely: (1) the growth of independence and of attention to local issue; (2) the dominance of the street-railroad issue; and (3) the growth of sentiment in favor of municipal ownership. Nearly two-thirds of all the votes cast were against the Republican candidate, and our correspondent regards this as largely due to the belief that he, more than any of the others, represented the interests of the street-railroad corporations." This writer held that "in all probability any practical proposition for municipal ownership and operation of the street-railroads would to-day [1899] be approved by a popular vote in Chicago."

1899.—Origin of Children's Court. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.

1900.—Experiment in teaching blind in public schools. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Education for the deaf, blind and feeble-minded: Blind.

1900.—Opening of the drainage canal.—An extraordinary public work was brought into use early in the year, by the opening of what is known as the Chicago drainage canal. This was constructed for the purpose of turning the natural flow of water in Chicago river backward, away from Lake Michigan, its natural embouchure, into the small Des Plaines river, which runs to the Illinois, and the Illinois to the Mississippi,—the object being to carry the sewage of Chicago away from the lake, where it contaminated the water supply of the city. Part of the city sewage was already being sent in that direction by a pumping system which carried it over the divide; the purpose of the canal was to take the whole. The work was begun in September, 1892, and practically finished, so far as concerned the canal, in little more than seven years, at a cost of about \$34,500,000. Changes in the city sewage system, to fully utilize the object of the canal, were still to be completed. It was estimated that, with full use, there would

be provision in the canal for a maximum discharge of 600,000 cubic feet of water per minute. Some anticipated that such an outflow would seriously lower the level of the lakes; but there were no signs of that effect in the season of 1900. Nor did it seem to appear that the sewage then passing by river flow westward was doing harm to towns on the Illinois and Mississippi, as they had apprehended; but the discharge was then far short of what it was intended to be. It is possible that ultimately the Chicago drainage canal may become part of a navigable water-way from the lakes to the Mississippi, realizing an old project of water transportation in that direction to compete with the rails. The canal has been constructed upon a scale to suffice for that use; but the river-improvement called for is one of formidable cost.

1903.—**Burning of the Iroquois Theater.**—On the afternoon of December 30, 1903, 588 people perished in the burning of the Iroquois theater. The audience was made up principally of women and children, many of whom belonged to prominent families. The whole city was plunged in grief, and the whole world shared in the sorrow and manifested its sympathy. The theater was a new one, and was regarded as the best of any in the city in its method of construction. But inquiry soon proved that it was defective in its provisions for safety. Further examination, moreover, showed a similar condition in other places of assembly, with the result that all the theaters, with many churches and halls in Chicago, were closed by order of the mayor, pending their compliance with certain provisions of the law.

1903-1907.—**Transit problems.**—With the rapid growth of the city as shown by the increase of population from 503,185 in 1880 to 1,698,575 in 1900, transport facilities became very inadequate. In consequence much hardship was felt; increasing discontent became apparent, and a clamor for public ownership arose. In 1903, an Act, known as the Mueller law, was passed by the legislature to provide for public ownership and operation, contingent upon a simple majority on referendum, for municipal ownership, and a two-thirds majority for operation. In 1905, both political parties pledged themselves to city ownership. The democratic candidate, Edward F. Dunne, was elected on a promise for immediate relief; but opposition within the council curtailed his policy. The companies, whose franchises were on the verge of expiration, had no desire to sink money in improvements, and as a result the service, already bad, became worse. In 1907, matters came to a head, and finally a new agreement was arrived at, by which the city's receipts from the transit companies were fixed at 55 per cent of the net receipts from operation, the city reserved the right to purchase at six months' notice, and the companies agreed to, and carried out extensive improvements.

1905.—**Convention of I. W. W.** See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD.

1909.—**Chicago Plan.**—**Systematizing the future development.**—"Early in 1906 the Merchants' Club, comprising a group of the younger business and professional men of the city, arranged for the preparation of a complete project for the future development of Chicago. The next year the Merchants' Club was merged with the Commercial Club under the name of the latter organization, and the city-planning work was continued under the auspices of that body." The resulting "Plan of Chicago" was reported in the course of the summer of 1909. "The report represents about thirty months' work by men whose thoughts for

years have dwelt upon the subject of city building and beautification. The work was in charge of Daniel H. Burnham, chief architect and director of works of the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893, who gave his services to his city without compensation for the purpose of this report. Even so, the expense of preparing and publishing the report has approximated \$75,000, all raised by voluntary subscriptions from the business men of Chicago."—G. C. Sikes, *New Chicago (Outlook, Aug. 28, 1909)*.—See also CITY PLANNING: United States: Progress in city planning.

1910-1911.—**Garment makers' strike.** See LABOR STRIKES AND BOYCOTTS: 1877-1911.

1910.—**Bureau of public efficiency.**—To supersede the Chicago commission on city expenditure, whose function it was to investigate city disbursements, a Chicago bureau of public efficiency was organized in 1910.

1911.—**Housing regulations.**—By certain provisions added to the Chicago housing code in 1911, all new buildings were to be inspected by the sanitary department prior to their occupancy; in constructing buildings, the defined minimum as to the size of rooms and the height of basement rooms had to be observed, and courts, free space and width of alleys had to comply with the regular measure.

1911.—**Billboard regulations.** See BILLBOARDS: Court decisions.

1911-1915.—**Carter Henry Harrison, Jr., Mayor.**

1912.—**Republican and Progressive conventions.** See U. S. A.: 1911-1912 (June); 1912: Formation of Progressive party; 1912: Election of 1912.

1913.—**City Club housing exhibition.**—**Art Institute.**—In connection with the city's studies of the housing problem, Chicago's City Club held a competitive exhibition at which some forty plans for a proposed new section in an outlying district of the city were presented. By the will of B. F. Ferguson the Art Institute of Chicago received a fund of over \$1,000,000, the income of which was to be devoted to the erection in parks and boulevards of monuments commemorating events and individuals. The *Fountain of the Lakes*, by Lorado Taft, dedicated on September 9, was the first production constructed from this fund.

1913.—**Police department reconstruction.**—By an ordinance, passed on December 30, 1912, the police department of Chicago was divided into two distinct bureaus, both subordinate to the general superintendent of police. One of these bureaus, the so-called active bureau, is under the supervision of the first deputy superintendent of police, who is a member of the police force, and has charge of the enforcement of laws and ordinances, the prevention of crime and apprehension of criminals, the assignments and distribution of the police force, and the regulation of street traffic. The second bureau, which is the clerical, mechanical and inspection division, is under the supervision of the second deputy superintendent of police, who is not a member of the police force, and is entrusted with the general care, custody and inspection of the property and records of the department, the instruction of members of the police force, the ascertaining and recording of their relative efficiency, the receiving of all complaints of citizens regarding the uniformed force, the censoring of moving pictures and other performances, and the supervision and enforcing of ordinances pertaining to all matters effecting public morals.

1914-1918.—**City Improvements**—**City telephone bureau.**—**Public markets.**—**Wilson Avenue water tunnel.**—In 1914, Chicago organized a

city telephone bureau to adjust complaints regarding rates, poor service, or prepayment requirements. In the same year, the first municipal markets, in charge of agents appointed by the markets commission, were opened in the congested districts of the city. Circulars, printed in English and foreign languages, informed the public of their location and advantages, and notified the truck farmers within a radius of twenty-five miles of the city that they could have a place reserved upon application. The work of constructing the Wilson avenue water-tunnel, begun in 1914, was completed on May 1, 1918. It extends for three miles under Lake Michigan and connects with a large concrete intake crib. This improvement increased the city's water supply by 300,000,000 gallons a day.

1915.—Thompson elected mayor.—In 1915 William Hale Thompson was elected mayor of the city, on the Republican ticket, with a plurality of 13,726.

1916.—University medical department.—Provisions were made for the establishment of a medical department at the University of Chicago with an endowment fund of almost \$8,000,000, appropriated partly by the General Education Board and the Rockefeller Foundation, and partly by the university itself. In the same year the university funds were increased by over a million dollars in benefactions.

1916 (June).—Republican and Progressive National conventions.—Platforms. See U. S. A.: 1916 (February-November).

1916-1917.—Recruiting for negro labor. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1909-1921.

1917-1919.—Limitation of home rule.—By a decision of the Illinois Supreme Court of 1917, granting to the state Public Utility Commission the power of regulating municipal utilities, Chicago's home rule was considerably impaired.

1917.—Chicago's new city council.—"In April Chicago held an important municipal election. Thirty-six aldermen were elected, or one more than half of the total number serving. There were several issues involved, but only one was 'city wide' and fundamental—this issue being 'Thompsonism vs. an independent and non-spoils city council.' On this issue the mayor, 'Big Bill' Thompson, suffered a decisive defeat. The new council is unmistakably anti-Thompson by a large majority. The city hall machine fought the best men in the council and sought to defeat them at the primaries or at the election. . . . Every fit alderman in the council is formally pledged to treat his office as non-partisan, and the fit constitute a majority. When the matter of organization—of committee assignments and the distribution of important chairmanships—came up, immediately after the election, a serious effort was made by the . . . mayor and his . . . henchmen to defeat the principle of non-partisan organization and put through a 'slate' satisfactory to the spoilsmen of both parties. The effort failed signally, . . . and the municipal voters' league won another notable victory for the established principle that the aldermanic office is wholly non-partisan."—V. S. Yarros, *Chicago's new city council* (*National Municipal Review*, v. 6, July, 1917, p. 514).

1918.—Trial of I. W. W. See INDUSTRIAL WORKERS OF THE WORLD: Recent tendencies.

1918-1919.—Crime Commission.—"To curb crimes of violence in the city of Chicago the Association Committee on Prevalence and Prevention of Crime recommended (1918) the formation of a body to be incorporated under the laws of the

State of Illinois, to be known as the Chicago Crime Commission. The commission to aid the present machinery of the law so to function that crimes of violence may be reduced to a minimum. This commission [under the guidance of the Association of Commerce, and serving without pay] has now been organized and incorporated [1919, with Edward W. Sims, former U. S. District Attorney, as president]. The commission employs investigators who ascertain the facts relating to major crimes within the city, and these facts are from time to time put into the hands of the Chief of Police, the Mayor of the city and other officials. But the activities of the organization are not confined to such work as this. It aims to do a constructive work for the city. . . . The following from the Commission's Bulletin No. 2, March 31, 1919, sets forth the first constructive enterprise of the organization: 'It is impossible to determine with accuracy the number of law violators, the charges under which they were arrested and convicted and the sentences imposed. It is this lack of records and proper identification which permits habitual and professional criminals to be placed on probation and parole, thereby contributing largely to the present disgraceful situation. With an adequate bureau engaged in the collection and collation of criminal records, with a record of the activities of police, prosecutors and judges available, it would be comparatively easy to cause the proper functioning of the machinery already created to combat crime and prevent miscarriages of justice through collusion, indifference or political intrigue. With this as the ultimate object, the Chicago Crime Commission has caused an exhaustive investigation and study to be made as to the provisions by statutes and ordinances touching reports and records of crimes and criminals. Having found such provisions inadequate, it has caused a bill to be prepared which is being presented to the General Assembly of Illinois [1919]'—R. H. Gault, *Chicago crime commission* (*Journal of American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, v. 10, May, 1919, pp. 9-10).—The bill to create a Bureau of Criminal Records, "when presented to the Fifty-first General Assembly of Illinois carried with it the approval of Governor Lowden and the Director of the Department of Public Welfare, Charles H. Thorne. . . . the bill passed the Senate and went to a third reading in the House, where it met with bitter opposition. . . . and died on the calendar."—H. B. Chamberlain, *Chicago Crime Commission* (*Journal of the American Institute of Crime and Criminology*, Nov., 1920, p. 388).

ALSO IN: W. L. Chenery, *Politics in Chicago* (*New Republic*, March 15, 1919).

1918-1919.—Municipal reconstruction plans.—"The war has intensified rather than dimmed the necessity for public improvements in Chicago. . . . The public health, ample means for helpful recreation, convenience of traffic in the streets, relief of the congested districts, and facilitation of railway terminal and food handling, which were of fundamental importance before the war, now became matters of absolute necessity. . . . Chicago is fortunate indeed in having a scientifically worked out plan that exactly fits the present emergency, and which will inure immeasurably to the health, happiness and financial prosperity of all the people."—*Reconstruction platform of the Chicago plan commission* (*American City*, Jan., 1919).—This plan was set forth in the "Reconstruction Platform" of the Chicago Plan commission, of December 6, 1918. It recommended railway terminal reconstruction, the extending, widen-

ing, and rebuilding of important roads, highways, and streets, utilization of the lake front for dumping grounds, bathing beaches, park lands, picnic grounds, and other recreation centers, and called for coöperation in the bridge program, the traction and housing question, the development of the drainage canal boulevards, and in the securing of a new city charter with wider powers.

1919.—Organization of Labor party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920.

1919.—Municipal reform measures.—“For several years Chicago's financial affairs have steadily grown worse. Conditions existing in December, 1917, prompted the city council to petition Governor Lowden to call a special session of the legislature to provide a remedy, to which the governor responded that he would do so when the council obtained the approval of some definite plan for legislation by the city's civic organizations. As an outgrowth of this suggestion, various civic bodies of Chicago did undertake to function in coöperation with the city council, not only with respect to revenue matters, but also in the formulation of a constructive program of legislative needs. The leading organizations participating in a joint conference were the association of commerce, the bureau of public efficiency, the Chicago real estate board, the civic federation, the city club, the citizens' association, and the woman's city club. Other organizations coöperating later in the movement included the Western Society of Engineers, the Chicago woman's club, the Cook County and estate board, the political equality league, the Chicago woman's aid, and the committee of one hundred. The study which these organizations made of the conditions developed the conclusion that political changes as well as changes of policy were required to correct the situation, and that in fact the former were fundamental. The conference committee of civic organizations therefore formulated and approved in principle the features of a legislative program for Chicago. A committee representing the conference acted with a special committee of the city council in putting the principal points of this program into the form of bills for presentation to the legislature. The result was four bills, of which the essential feature were as follows: (1) Non-partisan elections for aldermen, mayor, city clerk and city treasurer, so long as they shall remain elective by popular vote. (2) Reorganization of the council by reducing the number of aldermen from 70 to 35, one from each ward, all elected at the same time, for four-year terms, subject to a limited popular recall, thus reducing the number of elections (each city election eliminated means a saving of about \$700,000); this bill made the city clerk and city treasurer appointive by the city council; it also contained provisions calculated to insure that the city be immediately redistricted into wards of equal population. (3) Provision for a limited popular recall for mayor, after one year in office, on the same terms as for aldermen. (4) A manager form of government, the mayor to be chosen by the city council, and to hold office at its pleasure. While there was general agreement on these bills, some reservations were made. The association of commerce, speaking through its executive committee, withheld indorsement of the city manager plan and the recall. The civic federation conceded the recall (on condition that it be limited in nature) only in deference to the view of many other organizations that approval of a four-year term for aldermen could not be secured without such a provision, and through a desire not to hamper the general program. The city council, on the other

hand, indorsed only three of the bills, going on record as being opposed to the manager plan. It also recommended 50 wards instead of 35. In spite of the lack of complete unanimity upon the manager plan and the recall, the conference committee of civic organizations favored the passage of all four bills, because even if approved by the legislature they required approval by a city referendum, and the committee advocated the giving of an opportunity to the people of Chicago to express themselves on the issues involved. The bills, however, were subjected to considerable modification by the legislature. The non-partisan election bill was made applicable only to aldermen. The number of wards was increased to 50, and the number of aldermen reduced to that figure, providing for one from each ward. The recall and the manager plan failed of passage. The net gain of the program, therefore, is a council, reduced from 70 to 50 members, to be elected on a non-partisan ballot; but the bills embodying these provisions, as already stated, require ratification by a popular referendum. A subsidiary referendum is provided by which the voters may indicate whether they wish the aldermen elected for two or four years. A bill was also passed discontinuing all legal holidays now allowed on account of elections, except the holidays falling upon the biennial general state election day.”—*National Municipal Review*, v. 8, Aug., 1919, pp. 455-456.

1919 (April).—Thompson re-elected.—“William Hale Thompson was re-elected mayor of Chicago on April 1 with a plurality of 18,000. . . . It is surprising enough that Mayor Thompson should have gotten more votes than his opponents for the Republican nomination, Judge Olson and Capt. Charles E. Merriman together, at the primaries.”—*National Municipal Review*, May, 1919, p. 265.—“Judge Olson's . . . candidacy was doomed from its inception. Two arguments were advanced in his favor. One was that he was acceptable to the political machines. That sufficed to convince the dominant morning and afternoon papers which supported him energetically. The second argument was that somebody must defeat Mayor Thompson, who had ‘disgraced Chicago.’ [He refused to invite Joffre and the Allied mission to the metropolis of the Middle West, giving as his reason that Chicago was the ‘sixth German city.’] Neither argument was persuasive to the great mass of voters except that the indirect result was achieved of making Captain Merriman's success, without machine or newspaper support, seem improbable. To both the bosses and to the utility autocrats that was undoubtedly the most important issue. . . . The fact is that Mayor Thompson was renominated by his enemies. To their honor, it should be recorded, the press of all shades of opinion were against Mayor Thompson. But they were for Judge Olson on the sole ground that he was acceptable to the political leaders and they were for Robert M. Sweitzer, the successful Democratic nominee, who happens to be the brother-in-law of Roger C. Sullivan, utility magnate and long recognized as the dominant figure in the so-called Democratic party of Illinois. The fact that the newspapers were supporting candidates who made no pretense of their friendliness to utility companies which were seeking to raise fares and rates aided Mayor Thompson mightily. He was able to conceal his fealty to corporation control in a cloak of adroit demagoguery. But even more potent than this was the popular antagonism to the press due to wrongs of other years. On this dormant hostility Thomp-

son played with skill. The largest morning paper and the largest afternoon paper in Chicago have long term leases on school lands. These leases do not require revaluations from time to time as do other school leases. Consequently they have long been sources of criticism against the papers which benefit from the school lands. The episodes are, however, two decades old and they have no more relevance to the issues of the present mayor-ally campaign than would have the kidnapping of Charlie Ross. Nevertheless, Mayor Thompson made the school land question his chief issue. He convinced the people that the papers were against him because he was against the school land deal. Never did demagogue make a more irrelevant plea. But it won, and it will continue to win until these ancient issues are cleared up."—W. L. Chenery, *Politics in Chicago* (*New Republic*, March 15, 1919, pp. 213-214).

1919 (July).—Chicago Race Riots.—"On July 27, race rioting broke out in Chicago, starting at South Side bathing beaches and spreading into the heart of the so-called Black Belt [an area of over eight square miles, with a population of 125,000]. The trouble started with negroes wandering over the dividing line to the white section of the beach; the whites stoned them, and a general fight was precipitated. . . . A small army of policemen momentarily quelled the conflict, but both whites and blacks swarmed through the South Side Black Belt, and rioting spread through the district. . . . The South Side was terrorized. There were many street battles at night, begun by roving bands of blacks and whites, the negroes stormed an armory in an effort to obtain weapons and ammunition. On July 28 five negroes and nine whites were killed in a fierce fight. For more than five hours the battle raged between the two races, and between the policemen and the blacks, who fired from windows, roofs, and other points of vantage. The next day the fighting continued with unabated fury; a total of 28 killed and 500 injured was reported. Almost 5,000 troops under arms and the entire police force strove to check the fighters. . . . On July 30, five more deaths were reported. . . . The renewal of the outbreak caused Mayor Thompson to consent to martial law. The negroes had secured arms and barricaded themselves within their homes, while crowds of whites besieged the Black Belt. . . . On July 31 sporadic outbreaks continued, though 3,000 soldiers had the situation practically in hand.

Thirty-six incendiary fires were started, but the police forestalled a conspiracy to burn the whole Black Belt. . . . By Aug. 1 order had been restored by a military force of 6,000 men."—*Race riots in Washington and Chicago* (*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1919, pp. 453-454).

1919 (November).—Aldermanic election law ratified.—Main features.—"The law provides for nomination by petition, a non-partisan ballot and majority elections, with certain incidental improvements in election technique. It is the hope of the framers of the law that it will not only simplify and improve election methods and reduce election costs, but in some measure also untie the city government from the leading strings of partisan organizations and factions. The new election law was passed only after many years of effort, during which a considerable body of voters had been won over to the principle of non-partisanship in local elections. Since 1806 the Municipal Voters League has been impartially reviewing the records of candidates for the City Council, has been making non-partisan endorsements, and by persistent effort along these lines has helped to promote among the

electorate the habit of voting for fit candidates, irrespective of national party allegiance. The League also brought about and has been able to maintain, year after year, in the face of political opposition, a non-partisan organization of the City Council and its committees. There have also been in Chicago sporadic, and occasionally successful, citizens' movements to elect aldermanic candidates, running without party support on a 'non-partisan' platform. The idea of non-partisanship in voting at local elections is therefore not new to Chicago voters. The aldermanic election law ratified last November [1919], however, is the first recognition of this principle in law in Chicago. It provides a definite method of election without the aid of party machinery and without party designations upon the ballot. The outstanding features of the new election law are as follows: 1. It applies only to aldermen. The Mayor, the City Clerk and the City Treasurer were exempted from its provisions by a compromise which was made to insure the passage of the bill. It is hoped that a successful demonstration of the law in aldermanic elections will result in subsequent legislation bringing these officials under the new system. 2. It provides for nomination by petition instead of by party primaries as heretofore. Petitions must contain the names of not less than 2 per cent. and of not more than 5 per cent. of the voters of the ward voting at the last aldermanic election. 3. Candidates receiving a majority vote at the election are declared elected. If no candidate should receive a majority vote, however, the two candidates receiving the greatest number of votes, respectively, stand for a supplementary election. Majority elections are therefore insured, and at the same time worthwhile economies will undoubtedly be effected in many wards by the elimination of one election. 4. There will be no party columns, circles or other designations on the ballot. The names of candidates are to be rotated by precincts so that each name will appear at the top of the ballot in an equal number of precincts. It was no small accomplishment for the framers of this legislation to break through the adverse psychology of a State Legislature elected on partisan lines, and to obtain the passage of the bill, for similar bills had received scant consideration at previous sessions of the Legislature."—D. L. Akers, *Chicago moves toward non-partisanship* (*The American City*, v. 22, no. 2, Feb., 1920, p. 119).

1919-1920.—Conventions of American Labor party. See LABOR PARTIES: 1918-1920.

1920.—Cheap transportation. See MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT: Transportation and health.

1920 (February).—Election on non-partisan basis.—"Chicago's first non-partisan election was held (Feb. 24) . . . twenty-six aldermen were elected outright. In nine wards supplementary elections are required on April 6th, with two high men in each ward at to-day's voting the candidates. The majorities registered for the twenty winning candidates mean a net saving to the city of more than \$100,000 because of the elimination of the supplementary elections in the twenty-six wards. . . . Twenty of the twenty-six aldermanic winners carried the indorsement of the Municipal Voters League . . . only two who won were opposed by the league. The first tryout of the non-partisan law seems to have been satisfactory to citizens."—*New York Times*, Feb. 25, 1920.

1920-1921.—Poor relief. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

1920 (September).—1922 (February).—Libel suit brought against Chicago Tribune by the

city.—“The suit, filed in Circuit Court in September, 1920, after the bitter Illinois Republican primary campaign of that year, asks damages of \$10,000,000, alleging that published charges against the financial part of Mayor William Hale Thompson's administration had impaired the city's credit and hampered the conduct of municipal business. A similar suit has been filed against the Chicago *Daily News*. In each instance the city sued in its corporate capacity.”—*New York Times*, Sept. 15, 1921.—One of the chief issues in the case of the City vs. *The Chicago Tribune* called for hearing Sept. 22, 1921, is whether a city or other municipal corporation may sue a newspaper for libel, alleging damages approximating the value of the entire establishment of the latter. Up to February, 1922, no decision had been rendered.

1922.—Law Enforcement Commissioner appointed.—“The Rev. John H. Williamson, pastor of a Methodist Episcopal Church, became Law Enforcement Commissioner of Chicago to-night, with supreme powers in caring for the city's moral welfare. His appointment to the post, especially created by Mayor William Hale Thompson at the request of reform and religious organizations, was announced to-day [Feb. 9] by the Mayor, and Mr. Williamson resigned as pastor of his church and formally accepted the new position.”—*New York Times*, Feb. 10, 1922.

Labor education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: Worker's education: United States.

Protective agency for women and children. See LEGAL AID: United States: Historical retrospect. CHICAGO ACADEMY OF FINE ARTS. See ART INSTITUTE, CHICAGO.

CHICAGO AND NORTHWESTERN RAILWAY: Growth in mileage. See RAILROADS: 1870-1910.

CHICAGO - MISSOURI - PACIFIC RAILWAY: Plan for consolidation. See RAILROADS: 1921: Twenty rail systems proposed.

CHICAGO UNIVERSITY. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: United States: Beginning of commercial education; EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: United States: Junior college: UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES: 1800-1892.

CHICASAS. See LOUISIANA: 1719-1750, MUSKHOGEAN, or MASKOKI FAMILY.

CHICHESTER, Sir Edward (1849-1906), British naval commander; 1863, joined the navy; 1898, sent to Manila Bay; 1904, became admiral-superintendent at Gibraltar. See U. S. A.: 1898 (May-August).

CHICHIMECS. See MEXICO: Aboriginal peoples; 1325-1502.

CHICKAHOMINY, a river in Virginia, forty miles southeast of Richmond, about which were fought several important engagements of the Civil War in the peninsular campaigns of 1862 and 1864.

See U. S. A.: 1862 (May: Virginia): Peninsular campaign: Battle of Williamsburg; 1862 (May: Virginia): Peninsular campaign: Fair Oaks; 1862 (June: Virginia); 1862 (June-July: Virginia); 1864 (May-June: Virginia): Grant's movement upon Richmond.

CHICKAMAUGA, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1863 (August-September: Tennessee).

CHICKASAWS, American aborigines, one of the Five Civilized Tribes, occupying a region of western Oklahoma. See LOUISIANA: 1719-1750; OKLAHOMA: 1830-1844; 1844-1856; 1860-1865; INDIANS, AMERICAN: 1893-1899; 1920: Facts on Oklahoma Indians.

CHICKERING, Jonas (1797-1853), American piano manufacturer. See INVENTIONS: 19th century: PIANO.

CHICORA, the name given to the region of South Carolina by its Spanish discoverers. See AMERICA: 1510-1525.

CHIEF JUSTICIARY: Disappearance of office. See COMMON LAW: 1265.

CH'EN LUNG. See K'EN-LUNG.

CHIH-LI, Metropolitan province of China, in which Peking is situated. During the Boxer uprising it was the scene of much strife. See CHINA: 1900.

CHIH-LI GROUP, China. See CHINA: 1920: Leading parties; Failure of victorious generals to unite China.

CHIHUAHUA, a Mexican state on the northern border, fronting on the United States (see MEXICO: Map). It was formerly a part of Nueva Viscaya, but was separated in 1823; the inhabitants have taken part in many of the uprisings in Mexico, and in 1862 supported Juárez. The rich silver mines near its capital, Chihuahua, have made that city a prosperous one, and brought in American interests. Population, about 424,000 (in 1912); the capital, of the same name, has an estimated population of 40,000.

1910.—Revolt. See MEXICO: 1910-1913.

CHIKAMATSU MONZAEMON (1653-1724), Japanese playwright. See JAPANESE LITERATURE: 704-1868.

CHIK WANGUE or Kwanga, bread of the natives in the Congo. See BELGIAN CONGO: 1903-1905.

CHILD, Sir Josiah (1603-1699), English economist and merchant, shareholder and subsequently director, deputy-governor and governor of the East India Company. His “Brief Observations Concerning Trade and the Interest of Money” and “A New Discourse of Trade” are important contributions to the literature of economics. He adhered to the doctrine of the balance of trade, making the reservation that a people cannot always sell to foreigners without buying from them, and denying the detrimental effects of the export of metals.

CHILD LABOR. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION.

CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION

Introduction.—“From the ‘Statute of Labourers’ of Edward III to the Keating-Owens act there may be traced the relatively steady development of an ideal. It seems a far stretch from the act of Henry IV. in the year 1405, providing that attendance at school may exempt a child from the penalties of the law requiring all children of the non-landholding classes to be regularly employed, to the modern provisions that all children must remain under educational influences until physical maturity is reached. But the way is

marked very definitely by the great statutes of Henry and Elizabeth, by the Massachusetts law of 1642, by the early attempts of the states to control the labor of children, and by the epoch-making battles of the nineteenth century in support of free schools with compulsory attendance thereon. In this period the conception of government has changed utterly among English speaking people; ideals as to the child's relations to industry and to education have almost exactly reversed themselves; yet there remains constant

the principle that the welfare of the state demands a citizenship with established habits of industry and thrift; that it is the duty of the state to require the formation of such habits; and that to secure these ends a certain degree of public control of young children in regard to their labor and training is essential."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, p. 258.—See also CHARITIES.

14th-16th Century.—Beginning of child labor legislation in England.—The first realization of the need for child welfare legislation was in England, where a law which might come under this head was passed even before the close of the Middle Ages. In fact, "the fundamental conceptions of government forming the basis of our modern laws of child control are very old, reaching back . . . to customs and laws prevailing in England in the fourteenth century [when], as now, labor was being drawn from the country to the town, tempted by the higher wages commanded by the skilled craftsmen. The ranks of labor were greatly depleted at this time by the plague which swept away a considerable portion of the working population. As a check to the movement cityward, the landed gentry secured the passage of a law designed to control young children, requiring: 'That he or she, which use to labour at the Plough and Cart or other Labour or Service of Husbandry till they be of the Age of twelve years, that from thenceforth they shall abide at the same Labour, without being put to any Mystery or Handicraft.' It appears that about this time the schools, now abundant throughout England, were drawing an appreciable number of boys of the working classes away from the farms. The landholders were deeply concerned at this further depletion of the ranks of their toilers, and the Commons, in 1391, petitioned the king to require that 'for the safety and honor of the freemen of this realm,' no child of the villein class should be permitted to attend school. King Richard, happily, did not grant this request. The grievance persisted, however, and the matter came before his successor, Henry IV. Henry was unwilling to exclude children of humble parentage from school, yet he recognized the claims of the landholders and evidently shared the apprehensions of the Commons as to the movement to the towns. He therefore confirmed the legislation in control of children, requiring further that no parent not possessed of land or rent to the value of twenty shillings should apprentice his child to any craft or other labor within any city or borough in the realm, but should set him at some other employment. But to this severe regulation the far-sighted king or his advisers added a most significant alternative: 'Provided always, That every Man or Woman, of what Estate or Condition that he be, shall be free to set their Son or Daughter to take learning at any manner of School that pleaseth them within the Realm.'

"The significance of the closing paragraph of this statute is apparent. Compulsory employment of children, so characteristic of New England two and a half centuries later, was already clearly established. Now for the first time appears legal recognition of the right of the child, even of most humble birth, to such education as may be available. Further, attendance at school was made a legal alternative for the regular employment required by the older law. In the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, the laws intended to prevent vagabondage and to stabilize industry were further elaborated. The great statutes of Henry VIII, especially, must have been given careful consideration by the most expert lawyers of the time. Affecting

children specifically, was a provision giving local authorities power to take up all between the ages of five and thirteen years who might be found begging or in idleness, and to apprentice them to masters in husbandry or crafts, that they might be taught to gain their own livelihood when they should become of age."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory School Attendance and Child Labor*, pp. 7, 9, 11.

1597-1642.—Elizabethan legislation.—Early compulsory education law.—Effect of English legislation in colonies.—"In 1597 and 1601 the final steps were taken in the development of the poor law to the state in which it is found when compulsory education laws appear in the Massachusetts records. In these laws of Elizabeth still more definite provision was made for the compulsory support of the worthy poor, for the industrial training of children, and for apprenticing those whose parents were not able to maintain them. . . . The following year, 1642, marks the first great advance over English legislation in the control and instruction of children. The law of that year is one of the most famous bits of educational legislation in history. It sums up the English procedure regarding instruction of the children of the poor in productive industry, but, going further, extends the requirements to include all children; it enjoins upon the towns the duty of holding children steadily to their tasks; gives directions for dealing with delinquents; and for the first time in English history provides for the literary instruction of every child. This is strictly a compulsory education and child labor law. Its provisions concerning the labor of children were, of course, almost exactly the reverse of the modern conception of what such a law should be; it made no schooling requirements and provided no schools, but it made provisions for enforcement which were equalled by few if any of the schooling and labor laws prior to the twentieth century, and anticipated some of the principles of modern industrial education. To what extent the law of 1642 was enforced in those early years the records do not reveal. It is certain, however, that its machinery was capable of operation, and that in Massachusetts and later in Connecticut individuals were prosecuted for its violation."—*Ibid.*, pp. 13, 20-21.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 17th century: United States.

1771-1838.—Legislation for poor and deserted children in Ireland. See CHARITIES: Ireland: 1703-1838.

1791-1872.—French penal code.—House of Correction.—"Colonies Pénitenciaires."—"The beginning of legislation in France with relation to children dates back to the Penal Code of 1791, "in which the question of understanding in relation to criminal offences is expressly noted. Having regard to the fact that the Roman law is the basis of the Code, the old Law of France was inclined to follow the Civil Law in this matter, and attempted to mark out in sections a young person's life according to the degree of intelligence expected at various ages to a much finer extent than in English law. . . . The Penal Code of 1810 closely followed that of 1791, but unfortunately the 'house of correction' did not exist, and in order to comply with the law the departmental prison was called a house of correction for this purpose, and the result was that those who had and those who had no discernment were in the same building and slept in the same rooms, but the former were in prison and the latter in a 'house of correction.' The next movement was made by the law of the 5th of August, 1850, which had in view the reclaiming of the juvenile criminal and the making of a

useful citizen. 'Colonies pénitenciers' were founded often in the country where the child found a trade to his hands, and where he was out of contact with other criminals. From time to time changes have taken place. An inquiry into 'pénitenciers' was made in 1872 and improvements followed."—R. W. Holland, *Law relating to the child*, pp. xi, xii.

1802-1847.—Child labor legislation in England.—"As early as 1802, an act was passed in the British Parliament 'for the preservation of the health and morals of apprentices and others employed in cotton and other mills.' When the elder Sir Robert Peel, worthy pioneer of labor legislation, had secured the passage of the act of 1802 ameliorating in a limited sense the condition of child labor in cotton and woolen mills, the most pernicious features of the system disappeared for a time. The hours of work were by the requirements of this bill reduced to only twelve per day. They had been fifteen or sixteen. Public sentiment was so deeply stirred that the degrading custom of apprenticing the parish poor, half-witted children, and other incapables, to the mill owners, had also to be discontinued. . . . Gibbins who has faithfully chronicled that period, speaks also of the disastrous effects upon the women and grown-up girls, and goes on to write as follows of the deplorable system: 'A curious inversion of the proper order of things was seen in the domestic economy of the victims of this cheap labor system; for women and girls were superseding men in manufacturing labor, and in consequence, their husbands had often to attend, in a shiftless, slovenly fashion, to those household duties which mothers and daughters, hard at work in the factories, were unable to fulfill. Worse still, mothers and fathers in some cases lived upon the killing labor of their little children, by letting them out to hire to manufacturers, who found them cheaper than their parents.' . . . Champion after champion appeared before Parliament praying that the children of the State be defended. The manufacturers, panoplied in greed and gold, constituted a host difficult to gain ground from; but the righteous cause pressed on step by step. In 1815 Sir Robert Peel again urged the matter with such overwhelming arguments that Parliament was constrained to the appointment of a 'Committee of Inquiry' to investigate conditions and make honorable and fair report before the body. The issue of this investigation was the enactment, in 1819, of a law forbidding the employment of children under nine years of age in factories and limiting the hours of labor of those under sixteen to twelve a day, with one hour and a half taken from this for meals. In 1825 Sir John Cam Hobhouse secured the passage of a measure that went a step further, and, among other provisions, contained a requirement for abridging the hours of labor on Saturdays. The act of 1831 prohibited night work to all between the ages of nine and twenty-one—a most important point gained; moreover, it limited the hours of labor of all persons under eighteen years to twelve a day except on Saturdays, when the limit was nine hours. [See ENGLAND: 1832-1833.] But it was not until 1833, when Lord Ashley, afterward Earl of Shaftesbury, came to the front as the advocate of protective legislation for the working classes, that sufficiently stringent measures were taken to prevent the decay of England. [See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1801-1878.] During his long career, one statutory enactment after another was fought through Parliament, each bringing about some urgently needed modification as regards hours, conditions, and age of factory

operatives. . . . Since 1847 [and the Ten Hours Bill] no child under thirteen years of age has been allowed to work exceeding five to seven hours a day in English mills, and no person under eighteen exceeding ten hours."—L. B. Ellis, *Movement to restrict child labor* (Arena, Oct., 1902).

1813-1871.—Early school laws and labor legislation in the United States.—"To a surprising extent the American public school system, free everywhere and almost universally compulsory, rests upon the early laws to regulate the labor of poor children and to secure for them the elements of learning. In the later years of the eighteenth century, England discovered a new use for the children of this class. Those hitherto regarded as a burden upon society or upon their parents were found to have an appreciable money value as operators in the textile mills, where only dexterity and constant watchfulness were required. The story of England's shame in the exploitation of young children in her mills and factories is familiar. Not so well known is her splendid battle, first, for the relief and elementary education of her poor, then, for the gradual development of an educational plan, now rapidly rounding out into an adequate national system fairly well adapted to the needs of every child, free, and compulsory. . . . There was nothing new in the English system of apprenticing the children of the poor; it had been going on for four hundred years. The 'laudable custom' had been well established throughout the colonies. It was the new industrial condition which led to its serious abuse, and only time could reveal these evils. . . . Factories similar to those of England were being established in America. In the latter part of the eighteenth century, plans were under way in several states to utilize the labor of children. . . . With the restrictions upon imports arising from interrupted trade relations with England and ending with the close of the war of 1812, there came a rapid increase in the textile as well as other manufacturing industries [in which the labor of children was in demand]. Active boys and girls from eight to twelve years of age seem to have been especially sought after, though there is evidence that children even younger were employed. . . . It was clear that to avoid the lapse of a large portion of society into gross ignorance, working children must be schooled. Connecticut led in the legislative program, by enacting a law looking to the welfare of factory children and requiring that they be given instruction in the common branches. Col. David Humphreys, a philanthropic manufacturer . . . was the moving spirit in securing the law of 1813. . . . The chief requirements of the law are: (1) The management of factories to cause all children in their employ to be instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic. (2) Attention to be given to morals; regular attendance upon public worship required. (3) The selectmen of the town, or a committee appointed by them, required once a year 'carefully to examine, and to ascertain whether the requisitions of this act which relate to the instruction and the preservation of the morals of children employed as aforesaid, be duly observed.' (4) Penalty for violation on the part of the mill management, either discharge of the indentures in case of apprenticed children or a fine of not to exceed one hundred dollars, at the option of the Court. There seems to be no evidence that any attempt was made to enforce this law. It may be regarded merely as the registration of the wish of some of the more philanthropic manufacturers expressed in legislation. There is little reason to believe that there was, as yet, anything

like a general recognition of the dangers of employing young children during the time when society now agrees that the school should be given right of way. The law was permitted to remain upon the statute books until 1842, but its failure to provide either for schools or for adequate means of enforcement insured its ineffectiveness. Toward the close of the first quarter of the nineteenth century . . . Massachusetts was becoming aware that an industrial-educational problem had arisen. . . . The Assembly authorized an investigation; a committee was appointed which, after a partial investigation, evidently conducted by means of a questionnaire sent to the manufacturers themselves, submitted a report on June 16, 1825. The committee found that in some cases two or three months a year were allowed for schooling. This apparently was not usual, however, the report stating: 'It appears that the time of employment is generally twelve or thirteen hours each day, excepting the Sabbath, which leaves little opportunity for daily instruction.' The investigators did not believe their findings warranted action. . . . Apparently the committee was not impressed by the fact that young children were working for twelve and thirteen hours a day, nor did it discuss the effect that this early and prolonged labor might have on their health or on the health of future generations, though it did seem mildly concerned as to the intellectual status of those who might in their turn become proprietors of factories. In 1836 Massachusetts passed her first law designed both to limit the labor of young children and to provide for their education."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, pp. 30, 31, 33-37.—"But it was not until 1866 that this strong commonwealth was able to enact the first really effective measure, nor until 1894 that she could write upon her statute-books the law prohibiting children under thirteen years of age from being regularly employed in textile factories. Excellent limitations as to hours and provision for education are now embodied in her code, and today the Bay State stands a fair pattern for others in the Union in regard to this most important phase of protective legislation. Connecticut followed Massachusetts closely in throwing the State's protective arm around her children, New York and Pennsylvania pressing behind Connecticut, and others falling gradually into line."—F. Kelly, *American Journal of Sociology*, Nov., 1904, p. 16.—"In Rhode Island . . . in 1838 a bill was introduced requiring that no child under twelve years of age be permitted to work in any factory unless he had attended school for three months during the preceding year. After successful blocking for two years by the manufacturing interests, the bill became a law in January, 1840, but as no adequate provision was made for its enforcement, it was disregarded by all concerned. . . . In New York, as in Pennsylvania and Massachusetts, working men began to organize in the second and third decades of the century, and to demand better working conditions and shorter hours for their children. . . . Meanwhile education lagged and relatively large numbers of children were found to be growing up in ignorance. There was grave danger of an ignorant, debased factory class when once the neglected children of the mills came into maturity. . . . Two new forces [however] were developing which, . . . were to lead to state systems of free public schools; a growing democracy was expressing itself in a rapid extension of the suffrage; working men, newly enfranchised and learning to use their power, were demanding a measure of leisure for them-

selves and better educational opportunities for their children. These forces, guided and supported by men like James G. Carter, Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Horace Greeley, and a host of others, were able to put under way a shadowy kind of compulsory schooling for those young children whom necessity drove to the factories. . . . The school and labor laws enacted in Connecticut, Massachusetts and Rhode Island, weak, unenforceable, purposely shorn of features which might embarrass the employer, were forerunners of genuine compulsory education, adapted to the needs of all. . . . Since the time of James Carter and Horace Mann there has been constant agitation for legislation intended to restrain children from severe labor and to provide for their schooling. Many causes have contributed to delay adequate legislation. Some of them have already been indicated. Selfishness of employers and poverty of parents, unwilling to sacrifice their real or fancied interests to the social good, were for years relatively constant factors. Social inertia long rendered adequate laws impossible. A few men with vested interests could easily prevent legislation, could usually divert attention from the real issues. Progress was delayed, also, by the early enactment of spineless laws, which were widely copied in various states. The Michigan attendance law of 1871, copied without substantial change in half a dozen other states, and the Massachusetts act of 1852, the first general attendance law in America, are good examples. . . . In the earlier attendance laws liberal provision was made for exemption from the fixed penalties."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, pp. 41, 43-45, 235, 236.—See also EDUCATION: Modern: 18th century: United States, 19th century: United States: Evolution of public school system.

1866-1890.—Enforcement of child labor laws in the United States.—Organization of child labor bureaus.—Discouraging reports.—"In the inauguration of state enforcement of child labor laws leadership again falls to Massachusetts. The law of 1866 authorized the governor to prevent the illegal employment of children through the state constabulary. General H. K. Oliver, first charged with this duty, was able to accomplish little, yet his reports locate some of the problems of child labor, and his work and that of his successors throughout the state prepared the way for factory inspection inaugurated in 1877. Connecticut was a close second to Massachusetts in beginning a program of state enforcement. Her child labor law of 1869 directed the state board of education to carry out the provisions of the act. . . . Gradually the duties of the board of education have been increased and its powers extended until state control of young children in school and in employment is more complete in Connecticut than elsewhere in the United States. Of the other states included in this study [the states studied are Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin], Pennsylvania enacted her first child labor law in 1848, providing for state enforcing officers forty-one years later; Wisconsin, enacting her first measure to restrict the employment of children in 1877, provided in a limited way for state enforcement in 1885; New York secured her first protective legislation in 1886, at once establishing a system of factory inspection with statewide jurisdiction."—*Ibid.*, pp. 243, 244.—"The following are the states which have organized labor bureaus, with the dates of their organization: (1) Massachusetts, 1869; (2) Pennsylvania, 1872; (3) Ohio, 1877; (4) New Jersey, 1878; (5) Illinois, 1879; (6) New York, 1883; (7) Michigan,

1883; (8) Wisconsin, 1883; (9) Iowa, 1884; (10) Connecticut, 1885; (11) Indiana, 1879; (12) Missouri, 1883; (13) California, 1883; (14) Maryland, 1884; (15) Kansas, 1885; (16) Rhode Island, 1887; (17) Maine, 1887; (18) Colorado, 1887; (19) Minnesota, 1887; (20) North Carolina, 1887; (21) Nebraska, 1887. . . . Owing to the especial advantages possessed by the United States as a labor market, and the better condition of the laboring population in general, children were not employed in any considerable numbers until within comparatively recent years. As population has multiplied, and the crowding together of people in large cities has gone on, the employment of young children has largely increased. To trace this growth is, however, a much more difficult task than that offered in the case of England. There, the regulation of factories and labor was the single duty of the central government, while here it falls to the different State legislatures. As a consequence, while throughout England the laws are uniform, and but one set of statutes and reports, those of Parliament, which are easily accessible, have to be studied; here no two States have the same laws; only a comparatively few have any at all; and information must be obtained through the various bureaus of labor or the reports of their inspectors of factories and workshops. Many of these reports are difficult to obtain, as the small editions are soon exhausted, and only a few libraries possess complete sets of them. When found, they are often unsatisfactory and are confessedly unreliable. Each department is conducted in its own way. Some, with adequate means, are well organized, and their reports are of the greatest value, while others, with very limited resources, can do but feeble work. The law creating them has, in most cases, been inadequate and too timid. Almost all the reports complain that factory owners refuse with impunity to answer questions, fill up blanks or afford information of any kind, and that there is no law which can compel them to do so. This has been especially so in regard to Child-labor. . . . There thus remains but one available source for information in regard to the number of children employed prior to 1880, and their tendency to increase, viz., the United States censuses. Although not given in sufficient detail, yet they are by far the most available collections of statistics that can be obtained. . . . The Second Annual Report of the New York Labor Bureau, devoted entirely to an investigation of child-labor, was summed up as follows: 'My conclusions are, (1) The system of child-labor exists in the State in its worst form. (2) The compulsory education law is a dead letter. (3) The condition of laborers is of a low standard.' The Commissioner of Labor for Ohio in his report for 1887, page 9, says: 'My attention has been frequently called to the alarming growth of women and child-labor in gainful occupations. Children are crowded into workshops at twelve years of age; when they reach manhood, they are thrown out of work and their places filled with other boys.' The Inspector of Factories for New Jersey says, Second Annual Report, page 19: 'Our examination shows that there are thousands of children in the State who know no change but from the workshop to the bed and from the bed to the workshop.' . . . The legislation regulating the employment of children has been exceedingly various in the different States. Most of it is of comparatively recent date. Some few States have early seen the importance of regulating the employment of this class of labor, but the great majority of them have allowed it to go on uncontrolled. . . . From this slight sketch

it can be seen that the laws regulating the employment of young children are far from complete and satisfactory. What has been done, has been in the right direction, but in no single case have we approached the complete and well-working law of England. The greater number of the States have no laws regulating the employment of children (so far as I have been able to discover), except, possibly, some provision of a compulsory education law, which is practically a dead letter, so far as preventing the employment of children is concerned. Only eleven States forbid the employment of children under a certain age in all industries. Of these, three place the limit at the low age of ten, three at twelve, and five at thirteen years of age. Seven others forbid the employment of those under a certain age in mines. The provisions in regard to schooling and hours of labor vary widely. The really effective portions of these acts are those which unqualifiedly prohibit the employment of children under a certain age. It is evident that the other provisions are difficult of rigid enforcement, and evasions can easily be made, through the false statements of the employers and parents. Indeed, of these States with laws on their statute book, the great many, as admitted by their own labor reports, are largely inoperative. . . . A chief inspector should always be appointed, with a sufficient corps of assistants, and with large powers to enforce the execution of the law. It has been the universal experience of both England and this country that, where this has not been done, the law has proven useless [written in 1890]. . . . But eight States, Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Ohio, Wisconsin, Connecticut, Maine, and Rhode Island, possess inspectors of factories."—Wm. F. Willoughby, *Child labor*, v. 5, no. 2, Mar., 1890, pp. 25-27, 35, 38-40.

1873-1921.—Laws relating to regulation of child labor in agriculture in European countries, United States and Canada.—"In Europe, as in the western hemisphere, there are but few examples of direct legislation bearing on the labour of children in agriculture, either with respect to the age of admission to agricultural work, or in relation to other means of protection. The reason is not far to seek. . . . Since the main purpose of labour legislation in Europe is to protect the workers in industry, prohibition or limitation of the employment of children, as of adults, is usually related to special trades or processes; where a schedule of such trades exists, agriculture is automatically excluded. There are, however, labour laws which specifically exclude agriculture from the protection accorded to other industries. The Netherlands Labour Act of 1 November, 1919, for the regulation of hours is such a law. 'Agriculture, horticulture, forestry, and cattle-keeping' are excepted in Section 1 (1) from the occupations in which the hours of labour are regulated, and consequently the clause prohibiting all work to a child under 14 years of age who is attending school does not apply to children in agriculture. The specific inclusion, on the other hand, of the control of children's agricultural work in general labour laws calls for some consideration. The conditions governing child labour in agriculture are laid down in certain countries; the relevant sections are here summarised. . . .

"[In] Esthonia, [under the] Agricultural Labour Law, 13 May, 1921, (a) Children under 12 can only be employed on their parents' farms. (b) Children from 12 to 16 may only be employed on easy work or on herding cattle. (c) School chil-

dren cannot be employed except during the holidays.

"[In] Italy, [under the] Act regulating the Cultivation of Rice, 16 June, 1907. (a) Children under 14 may not be employed in the weeding (*mondatura*) of rice-fields. (b) Boys under 16 cannot be employed in weeding rice, except on presentation of a birth certificate. . . .

"[In] Switzerland, [Canton of Basel, under the] Basel City Act Respecting Hours of Work, 8 April, 1920. Children may not be employed under the age of 12 in any agricultural undertaking other than that of their parents; a limit of six hours' work a day during the whole period of compulsory school attendance and of two hours in the school term is imposed.

"Taking an example from this group of laws, we find that the protection of children engaged in farm-labour appears in a modified form as compared with the age-limit, control of hours, and safety regulations imposed for children in other occupations. In the Danish law . . . children who have not completed their compulsory school attendance are altogether prohibited from work in occupations subject to inspection; the Danish school law fixes that age at 14. The child in agriculture is permitted to work with machinery and without the safeguard of inspection four years earlier. This may be considered typical of the differentiation commonly practised between agricultural and industrial employment in Europe. . . . Austria, by the Child Labour Act of 19 December, 1918, and Czecho-Slovakia, by a very similar Act (17 July, 1919), prohibit the general employment of children under 12 years old. In both Acts this prohibition is modified in the case of agriculture, employment in 'light work in agriculture' being permitted from the age of 10. On Sundays and religious festivals children may not be employed save only for 'urgent agricultural operations necessary to save the crops, or for regular (agricultural) operations which cannot be postponed.' Only six hours' work may be required of the agricultural child on holidays; this may be contrasted with the restriction to four hours' employment of a child engaged in other occupations. . . . In Czecho-Slovakia, as in Austria, children may not work more than three hours on school-days. Agricultural employment for children is prohibited 'in general' for the two hours immediately preceding school, and an hour's leisure after school is compulsory. In Great Britain and Ireland, apart from the school attendance provisions in the Education Acts, the labour of children in agriculture is already controlled by legislation. In the Agricultural Gangs Act of 1867 it was laid down that the distance to which children might travel for work should be specified on every gang-master's licence; and it established 8 years as a statutory minimum age for children in agricultural gangs. The Agricultural Children's Act of 1873 (dealing generally with the education of agricultural children) raised the minimum age for employment in gangs to 10. In 1876 the Agricultural Children's Act was itself repealed by the Education Act, and the age of 10 was fixed as a general minimum age for employment. . . . The English law of school attendance has been amended and consolidated in the Education Act of 8 August, 1918, commonly known as the 'Fisher Act,' and the Education (Consolidation) Act of 21 August, 1921. (See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General Education: England: Fisher act.) The main lines of the policy of the Fisher Act are reproduced in the Education (Scotland) Act of

21 November, 1918. . . . It is laid down that no local education authority shall retain power to make by-laws for the exemption of children under 14 (the age-limit for compulsory school attendance). . . . Section 16 of the Norwegian education code embodied some restrictions applicable to the employment of children of school age. . . . No child of school age may be employed during school hours nor at such a time as would prevent his arriving 'sufficiently rested' in time for school. Neither may any child be employed in such a way as to prejudice his school preparation work. There is a remarkable variation in the maximum period fixed for exemptions allowed for agricultural work in different parts of Europe. Comparing eleven countries, which exempt specifically for employment in agriculture, the same limit appears twice only. The following limits are fixed in the legislation of these countries and are embodied in the exemptions which can be studied in table II summarising their education laws. The amount of employment in agriculture is more difficult to gauge in countries in which exemption from school attendance is not specifically granted for agricultural work, and it is difficult to see how there can be effective control of the employment of children in such work, so long as the school attendance period can be curtailed without a specific reason. An instance is provided in the case of Sweden, where no specific exemption for agricultural work can be granted."—*Agriculture (International Labour Review, Nov., 1921, pp. 402-407, 409-410).*

"The administration of a child labour law which regulates the employment of children in agriculture presents serious difficulties. . . . The natural result is that, for the most part, direct legislation regarding the agricultural employment of children has been avoided and reliance for their protection has been placed on the indirect application of other laws. Such direct legislation, however, is not entirely unknown, and may be cited, for example, in certain of the States of America. In twenty-seven of the forty-eight States the employment of children in any gainful occupation is definitely forbidden during school hours. . . . Also—a fact of primary importance and one which is typical of the advantage in protection which is given to children of urban, as compared with those of rural, districts—in eighteen States (including nine of those legislating against gainful employment in general as above) modifications are made in the child labour Acts such that, in their application to agriculture, the employment of children at farm labour is wholly or partially exempted from the prohibition. . . . One other way in which the control of children in agriculture may be effected by direct legislation is in the regulation of hours. But while always an outstanding feature of factory legislation, this method of regulating child labour on farms has to a perhaps surprising extent been disregarded, whilst in some States we find a definite exemption for child farm workers from the legal limitations as to hours of other occupations. . . . An example of a State where the hours of the employment of children in agriculture are legally regulated in a direct way is Nebraska. This State, while it does not prohibit children under the minimum age from working in agriculture, regulates the hours of employment for persons under 16 years of age in sugar-beet fields as follows: 'No person under the age of sixteen years shall be employed or suffered or permitted to work in any . . . beet field . . . more than forty-eight hours in any one week, nor

more than eight hours in any one day, nor before the hours of six o'clock in the morning, nor after the hour of eight o'clock in the evening.' Arkansas is the only State which includes agriculture in its child labour law restrictions on the same basis as industrial or commercial employment. It provides that no child under 14 may be employed in any remunerative occupation. . . .

"In Canada, as in the United States of America, the legal regulation of working conditions rests largely with the Provincial Governments, as distinct from the Federal. In eight out of the nine Canadian Provinces, the minimum age of employment in factories and certain other branches of industry is fixed. In Alberta no child under 15 years may be employed in a factory. In British Columbia the limitation applies to boys under 14 and girls under 15 years (an exception is made here in the case of employment in canning fish, packing fruit, and work incidental thereto, but only during the time of fish runs and in fruit seasons). In Manitoba, New Brunswick, Ontario, Quebec, Saskatchewan, and Nova Scotia the minimum age of industrial employment is 14 years; in Nova Scotia an exception is made in the gathering and preparation . . . of fruits and vegetables for canning; in such case . . . hours are limited to eight in one day and four on Saturday. The Industrial Establishments Act of Quebec requires that no child under 16 years of age may be employed in any industry, trade, or business, if he is unable to read and write readily. Quebec, Manitoba, and Saskatchewan require a certificate of age in the case of children under 16 years employed in industrial occupations, and in Ontario a home permit or employment certificate must be held by any child under 16 years of age who is employed by any person during the hours between 8 a.m. and 5 p.m. This provision of the Adolescent School Attendance Act applies to any employment and evidently includes agriculture. These are the Canadian laws which protect children in their employment, but, excepting in Ontario, they exercise no direct control in the case of agriculture. In Ontario the Factory, Shop, and Office Building Act as amended in 1919 makes some approach to the problem, in that it provides for the maintenance of certain standards in farm camps in which women and girls are employed. Such camps may be open only between the first of May and the first of November; women and girls may be employed not more than ten hours in one day, unless a different arrangement is made for the sole purpose of giving a shorter day's work on one day of the week; no women or girls may be employed for more than sixty hours in any one week."—*Ibid.*, Sept., 1921, pp. 154, 382, 383, 385, 389.

1874-1905.—Child labor laws in England.—Protection of children in Spain.—When the English Ten Hours bill of 1847 was followed by the Minimum Age bill of 1874, and "the excellent amendments of these in 1878 and 1891, the necessary bulwarks against national decadence might at last be called complete. . . . In 1874, the age for a full day's work was raised to fourteen years and stringent provisions made for the attendance at school between work periods. The measure of 1878 consolidated and amended all existing laws for the regulation of child labor and provided adequate means for their enforcement. By this measure the employment of children under ten years was totally prohibited, a limit that was in 1891 raised to eleven years. Greatly improved sanitation was also provided for in the 1878 enactment, and adequate safeguards against

accidents were set up. Periodic medical certificates were required from all operatives under sixteen years; employees were compelled to obtain weekly certificates proving the necessary school attendance, and a sufficient number of inspectors was demanded, to execute the provisions of this comprehensive act."—L. B. Ellis, *Movement to restrict child labor* (Arena, Oct., 1902.)

"Spain, often spoken of as one of the most backward of the civilised countries of Europe, has as long ago as 1878 made provision for the protection of child life, but the object of such provision is clearly seen when the fact is noticed that the Minister of War is in most cases the person responsible for the promulgation of regulations and the carrying out of the law in this respect. Many of the laws of Spain are equal and in some respects superior to the English law in relation to the employment of children. It is only recently in England that the age of sixteen has been laid down as the minimum age at which persons are allowed in subterranean workings; but this has been the law in Spain since 1900. There is in Spain, however, provision made for cases where the law cannot be observed, whilst in England the law must be observed. The excellence of the Spanish laws, so far as they go, cannot be disputed, but in their administration they are extremely doubtful, as it is often found necessary, after the promulgation of the law, to issue further decrees from time to time, setting out the same specific enactments, with or without further explanation. Thus the law of the 13th March, 1900, which contains many of the provisions relating to the employment of children, is practically repeated in the decree of the Minister of War in March, 1902. . . . The minimum working age under the law of 13th March, 1900, is ten years, except where permission is granted for work to commence one year earlier by reason that the particular child is proficient in reading and writing. Between the ages of ten and fourteen the hours of labour are limited. In factories and purely industrial occupations six hours is the limit for the day's work, whilst the eight hours day is the maximum in offices and commercial life. Here again the *juntas* may allow an extension of these times where, through drought, water mills have been stopped and overtime is necessary, and in the case of factories having steam power any forced stoppage can be made up by increasing the hours of labour. . . . By the law of March, 1900, all children between the ages of ten and fourteen must be allowed two hours daily for primary and religious instruction. They must attend school for this purpose if there is a recognised school within a distance of two kilometres. Where there is no such school, any establishment in which more than twenty children are employed must provide its own school. If failure is made in this respect the Minister of War may, under a decree of 1902, establish such school. . . . By regulations issued in May, 1900, it is provided that the master is to concede one hour daily for primary education to all his work-people under eighteen years of age. If there is no properly equipped school within two kilometres, any establishment employing more than 150 persons must equip in such establishment a school under a competent master. In such school, reading, writing, the elements of Spanish grammar, the first four rules of arithmetic, and Christian doctrine must be taught. Groups of factories can join in providing schools and all schools are under the local authorities—Municipal and Provincial *Juntas*—who appoint local inspectors. The

inspectors report to the local authority; the local authority to the Governor of the Province; the Governor to the Rector of the University in the district, and this latter official compiles statistics for use of the Government. . . . No night work is allowed for children under the age of fourteen, and only in certain industries will persons between fourteen and eighteen be allowed to work at night. . . . The total amount of night work allowed per week by the law of March, 1900, is forty-eight hours, but this appears to have been increased to sixty-six by a decree of 1902. . . . Working in mines is restricted to persons over sixteen. 'Mines' includes mines, tunnels, and surface works where ordinary operations similar to those of mining are carried on. . . . Similar provision is made against persons under sixteen working at employments where inflammable or insubrious materials are used, and against such persons being engaged in cleaning machinery whilst in motion. . . . The moral protection of persons under sixteen and women under age is the provision that such persons shall not be engaged in printing works where books, pictures, or documents, not coming within the penal law and yet likely to injure the morals, are produced. . . .

"The first important laws for protection of children in Spain were promulgated on the 26th July, 1878, and the punishments for infractions of the law are there laid down. In addition, fines have been fixed for breaches of Factory laws. . . . By a decree of the Minister of War in March, 1902, a workman is defined as a person who works with pay or without, outside his own home. By the same decree rules for admission of minors to business are laid down. (1) Permission of the father, or in default, the mother, or where the child is brought up in a home, the permission of the director of the establishment in which the child had been *asilado* must be obtained. (2) His age must be proved by entry on the civil register (*i.e.*, by certificate of birth). (3) Proof must be forthcoming that the class of work to which the minor is going is not above his strength. (4) and that the person is free from any infectious or contagious disease. This is proved by a medical certificate. This brief *résumé* of the Laws of Spain as they affect children illustrates the position in the southern countries of Europe."—R. W. Holland, *Law relating to the child*, pp. vi-viii.

1874-1918.—**Employment of children under Swiss Factory Act.**—"One of the most valuable of the new constitutional articles introduced at the revision of 1874 was that conferring upon the federation power to enact uniform laws with regard to the employment of children in factories, the length of the working day of adults therein, and the protection of laborers engaged in unsanitary and dangerous manufactures. . . . Under the authority of Article 34, a comprehensive factory act was passed early in 1877, and ratified by a small majority of the popular vote at the referendum held October 21 of that year. So important are its provisions regarding the labor of women and children, the length of the working day, night work, Sunday work, etc., that this law justly deserves to be called 'the Swiss factory worker's Magna Charta.' . . . Women and children under eighteen may not be used for night or Sunday work. . . . In all cases, even where two shifts of workers are employed, women and children under eighteen must be given a night's rest of at least eleven continuous hours. . . . Children under fourteen may not be employed in factories, nor may those above that age who are legally obligated to attend school daily. In the

case of children under sixteen the time spent in school, in receiving religious instruction, and in the factory, all combined, shall not exceed ten hours per day."—R. C. Brooks, *Government and politics of Switzerland*, pp. 236-238.

1876-1909.—**Legislation in Hungary.—Infant protection.—Infant homes.**—"In 1876, the [Hungarian] State itself began to undertake the maintenance of Homes for Infant Children. . . . From this time forward the State provided for infant protection with increased activity. A great influence was exerted on the legislative settlement of this cause by the Infant Homes Exhibition arranged in 1889 at Budapest, the variety of which convinced everybody of the success hitherto attained by the cause of infant protection, and at the same time of its importance for the whole country. . . . Under such circumstances neither the State nor the Legislature could delay any longer the legislative settlement of infant protection. Count Albin Csáky, at that time Minister of Public Instruction, prepared the Bill which, as Act XV of 1890 on Infant Protection, received sanction on April 28, 1891. . . .

"According to the Act of 1890, the object of infant protection is to nurse and take care of children from three to six years old, to perfect the fundamental work of education, to develop their physical skill, intellect and temperament suitably with their age, and to help forward thereby their physical, mental, and moral development. There is no place in Infant Homes for the tuition assigned to the elementary schools; but, on the other hand, it is a work of first importance to facilitate the task of Hungarian-speaking schools existing in provinces where other idioms are spoken in appropriating the Hungarian tongue, and to help on their general culture by these means. . . . There are for this purpose—(1) Infant Homes under the management of qualified mistresses or masters. (2) Permanent Infant Asylums under the management of qualified persons. (3) So-called Summer Asylums for Infants. Where any of the above-named institutions exist, every parent is obliged to send his or her children from the ages of three to six, of whom proper care cannot be taken at home, to the existing Infant Home, under penalty of a small fine. The conditions as to what may be understood by proper care are defined in the regulations for carrying out the Act. . . . The obligation to establish Infant Homes . . . [is imposed upon] (1) *a.* Every municipality with autonomous rights. *b.* Every county town regardless of the taxes paid, and every community in which contribution to the revenue exceeds 30,000 crowns; and if in such community there is no Infant Home; or if the number of children uncared for is above 40 for whom there is no accommodation in an existing Home. (2) Permanent Infant Homes must be established in communities in which the tax is between 20,000 and 30,000 crowns, and if there are not less than 40 children uncared for. (3) Summer Infant Asylums must be established in every community, finally, whose tax does not exceed 20,000 crowns, and where there are not more than 15 children uncared for, if for this purpose the resources of the community are not adequate, it is allowed to impose a supplementary tax of 3 per cent. on the State tax. The State may employ for the maintenance of its own Infant Homes this tax of 3 per cent. in so far as it has not been already taken up for Infant Homes by the community. Furthermore the law provides that where there is no other Infant Home, infants must be received into sectarian,

association, or private homes without regard to religion or language. The Infant Home work usually lasts for three hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon. It is a rule that the children should not be all together except in the round games. Occupations for the development of the intellect must, as a rule, be taken at the beginning of the day's work. To form the mind and character (temperament) the games and conversation, fairy tales, stories, learning poetry, singing, and, further, manual occupations, are important. Instructions in relation to these differ from the Froebel system, in so far as they do not excessively hinder the exercise of the child's will, do not overcharge the child's mind by forcing all its capacities, but leave a wider scope for the child's freedom, while protecting him from excessive demands upon his physical and mental powers.

"Infant Homes are usually established by the State, (a) where the work of larger State elementary schools requires to be facilitated by Infant Homes, chiefly in respect of the acquisition of the Hungarian language, or (b) where Infant Protection, or the reinforcement of the national power is required, chiefly with regard to economic circumstances; (c) finally, where the arrangement or neglected condition of the whole of the national education makes it absolutely necessary for the State to take into its own hands the management of the Infant Homes, or to give them a national direction."—P. A. Alden, *Hungary of today*, pp. 314-319.

1879-1921.—Advance in Child Labor restrictive legislation in the United States.—Lack of enforcement in many states.—"Between the years 1879 and 1909 the number of States regulating the employment of children in manufacturing industries jumped from 14 to 44. The figures for dangerous occupations were approximately the same. The more recent restrictions are in the fields of street trades and office, hotel, and theater employment. At first mining legislation developed almost as rapidly as manufacturing, but in the period from 1905 to 1910, the rate slackened, due perhaps to the fact that mines are geographically more limited than factories. For this reason, too, it was not necessary for all States to legislate on employment in mines. Up to 1889 only one State had any legal regulation of the employment of children in mercantile establishments. Since 1900, however, such legislation has developed rapidly.

Legislation governing the dangerous occupations has been steadily increasing in recent years. Of the many employments falling in this class, the most commonly legislated against has been the employment of children in street exhibitions for mendicant purposes. The prohibition of child labor in places where liquor is sold has not been as general as one would imagine. Such legislation would be superfluous now. One general observation is that once a State regulates the employment of children in a given occupation, it rarely recedes. A law apparently excellent can be all but choked to death by exemptions, and another law, apparently inferior but unhampered by a multitude of exemptions, can live a far more useful life. The chief exemptions are the following: Vacation times; outside of school hours; during specified seasons; orphans, children of widowed mothers or disabled parents; farm and domestic labor; labor on perishable goods; to make repairs; to shorten one day of the week; to make up for lost time; by special permit; physical condition; certain counties and cities of certain sizes. Throughout the statutes we con-

stantly come in contact with such exemptions as these, and it is well to consider their debilitating influence before judging the efficacy of the law. The age limits—the ages under which children may not work in certain occupations—have been raised gradually but steadily. During the years 1879 to 1889, the typical minimum age for legal employment in manufacturing industries was 10. During the next decade it was 12, and for the last two decades it has stood at 14, although recent legislative efforts have been made to raise it to 16. Before 1894, 12 was the typical age minimum in most occupations other than dangerous occupations, and since then 14. In dangerous occupations, as in some few others, the age limits frequently differ for boys and girls, and, as might naturally be expected, they have been higher than others, rising to 16, 18, and 21. Concerning hours, 10 a day and 60 a week seems to have been the average maximum in the early child-labor laws. From 1895 on, however, there can be noted a decided decrease. In 1909, 9 a day and 54 a week was the average. Since then there has been a strong and successful tendency to establish the 8-hour day and the 48-hour week—the general maximum of the present day [1921]."—M. E. Loughram, *Historical development of child labor legislation in the United States*, pp. 6-7.—Measured by the legislative advances by which child labor has been restricted and controlled in the various States, "an outline of the progress the American people are making in the protection of young children against injurious employments may be seen at a glance by the following schedules: (1) during eight [written in 1912] years six States passed their first law upon this subject: Arizona, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Oklahoma, and the District of Columbia. (2) The eight-hour day has been established in Arizona, Ohio, Illinois, California, Indiana, Nebraska, New York, Wisconsin, Colorado, Mississippi, Oklahoma, North Dakota, Kansas, Missouri, District of Columbia, and Washington (for females in most occupations). (3) Night work under sixteen years has been made illegal in Alabama, Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Vermont, Washington, and the District of Columbia. (4) A fourteen-year age limit as the minimum for employment in industry has been established in the following States: Arizona, California, Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Iowa, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Missouri, Maryland, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, North Dakota, New Jersey, Tennessee, West Virginia, Rhode Island, Kansas, and the District of Columbia. (5) Departments of factory inspection have been established in Alabama, Colorado, Delaware, Kansas, Louisiana, Maryland, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Texas, Tennessee, Virginia, and the District of Columbia. (6) Methods of proving the age of children seeking employment have been provided in Arizona, California, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Washington, Wisconsin, and the District of Columbia. Meantime, compulsory education laws have been enacted or improved in a large number of States. In order that no one may think this work is nearing its completion and that the public can reasonably rest, we must also consider a few principal defects. There are still five States which have not reached the fourteen-year age limit even for employment in factories. These States are

North Carolina, Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, South Carolina, Alabama, Florida, Maryland, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Carolina, and Virginia permit the employment of boys of twelve years in mines. Children under sixteen are still permitted to work at night in Arizona, Connecticut, Maine, Maryland, Montana, Nevada, New Hampshire, South Dakota, West Virginia, and Wyoming. There are thirty-four States in the Union in which children under sixteen years of age may work more than eight hours a day.

. . . In ten States there is no method of determining how old children are who seek work in our industries. Our agents have frequently found eight, nine, and ten-year-old boys applying for work in glass-factories or coal mines, upon affidavits certifying them to be fourteen or sixteen years of age. We must keep in mind the honor and dignity of our social institutions, and nothing is more fatal to the integrity of the American people than contempt for its own laws. . . . The States in which we do not require a proof of the child's age, or at least any proof worthy the name, are: Florida, Mississippi, Nevada, South Dakota, New Mexico, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Wyoming. It is necessary that the laws to which we have referred shall be enforced by public officials clothed with adequate authority. At present Arkansas, Florida, Nevada, North Carolina, Arizona, New Mexico, Mississippi, South Dakota, Virginia, Vermont, Idaho, North Dakota, and Wyoming have no department entrusted with this duty. The commissioner of labor in West Virginia says it is not his duty to enforce the law; while the factory inspector in Missouri has jurisdiction only in the large cities; in Louisiana, only in the parish of New Orleans; in Alabama, he is also required to visit jails and almshouses; and the governor of South Carolina last year [written in 1912] vetoed the appropriation made by the legislature for the two factory inspectors who, during two years, have assisted the commissioner of labor in laying the foundations of this branch of public service."—O. R. Lovejoy, *Child labor, Social service series*, pp. 24-29.

"Four standards already quite generally recognized by the individual states: (1) an age limit of fourteen years for employment in mills, canneries, workshops and factories; (2) a minimum work day of eight hours for children between fourteen and sixteen in such establishments; (3) the prohibition of work at night in such places on the part of children between these ages; and (4) an age limit of sixteen years for employment in mines and quarries. The power of Congress to regulate commerce among the states is invoked with the object of imposing these standards upon manufacturers and mine operators who ship their products from state to state—a provision virtually all-inclusive. For those who refuse to meet these requirements, suitable penalties in the form of fines or imprisonment are provided. At present twenty-seven of the states have the first standard already written in their laws without weakening exemptions, while seventeen others have adopted it in principle but permit a lower standard under certain conditions. Eighteen states rigidly require the second standard, while four others make exceptions. The third standard is widely recognized, as no fewer than thirty-three states insist upon this elementary provision for the protection of working children, and five others have adopted it with exemptions. The fourth standard affects only those states with mining or quarrying industries, and has been incorporated in the laws of twenty-two, three of these, however, authorizing depart-

ures from its observance. . . . The child labor laws of the several states may be things of beauty as they repose on the statute books, but they are certainly not joys forever because they are not enforced. A few years ago a model child labor law was drafted by the National Committee and endorsed by the United States Commissioners on Uniform Laws; in the exuberance of its new statehood Arizona actually swallowed it whole, but omitted to provide any means for its enforcement, and to this day the act is merely ornamental. An older commonwealth, indeed, North Carolina, one of the thirteen original states, still denies to its Commissioner of Labor the authority to compel obedience to even its wretchedly inadequate law. And these are only instances of widespread indifference. . . . Officers charged with child labor law enforcement in the most enlightened communities commonly complain that in many of the courts it is almost impossible to secure convictions for violation and that, when convicted, the defendant is either fined the minimum sum fixed by law or released under suspended sentence."—E. N. Clopper, *Enforcement of child labor laws (Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Jan., 1916, pp. 272, 274, 275)*.—In Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin "elaborate systems of state of child labor regulations are now [1921] in operation and, compared with the enforcement of the school attendance laws, fairly satisfactory results are obtained."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor laws*, p. 244.

1889-1900.—Child protection laws in France.—Italian law of 1890.—Child welfare in Norway.—"Although the legal status of the child has always been an important matter in France, yet the law which gave birth to the series of laws having for their object the protection of the child was the law of the 24th of July, 1889, 'sur la protection des enfants maltraités et moralement abandonnés.' Side by side with this law are others falling into three groups governing the labour and education, the protection from harm, and the reclaiming of the juvenile criminal. The law of the 7th December, 1874, relative to the protection of children employed in 'les professions ambulantes' was followed by the law of 2nd November, 1892, modified and completed by the law of 30th March, 1900, governing the working of infants, young girls and women in industrial establishments. These laws have been followed by another regulating the night work of children. . . . As in England private enterprise of the charitably inclined has accompanied and sometimes anticipated legislation. The law often works hand in hand with private initiative; thus the law of the 19th April, 1898, recognises private charitable institutions by authorising the juge d'instruction on the Tribunal de l'Enfant to remand a child, guilty under this law 'pour la répression des violences' of acts of cruelty, violence, or assault, or against whom such acts are committed, to charitable institutions."—R. W. Holland, *Law relating to the child*, pp. x-xi.

"The following is an epitome of the Italian law (of 1890) concerning minors: *Section 21*.—When a minor has been sentenced to one month's imprisonment, the judge may order him to expiate the sentence in his own house. *Section 53*.—He who, when he committed a crime, was still under nine years of age, shall not be proceeded against. . . . *Section 54*.—He who, when he committed the crime, was more than nine but less than fourteen years old, is not liable to prosecution, unless his discernment be proved. . . . *Section 391*.

—Whoever maltreats a member of his family or a child under twelve years of age is punished with hard labour for not less than three days nor more than thirty months. If the person maltreated be a son or a daughter, the penalty is from one to five years' hard labour. . . . *Section 386.*—Whoever abandons a child under twelve years of age . . . is liable to the punishment of hard labour from three to thirty months. . . . *Section 389.*—Whoever, having found a child under seven years of age forsaken or lost . . . omits to inform the Authorities or their officials at once, is liable to a fine from 5 to 100 lire. *Section 390.*—Whoever, abusing the means of correction or discipline, causes damage or danger to the health of a person under his authority, or entrusted to his care for the sake of education, treatment, or supervision, or for apprenticeship in a trade or profession, is liable to a punishment of from three days' to eighteen months' imprisonment."—R. W. Holland, *Laws relating to the child*, pp. xv-xvi.—See also CHARITIES: Italy: 1880-1900.

"Since the eighties of last century many bills have been introduced [in Norway] with the purpose in view, of improving the lot of [illegitimate] children, but the movement did not result in changes in existing laws until 1892, when the economic responsibility of the father was accentuated and the right of the child to inheritance from the mother was established. A proposal put forth at the same time regarding inheritance from the father was not then taken under consideration. In 1896, Norway established by law a council for the welfare of children, which aims at helping all neglected and mistreated children, those who are born outside of as well as those born in marriage. In 1905 the law was made more severe."—*Survey*, Oct. 9, 1920.

1889-1921.—**Factory inspection, and medical inspection of school children in the United States.**—**School certificates.**—**Working papers.**—**School age.**—"Under the theory that the parent was entitled to the economic service of his child, compulsory school attendance laws were long resisted. In many states the enactment of the first legislation of this character was possible only by including the provision that in case the labor of a child was necessary for the support of his parents he would be exempt from the penalties of the law. . . . [However,] as early as 1889 Massachusetts, in revising her attendance laws, omitted poverty as cause for exemption from their operation. . . . In enacting the first compulsory education law in America the General Court of Massachusetts Bay clearly had in mind the moral as well as the intellectual and economic welfare of children. Two hundred years later, when the descendants of these Puritan law-makers were fighting for compulsory school attendance and child labor laws in Massachusetts and Connecticut, their strongest argument was that children were growing up without proper opportunity to develop their moral natures and under conditions prejudicial to health. Relatively early, the more progressive states began to exclude children from occupations regarded as physically or morally dangerous. Later, factory inspectors were given authority to remove children from such employment as seemed unsuited to their strength; and, finally, the modern state provided that no minor should enter upon dangerous employment and that no child under sixteen should leave school to engage in any sort of labor exclusive of home duties and farming, without first submitting to a thorough medical examination and securing a physician's written assurance of physical fitness for

the specific tasks proposed. Several states have now provided for medical inspection of school children, usually authorizing school boards to establish such inspection at public expense and to require all children under their control to submit to periodic examinations. Massachusetts has taken the logical step in developing her system of free and compulsory education by requiring medical inspection in all public schools throughout the state. . . . The history of the development of the employment certificate is the history of effective child labor legislation. . . . The simple statement of school attendance, signed by a teacher and sworn to before a justice of the peace, as provided for in Massachusetts in 1848, was not intended to insure to the child the elements of an education, nor to keep him out of the factory. . . . Provisions for school attendance certificates little more effective than those of 1838 in Massachusetts were made by other states in the early stages of child labor legislation, as in Connecticut in 1842 and in New York in 1874. In Pennsylvania, not even this crude form was provided until 1889. . . . It is commonly agreed that under ideal conditions the certificate of employment should never be placed in the hands of the child but should be sent by mail directly to the employer from the office of issue; then, on termination of employment, it should be returned in the same manner to the office of issue. The experience of many years was required to develop this standard; that of Massachusetts may be regarded as typical. In this state it was found that employers were preserving age and schooling certificates after children presenting them had left their service. These papers were then assigned to other children who applied for work but who had no certificates. In 1890 a law was enacted making the certificate the property of the child and requiring that on leaving service it be returned to him. This did not prove satisfactory. . . . The next step, taken in Massachusetts in 1913, in some states earlier, was to require the employer to return the certificate, not to the child, but to the authorities issuing it. . . . Under ideal conditions the applicant for working papers must present a definite written promise of employment in which the character of the work proposed is stated. Here again Massachusetts led. As early as 1888 she required an employment ticket. This was nearly a quarter of a century before the practice became common. . . . There remains considerable variation in the educational requirements for working papers. The early laws merely provided that the child applying for employment, if under a certain age, must give evidence of having attended school for a minimum number of months, usually three, of the preceding twelve. As compulsory attendance laws developed, steadily advancing the minimum period of schooling the labor laws were kept in harmony with them, until in most of the northern states all children under fourteen years of age, under sixteen if not employed and if the elementary school course or its equivalent has not been completed, are required to attend school for the full session each year. In certain states, New York and Pennsylvania, for example, an examination as to ability to read and write was required in addition to the school attendance record, the former state still adhering to the plan. In Massachusetts, where the importance of the school record has been stressed, the minimum attainment in school is such knowledge of reading, spelling, and writing as is required for the completion of the sixth grade in the local public schools. In New York, where the examination

is stressed, the school record of the applicant for working papers must show that, if under fifteen, he has completed the elementary course of eight grades or its equivalent. Pennsylvania, long exceedingly lax in educational standards for working papers, now requires that the applicant, if under sixteen, must have completed the work of the sixth grade. In Wisconsin the applicant, if under seventeen, must have completed the sixth grade. In all the states here considered the young worker who has not finished the equivalent of the eighth grade of the elementary school passes automatically into the continuation school, except in Connecticut, where he must attend evening school, if one is established."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, pp. 236-241.

1899-1921.—**Juvenile courts in Europe and the United States.**—"Countries which have established juvenile courts [are]: England, Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Russia, Hungary, France, Belgium, Holland, Denmark and, finally, Switzerland. This movement had its inception in the United States where the first juvenile court in the world was established in 1899. Since that time practically every state in this country [United States] has established similar courts. . . . The laws of Belgium and Hungary make some provision for physical and mental tests of children, . . . as does also the bill for a children's code in Italy. In Munich the juvenile court has changed its name to the Child Welfare Court, and men and women representing the trade unions and other labor organizations have been added to the advisory committee of the court. The university has lent its assistants to conduct physical and mental examinations. The juvenile court judges are delivering lectures on the legal aspects of their work before parents' associations, teachers' meetings, labor organizations and other gatherings as a means of educating the people as to the importance of child welfare work and to bring about a greater degree of confidence and cooperation between the courts and the general masses. . . . Juvenile courts are to be established in Spain in those capitals of the provinces and main cities of the districts where there are institutions for the care of neglected and delinquent children, according to word received by the federal Children's Bureau. These courts consist of a judge, who is not necessarily a member of the bench, two advisory members appointed by the Committee for the Protection of Children, and a judge who acts as secretary of the court. The court has jurisdiction over all children under fifteen years of age. Its sessions must be held in a place and at a time different from the regular court sessions. Only probation officers and persons with special permits are allowed to attend sessions of the juvenile court, and newspapers are prohibited from publishing any information concerning cases of delinquency. In the Spanish courts no mental or physical tests are given, but considerable interest in this matter has been shown by the persons influential in securing the passage of the law, and a report on the methods in use in the best American courts has been made by Señor E. C. Calon."—*Child welfare* (*Survey*, v. 45, Nov. 13, 1920, pp. 250, 252).

A collection of reports on "Children's Courts in the United States," prepared for the International Prison Commission and edited by Samuel J. Barrows, Commissioner for the United States, was published in 1904 as House Document No. 701 of the 58th Congress, 2d Session. The following account of the origin of the now widely

established juvenile courts and of their development in the United States during the first four years of their existence, is derived from those reports. Commissioner Barrows opens his introduction to the collected reports with the following remarks: "If the question be asked, 'What is the most notable development in judicial principles and methods in the United States within the last five years?' the answer may unhesitatingly be, 'The introduction and establishment of juvenile courts.' Never perhaps has any judicial reform made such rapid progress. . . . This progress has been made not merely by changes in procedure or legal technique, nor by the introduction of a new method; it is most of all by the introduction of a new spirit and a new aim. . . . It must not be supposed that the juvenile court is only a smaller court for smaller offenders or simply a court holding separate sessions for such offenders; it represents an altogether different principle. The juvenile court is a life-saving institute in society. It is scarcely necessary to say that child-saving methods, institutions, and organizations have long flourished in the United States. The Northern States have regarded juvenile reformatories as a part of their correctional equipment, and the courts have served as vestibules for such institutions; but they have only been incidentally a part of the process. We have not before realized what the court might be and do before resorting to institutions. The children's court still maintains relations with the reform school, but it represents in itself active and vital forces and invokes a whole range of influence and motives which are personal and formative. It appeals to the reform school not as the first, but only as the last resort. The juvenile court has discovered that the child is a child, and, as judge Hurley says, 'The child should be treated as a child. Instead of reformation, the thought and idea in the judge's mind should always be formation. No child should be punished for the purpose of making an example of him.' . . . The methods of children's courts, or juvenile courts, as they are termed in some States, differ in different places. In some States the judge is detailed from some other court; in some courts but one judge is assigned to this work. In New York several judges from the court of special sessions act successively in turn as judges of the children's court. In Maryland and Indiana the judges of the children's courts exercise this function only, and it is claimed that it is better than the method of rotation, since the judge who confines himself to juvenile court cases becomes a specialist in this work. In Colorado Judge Lindsey is not only judge of the juvenile court, but also of the county court. He finds advantage in the fact that in his first capacity he can protect the child, while as judge of the county court he can also sentence the guardian or parent who is responsible for the child's delinquency. An essential feature of every juvenile court is the probation system and probation officers. Their duty is to investigate the case before trial, and, if the child is placed on probation, to exercise watchcare over them until the period of probation is closed. It is in this way that the parental care of the State is exerted."

The precise time and place of the origin of the juvenile court movement has for some time been a disputed point. It has been claimed that the city of Chicago and the legislature of Illinois have the honors of the origination of the Children's Court as a distinct creation of law. The Visitation and Aid Society of Chicago had been laboring since 1801 to secure various measures of advanced legislation bearing on child-saving, with-

out much success, until, as related in a report of that society, the Bar Association of Chicago took the matter in hand, in 1899, and appointed a committee to press it. This committee drafted what was perhaps the first juvenile court law ever planned distinctly to that end and secured its enactment by the legislature of the state. The law went into force on July 1, 1899. The court was soon opened, and Judge Tuthill, of the Circuit Court of Illinois, who presided in it from the first, has stated the principles of its constitution and action in these following words: "The basic principle of the law is this: That no child under 16 years of age shall be considered or be treated as a criminal; that a child under that age shall not be arrested, indicted, convicted, imprisoned, or punished as a criminal. It of course recognizes the fact that such children may do acts which in an older person would be crimes and be properly punishable by the state therefor, but it provides that a child under the age mentioned shall not be branded in the opening years of its life with an indelible stain of criminality, or be brought, even temporarily, into the companionship of men and women whose lives are low, vicious, and criminal. The law divides children into two classes, the 'dependent' and the 'delinquent.' A dependent child, in the language of the law, is a child—who for any reason is destitute or homeless or abandoned, or has not proper parental care or guardianship, or who habitually begs or receives alms, or who is found living in any house of ill fame or with any vicious or disreputable person, or whose home, by reason of neglect, cruelty, or depravity on the part of the parents, guardian, or other person in whose care it may be, is an unfit place for such a child." A "delinquent child" is defined to be—"any child under the age of 16 who violates any law of this State or any city or village ordinance, or who is incorrigible, or who knowingly associates with thieves, vicious, or immoral persons, or who is growing up in idleness or crime, or who knowingly frequents a house of ill fame, or who knowingly patronizes any policy shop or place where any gaming device is or shall be operated." The law places its enforcement upon the judges of the circuit court, who are required to select one of their number to perform these duties as a part of the judicial work of such judge. . . . The circuit court is a court of original and unlimited jurisdiction, the highest in the State, and the duty of holding the juvenile court was placed in the circuit court (which for convenience is designated the "juvenile court") as an indication by the legislature of the importance to the State of the work to be done. The case of each child brought into court, whether dependent or delinquent, becomes of record, and every step taken in the case is shown upon the court record." Interest in the Illinois law was awakened quickly in many parts of the country, and requests for copies of it, says Mr. Hurley in his historical sketch, "began to pour in from all directions. These requests were promptly answered and copies of the Juvenile Court Record, published by the Visitation and Aid Society, containing the necessary information, were sent to applicants. Agitation began in other States for a law similar to the one passed in Illinois, and those who helped to form the Illinois law were invited to visit other States to explain the measure and the method of administering the law in Cook County. The Illinois law proved so satisfactory that many judges throughout the country, not wishing to await the action of a legislature, established branches in their several courts for children cases only, and in the treat-

ment of the cases applied the probate and chancery powers of the court."

Colorado's claim to the honor of having originated the juvenile court movement is given in the following statement of Judge Ben B. Lindsey in his reply (dated November 22, 1920) to a query on the mooted point: "Briefly the history of the juvenile court is this: one of the first two laws passed, under which these courts were established, was the law of April 12, 1899, known as the Colorado school law, providing for the care of disorderly, immoral or criminal children. It was under this law of April 12, 1899, that I established the juvenile court here in Denver. Of course I added some 44 items of law to our code since that time, for the Juvenile Court is a growth. The other court is the Chicago Juvenile Court which was established under the law that went into effect on the first of June, 1899, with Judge Tuthill as the Judge. But Judge Tuthill had nothing to do with the drafting of a simple little law defining delinquency, under which the court was established. This law provided that for convenience the Circuit Court, in which children were tried for offenses, might be called the Juvenile Court. It was not, therefore, the establishment of a new court. Mrs. Lucy Flower and several other women of the Woman's Club of Chicago, who had been concerned about the great number of boys in the jails of Chicago, went to Judge Harvey Hurd, a distinguished lawyer of Chicago, and asked him if he could draw a bill that would take these children out of the criminal courts and provide for a somewhat different procedure for their trial. Judge Hurd thereupon drew up the delinquency law referred to that became effective in June, 1899, in Chicago. This, in brief, is the history of the beginnings of the first two juvenile courts in America—Denver and Chicago."

"Roughly speaking, the years up to 1904 may be called the pioneer stage. Personal factors were prominent. Miss Lathrop and the group in Chicago; Judge Lindsey of Denver; Judge Stubbs of Indianapolis; Mr. Bernard Flexner of Louisville; Mr. Homer Folks, Mr. and Mrs. Samuel June Barrows, Judge Deuel, and Father Kincaid of New York, and others stand out as dominating figures in this period. Juvenile courts were being started or advocated in many places, often hastily or on a wave of sentiment. The court was journalistically exploited as a panacea for childhood's ills, and children were dumped wholesale on the courts. In spite of the steady, strong growth of the Chicago court, Judge Lindsey set his seal upon this period. His lectures were of a character to stimulate the sort of interest which was back of the early courts. The reform of gangs, the honor system, 'snitching bees,' and recreation features, though not the real heart and secret of the success of the Denver court, were made prominent in the public eye because of their possibilities of picturesque; and such things, rather than sober considerations of social economy, influenced the early ideals of some courts. Thinking people have grown somewhat tired of this sort of exploitation. All credit is due to Judge Lindsey, however, for really valuable service in spreading ideas of the court faster than any one else did, and for his real accomplishment in Colorado."—T. D. Eliot, *Juvenile court and the community*, pp. 1-2.

"Juvenile-court laws have been enacted [up to 1921] throughout the United States with the exception of Connecticut, Maine, and Wyoming, and these three States have passed laws dealing with some of the problems usually included in the juvenile-court law itself. Connecticut provides for

detention homes, probation, juvenile reformatories, and separate hearings for first offenses of children, and further provides that in cities of 20,000 or more juvenile courts may be established by ordinance, to be held by a judge of the police or city court, provided such ordinance does not extend beyond the selection of a suitable court room; Maine makes special provisions for the probation of children under 16 and has established industrial schools; Wyoming defines delinquent, dependent, and neglected children and provides for State supervision of their care. . . . In a few States a special juvenile court is created for the larger cities or counties. This is the case in Alabama [see ALABAMA: 1886-1907: Child labor legislation], Colorado, Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Louisiana, Massachusetts, New York, Tennessee, and Virginia. A special court is established in the District of Columbia, and in Utah one is provided for each judicial district. In other districts of these States, and in all other States jurisdiction is vested in courts already existing, usually with the provision that such court may be called the juvenile court when acting under the juvenile-court law. Exclusive jurisdiction over juvenile cases is given to the special courts thus created and to designated courts in [thirty-four States]. . . . The qualifications of the judges for this special task are of such importance in attaining the purpose of the juvenile-court law that it is essential to give jurisdiction to a court in which high character and training are required for the judges. This can seldom be attained by vesting jurisdiction in police judges or justices of the peace, as is done in Connecticut, Delaware, Florida, Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, and in certain jurisdictions of Maryland, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia. Other States definitely provide that such courts shall not have jurisdiction and require the immediate transfer of juvenile cases that happen to be brought before them. . . . The juvenile court has likewise jurisdiction over cases of desertion and nonsupport in Alabama, the District of Columbia, Louisiana, New Jersey, West Virginia, and part of New York. In California, Maryland, Ohio, and Tennessee the court has jurisdiction in cases of abandonment or failure to provide for a child. In cities of 50,000 in Virginia, where a special juvenile and domestic relations court is established, this court has jurisdiction over cases of desertion and nonsupport. The juvenile court has jurisdiction over persons accused of offenses against children in Colorado, the district of Columbia, and Virginia. The juvenile court administers the 'mothers' aid' law in Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Iowa, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Montana, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Dakota, Tennessee, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin. The juvenile court has jurisdiction over the case of an adult violating the child-labor law in Delaware, the District of Columbia, Utah, and certain counties in New York; over the failure of a parent to comply with the compulsory school-attendance law in Idaho, Indiana, Kansas, Montana, and New Jersey; and in cases brought for the purpose of providing support and maintenance of children born out of wedlock in the District of Columbia. The judge of the juvenile court in Oregon has power to make a compromise with the putative father of an illegitimate child relative to the support of the child. Cases concerning the concealment of the birth of a child may be brought to the juvenile court in certain counties in New York. In Ohio the judge may give consent to the marriage of persons under legal age who are without

parents or legal guardians. Adults aiding the escape of a child from an institution in Delaware, or furnishing a minor in an institution with tobacco in certain counties in New York, are subject to the jurisdiction of the juvenile court. . . . Special detention homes, rooms, or schools are required for all counties in five States only—Arizona, California, Michigan, Missouri, and Pennsylvania—and for the larger cities or counties in nine others—Alabama, Colorado, Kentucky, Montana, Nevada, New York, Utah, Washington, and West Virginia. The law permits their establishment in all counties of Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Texas, Washington, and West Virginia, and in certain counties of Kansas, New York, Oregon, and South Dakota. In Florida and Utah the small counties may combine in the use of a detention home. The commissioners of the District of Columbia are required to provide a 'suitable place of detention.' In Idaho a 'suitable room in the county building or courthouse must be provided wherein the sheriff may safely keep such child.' In other States it is left to the discretion of the sheriff, police, or probation officer to place the child in a suitable place provided by the city or county authorities. . . . The public may be excluded from trials in the juvenile court in Alabama, California, Delaware, Georgia, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, North Carolina, Oregon, Rhode Island, Utah, and Washington. The law prohibits any publication of the case in the newspapers in Arkansas, Colorado, Nevada, New Hampshire, North Dakota, South Dakota, and West Virginia. It is unlawful in Colorado to take the photograph or to make a sketch of any child in court. The court record may be withheld from the public in Alabama, Georgia, Minnesota, New Jersey, New York, Rhode Island, Virginia, and Washington. The name of the child must not be given in the annual reports of the court in Arkansas, Colorado, Delaware, Idaho, Kentucky, Montana, Oklahoma, Washington, and West Virginia. . . . California and New Mexico are the only States that specifically provide by law for the appointment of a woman to hear cases of girls brought before the court. Colorado, Georgia, Mississippi, North Dakota, and Chautauqua County, N. Y., make provision for the appointment by the judge of other persons to hear cases. Rhode Island requires that a woman probation officer shall be present at all hearings of petitions concerning girls. The laws of Alabama, Idaho, Minnesota, Ohio, Virginia, and Chautauqua County, N. Y., provide that the court may require the child to be examined mentally and physically by a competent physician. In Illinois and New York a mental examination may be given; and in South Dakota there is provision for a physical examination. . . . The cases of both delinquent and dependent children may be disposed of by (1) dismissing; (2) continuing from time to time; (3) placing the child on probation, that is, leaving him in his home subject to the visitation of the probation officer; (4) appointing a guardian; (5) committing to an institution, agency, or organization. In the case of delinquent children, as has been pointed out, punishment may still be resorted to in a number of States. One State, namely Alabama, still allows a child to be bound out as an apprentice. These provisions will be summarized, first, with reference to delinquent, and second, with reference to dependent, children. . . . All States with the exception of Wyoming provide for the probation of juvenile

delinquents. The child may be allowed to remain at home or may be placed in a suitable family under the supervision of a probation officer. . . . Thirty-five States have provided for liberal construction of the juvenile-court law. In Alabama 'all proceedings shall be upon the theory that the child is a ward of the State and subject to the discipline and entitled to the protection which the court should give under the conditions disclosed.' [See ALABAMA: History of child labor.] A similar statement is contained in the Georgia statute and in the laws applying to Monroe, Ontario, and Chautauqua Counties, N. Y. In Mississippi the act shall be liberally construed, and wide discretion given all officers in carrying out its objects, with proper regard to the welfare of the child and to the public interest. In Illinois the act 'shall be liberally construed to the end that the care, custody, and discipline of the child may approximate that which should be given by its parents.' The provision is substantially the same in 31 other States.—*Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor (Legal series no. 5, 1920)*.—"The Massachusetts juvenile court [established in 1907] situation is very different from that which holds in most of the other states that have given thought to the development of good social work for children. There is but one juvenile court in the whole state of Massachusetts. This is the Boston Juvenile Court, created under special act and having jurisdiction over that section corresponding to the old city proper."—*Child welfare (Survey, Nov. 13, 1920)*.—See also PRISON REFORM: George Junior republic.

ALSO IN: G. B. Mangold, *Problems of child welfare*.—B. Flexner and R. N. Baldwin, *Juvenile courts and probation*.—S. Engel, *Elements of child protection*.

1901-1918.—**Protective legislation in Australia.**—"For the protection of child life, strict measures have been taken to prevent adulteration of foods, and to reduce the great waste of child life through infantile mortality. Of the latter measures, the chief are those which aim to secure a pure, clean milk supply. In all States special laws and regulations have been passed for the supervision of dairy farms and dairies, for the notification of infectious diseases among either the employees or the herd of the dairyman, and for the prevention of the sale of milk which is not fresh or wholesome, or which has been watered, adulterated, reduced, or changed in any respect by the addition of any substance or by the removal of cream. . . . These measures have been very successful in effecting their aim. The infant mortality rate for the Commonwealth has been reduced from 103 per 1,000 in 1901 to 68 per 1,000 in 1911. Within the metropolitan area of Sydney the rate has been reduced from 119 per 1,000 in 1902 to 73 per 1,000 in 1915, while it fell as low as 71 in 1911. . . . Care of the child is carried on into school life by a system of medical inspection. In the various States, medical officers, oculists, dentists and trained nurses are engaged, as officers of the respective education departments, in this task. Parents are informed of defects which are likely to prove detrimental to the physical and mental development of the children. . . . Each parent is notified of the child's condition and is urged, by circular or through public meetings, to have the defect remedied. The public interest does not cease with notification. Nurses are sent to the houses to second the doctor's words. Nor is the inability of the parent to meet his child's needs allowed to be an insuperable obstacle to the child's development. In New South Wales eye-glasses are sup-

plied by the State at a minimum quotation, dentists are sent to fill defective teeth, and in the more remote regions, where medical attention is difficult to procure, a traveling school hospital has been established. Better conditions in regard to the lighting and ventilation of schools are being provided in every State, and the whole policy secures the almost unanimous endorsement of the parents. . . . The care for child life, manifested in regard for health and in an extensive and co-ordinated educational curriculum, extends to dependent and delinquent children. No more interesting experiment in social reform has ever been attempted in Australia than the endeavor to take the orphans, the waifs and strays, and convert them into decent, useful citizens. Every state in the Commonwealth has made more or less provision for the care of neglected children or those who, because of their parentage or domestic disabilities, are in danger of becoming neglected and delinquent. This work is not carried out in state-controlled institutions alone. Widows and deserted wives are subsidized by the State to rear their own destitute children under the protection of the home, advice and assistance being rendered and efficiency guaranteed by the frequent visits of government inspectors and other men and women who have voluntarily and gratuitously undertaken this task. Motherly women, too, whose capacity and suitability are tested beforehand, are paid to act as foster-mothers, and perform their duty with rare fidelity and true motherly tenderness."—C. H. Northcott, *Australian social development*, pp. 172-175, 194.—See also AUSTRALIA: 1912; CHARITIES: Australasia.

1902-1920.—**Children under the law in Italy.**—**Act of 1902 on work of women and children.**—**Law of 1913.**—"An act on the work of women and children (1902) [provides that]: Children under twelve years cannot be employed in any factory (Sec. 1). For work underground, as in mines, galleries, quarries, etc., boys under thirteen years and women of any age cannot be employed (Sec. 1). For dangerous and unwholesome work, boys under fifteen and girls under age cannot be employed. A medical certificate certifying the good health and fitness for work is necessary in order that a child may be admitted to work. Children must have a 'service book' stating their name, age, profession, and when they have been vaccinated. Work by night is forbidden to boys under fifteen and girls under age (Sec. 5). Children of either sex up to fifteen years cannot be employed for more than eleven hours out of the twenty-four (Sec. 7). Work of children cannot last for more than six hours uninterruptedly, but must be interrupted for a rest of one or two hours (Sec. 8). Offenders are liable to a fine from 50 to 5,000 lire, and the proceeds of these fines shall be added to the fund for old age and invalidity.

"In a Regulation attached to the Act, and in two Schedules, all the unwholesome and dangerous professions are enumerated, and other provisions are given as to the application of the Act. . . . The problem of the criminality of minors has attracted the notice of many sociologists, especially because this phenomenon has lately had a decided tendency towards increasing: in fact, the juvenile offenders sentenced in Italy in the year 1890 were 30,000, and now they are more than 50,000 per annum. . . . [The law on these points is covered by the Code of Criminal Proceedings (1913)]: *Section 373.*—The trial shall always take place with closed doors whenever a minor under eighteen years stands accused. *Section 372.*—Any person apparently under eighteen years of age shall be

prevented from entering a Criminal Court. *Section 423.*—When a minor under eighteen years of age is sentenced for the first time to no more than one year's imprisonment, the judge may order the execution of the sentence to be stayed for the period of five years, subject to the offender's behaving well during that time—in which case he shall be pardoned."—R. W. Holland, *Law relating to the child*, pp. xvi-xvii.—See also CHARITIES: Italy: 1909-1921.

1903-1914.—Protective laws in Germany.—"The chief provisions of the law in Germany are to be found in the Trade Regulations and in the Law for the Protection of Children of the 30th March, 1903. . . . The school-leaving age of fourteen is the same as in England, and certain circumstances are laid down under which a child of thirteen may be released from school. In such cases he may not be employed in a factory for more than six hours per day. The daily period is raised, however, to ten hours for children between fourteen and sixteen years of age. Just as [the English] . . . Mines Regulations Act, 1911, provides for the keeping of an employment register in respect of juvenile employees, so the German law provides for such a book being kept by all employers employing persons under age. This book is open to the inspection of the civil authority, but it does not affect domestic servants and children employed in the home. By the law of 30th March, 1903, the hours of labour and the intervals for rest and refreshment are laid down. Further provision is made for cases of industries (as in Spain) where persons under age should not be employed for moral or hygienic reasons. . . . German law is rather deficient in the fact that penalties are not exacted from persons who endanger the development of the body, intellect or morality of persons under age. . . . The Criminal Code of Germany does provide against the offence of 'ejection' or abandonment or exposure of children. The punishment is three months' imprisonment for the 'ejection' of youthful persons or invalids by strangers, but six months is the minimum if the parent is responsible for the offence."—*Ibid.*, pp. ix-x.

1903-1920.—Child labor regulation in Great Britain.—Act regulating employment of children (1903).—Children Act (1908).—Provisions for juvenile courts.—Mines Regulation Act (1911).—Provision of Meals Act.—Problem of juvenile delinquency after the war.—An act "to make better provision for regulating the employment of children," became law in August, 1903. Most of the responsibility for a proper protective regulation of child labor was imposed by this enactment on the local authorities of the kingdom. Among its provisions were the following: "1. Any local authority may make byelaws—(i) prescribing for all children, or for boys and girls separately, and with respect to all occupations or to any specified occupation,—(a) the age below which employment is illegal; and (b) the hours between which employment is illegal; and (c) the number of daily and weekly hours beyond which employment is illegal; (ii) prohibiting absolutely or permitting, subject to conditions, the employment of children in any specified occupation.

"2. Any local authority may make byelaws with respect to street trading by persons under the age of sixteen. . . .

"3.—(i) A child shall not be employed between the hours of nine in the evening and six in the morning: Provided that any local authority may, by byelaw, vary these hours either generally or for any specified occupation. (ii) A child under

the age of eleven years shall not be employed in street trading. (iii) No child who is employed half-time under the Factory and Workshop Act, 1901, shall be employed in any other occupation. (iv) A child shall not be employed to lift, carry, or move anything so heavy as to be likely to cause injury to the child. (v) A child shall not be employed in any occupation likely to be injurious to his life, limb, health or education, regard being had to his physical condition. . . .

"4.—(i) A byelaw made under this Act shall not have any effect until confirmed by the Secretary of State, and shall not be so confirmed until at least thirty days after the local authority have published it in such manner as the Secretary of State may by general or special order direct. . . .

"13. In this Act—The expression 'child' means a person under the age of fourteen years: The expression 'guardian' used in reference to a child, includes any person who is liable to maintain or has the actual custody of the child: The expression 'employ' and 'employment,' used in reference to a child, include employment in any labour exercised by way of trade or for the purposes of gain, whether the trade be to the child or to any other person: . . . The expression 'street trading' includes the hawking of newspapers, matches, flowers, and other articles, playing, singing, or performing for profit, shoe-blacking, and any other like occupation carried on in streets or public places."

An Act entitled the Children Act, passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom in December, 1908, and which came into effect April 1, 1909, had such importance that it was described as "The Children's Charter." According to its full title it was "An Act to consolidate and amend the Law relating to the Protection of Children and Young Persons, Reformatory and Industrial Schools and Juvenile Offenders and otherwise to amend the Law with respect to Children and Young Persons." It gathered into one great enactment nearly everything in which the guardianship of law could be specially extended to them, except the matters of education and child labor, which are subjects of distinct legislation. It repealed wholly twenty-one previous enactments and amended more or less seventeen more. It contained 134 sections and filled a so-called Parliamentary "White Book" of 93 pages. As used in the Act, the word "child" means a person under 14 years; the expression "young person" means one above that age, but under sixteen. The Act is divided into six parts, which are concerned with the following main subjects: (1) Infant life protection. (2) The prevention of cruelty to children and young persons. (3) Juvenile smoking. (4) Reformatory and industrial schools. (5) Juvenile offenders. (6) Miscellaneous and general. The provisions for "infant life protection" have to do mainly with the supervision of "baby-farming." Foster parents are forbidden to insure the life of a nurse-child and insurance companies are forbidden to accept any such insurance. Juvenile smoking is dealt with very drastically, the penalties for selling cigarettes or the material for making them to persons under sixteen years of age being severe, and both policemen and park-keepers in uniform being empowered to take such materials from the persons of juvenile smokers. The part of the Act which relates to reformatory and industrial schools enables the courts to deal effectively with youthful offenders without subjecting them to the prison taint. Boys or girls between the ages of 12 and 16 who are convicted of offences punishable in the case of adults with penal servitude or imprisonment may be sent to

a certified reformatory school. In certain defined cases, children may be taken from depraved or drunken parents and consigned to a certified industrial school. In these cases the child may be brought before the court by any person in order that the provisions of the Act may be set in force. Parents who are unable to control their children may themselves take advantage of the Act, and in these cases the court may place the children under the supervision of a probation officer instead of sending them to an industrial school. In all cases of children who are liable to be consigned to an industrial school, there is given to the courts the alternative power of committing them to the care of relatives or other fit persons with or without the supervision of the probation officer. The most important part of the Act, perhaps, is that relating to juvenile offenders. It allows no young person under sixteen years of age to be sentenced to death. "Sentence of death," says this law, "shall not be pronounced on or recorded against a child or young person, but in lieu thereof the court shall sentence the child or young person to be detained during his Majesty's pleasure." Under it no child may be sentenced to imprisonment or penal servitude for any offence, or committed to prison in default of payment of a fine, damages, or costs. No young person may be sentenced to penal servitude for any offence, nor may he be sentenced to imprisonment or committed to prison in default of payment of a fine or costs, unless the court certifies that he is of so unruly a character or so depraved that it is not desirable to send him to a "place of detention" provided under the Act. These provisions relating to the substitution of "detention" for imprisonment did not come into force until January 1, 1910. This part of the Act makes elaborate arrangements for the treatment of youthful criminals, both before and after trial. Special "places of detention" were to be opened in all petty sessional divisions. Here children would be placed on arrest (if for some special reason they could not be released on a recognizance), or after being remanded or committed for trial. Here they may be kept in custody instead of being lodged in gaol if they are sentenced to terms of imprisonment of less than one month. Persons under 16 years of age must also be tried in special "juvenile courts," unless they are charged jointly with adult offenders. A "juvenile court" must sit "either in a different building or room from that in which the ordinary sittings of the court are held, or on different days or at different times from those at which the ordinary sittings are held." Only the court officials, those directly interested in the case, and the representatives of the press may be admitted to these courts, unless the special leave of the magistrate is obtained. Every effort is to be made, both before and after trial, to prevent the association of children with adult criminals. Finally, parents and guardians are to be required to attend the hearing of charges against their children or wards, and may be ordered to pay any fines, damages, or costs imposed. The miscellaneous provisions of the Act include a number of importance, to prevent the giving of intoxicating liquors to children, to exclude them from drinking places, to safeguard them at entertainments, and to make the Act applicable to Scotland and Ireland.

The Mines Regulation Act of 1911 provides for the keeping of an employment register of all juvenile employees. It also forbids the employment of children under sixteen years of age in any of the mines.

An order from the English local government

board on the subject of providing food for underfed school children was published on April 29, 1905. It applied only to children under sixteen who were neither blind, deaf or dumb, and who were living with a father not in receipt of relief. Application in each case must be made by school managers, or by a teacher empowered by the managers, or by an officer empowered by the education authorities. The relief might be granted in the ordinary way or as a loan, the father being allowed the opportunity of making the needful provision himself. If he failed to do so, the poor-law guardians were empowered to make it and to recover the cost as if it were a loan. In no case could the relief be given in money, or continued on a single application for more than a month. Where possible, arrangements should be made with local charitable organizations for the issue of tickets for meals. The above mentioned tentative order was followed, in the next year, by the passage of an act which authorizes any "local education authority" in England and Wales to "take such steps as they think fit for the provision of meals for children" at any public elementary school, and for that purpose to "associate with themselves any committee on which the authority are represented, who will undertake to provide food for those children." Such education authority may aid the committee by furnishing necessary land, buildings, furniture and apparatus, and necessary officers and servants; but, "save as hereinafter provided, the authority shall not incur any expense in respect to the purchase of food to be supplied at such meals."

"The Children's Act [1908], the Education Act [1918] and other recent measures added to the Statute Book have pointed the way to more scientific methods for dealing with children and youths manifesting criminal tendencies or lapsing into delinquency, and yet we are slow to advance. We have promise of an extension of Children's Courts with presence thereof of expert magistrates for dealing with cases brought before these courts, and much may be expected from such action. But the whole spirit and purpose of our system stand in need of revision."—*Child*, July, 1920.—See also LABOR ORGANIZATION: 1899-1918.

1904-1916.—Federal care for children in the United States.—Organization of the National Child Labor committee.—Establishment of the Children's Bureau.—"The National Child Labor Committee was organized April 15, 1904, and incorporated by Act of Congress, February 21, 1907. It owes its origin to the coming together of several men and women who, in different parts of the country, had been aroused by what they had seen of child labor in some of its worst forms, and to the publication of census figures showing the great extent of the evil. . . . The object of the Committee is to safeguard American childhood as affected by industrial and agricultural conditions. The enactment and enforcement of progressive legislation and the development of enlightened public opinion are essential features of the Committee's policy. The Committee's effort goes beyond legislation—it goes beyond prohibition to all practicable means and methods of prevention, some of which require legislation and some of which do not. The Committee is vitally interested in the whole problem of premature school-leaving. It is interested, as well, in the establishment of the substitutes for child labor, particularly suitable schooling, suitable play and suitable work—and in this both as a method and as a goal of child labor reform. Not an unoccupied but a well occupied childhood is its aim. . . . The legislative pro-

gram of the Committee is chiefly concerned with child labor laws, compulsory education laws, mothers' pension laws, and so-called Children's Codes. Items in the program may be listed as follows: Better child labor laws, better enforced; better school attendance laws, better enforced; better schools with stronger holding power of their own; vocational training, guidance, and placement; health supervision of the child in school and at work; physical examination of applicants for working papers; provision of public recreation facilities for children; children's scholarships, mothers' pensions, and other means of relieving and preventing poverty; all children under 16 in school on full time; all children between 16 and 18 in part-time or continuation schools if not attending school on full time. Throughout its existence the Committee has emphasized the necessity of efficient administration. In the last few years it has devoted much attention to the Children's Code, which represents the attempt, in a given state, to standardize and coordinate the laws and administrative agencies having to do with children and to supply laws and agencies covering aspects of child welfare that have been neglected in the statutes. The National Child Labor Committee from its inception has based its work on first hand knowledge gained through investigation of the particular phase of child labor under discussion. Such investigations were at first, of necessity, on a small scale, and devoted to a special issue. To-day the Committee has a large staff, at the service of any community desirous of discovering the truth about itself as regards child welfare in all its numerous . . . aspects. Several states have taken advantage of this service, and in cooperation with both public and private agencies, the Committee has made a number of state-wide child welfare studies. These surveys cover such subjects as Public Health, Education, Dependency, Juvenile delinquency, Institutions, Recreation, Child Labor, Agriculture, Rural Life, and Law and Administration."—*Report of National Child Labor Committee (American Child, Feb., 1921)*.

The Children's bureau was authorized by act of the Sixty-second Congress and approved April 9, 1912. It began operation August 23, 1912, when its appropriation of \$25,640 became available. The Act is as follows:

An Act "to establish in the department of labor a bureau to be known as the Children's Bureau: *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled*, That there shall be established in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Children's Bureau. . . . Sec. 2. That the said bureau shall be under the direction of a chief, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who shall receive an annual compensation of five thousand dollars. The said bureau shall investigate and report to said department upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people, and shall especially investigate the questions of infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, legislation affecting children in the several States and Territories." This bureau is the result of the belief, on the part of many individuals and associations interested in the protection and betterment of children, that the Federal Government should aid in that service, just as the various bureaus of the Department of Agriculture. The field of the Children's Bureau is now defined as "all matters pertaining to the wel-

fare of children and child life." It is obvious that the bureau is to be a center of information useful to all the children of America, to ascertain and to popularize just standards for their life and development. The act establishing the bureau gives no definition of the age at which childhood ends, nor have the states a uniform definition. For some purposes the age of tutelage continues until twenty-one, but taking the ordinary view of childhood there are in continental United States, according to the census of 1910, 31,220,361 children under sixteen years of age, or about one-third of the total population. This number may be divided into: (1) 12,666,762 under 6 years of age, of whom 2,217,342 were under 1 year; (2) 14,984,252 over 6 and under 14 years of age; and (3) 3,569,347 over 14 and under 16 years of age. The vast majority of these are children of average health and opportunity, but there is an unknown percentage of exceptional children, who suffer from handicaps of various kinds. Generally speaking, these may be divided into dependent, delinquent, and deficient children, and children working during the early years when the majority are protected in their right to education. While it is evidently the final purpose of the bureau to serve all children, to try to work out the standards of care and protection which shall give to every child his fair chance in the world, this purpose, in the minds of those who drafted the law, by no means overshadowed the needs of those unfortunate and handicapped children whose lack of adequate protection is indicated by the enumeration of subjects in the statute—infant mortality, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, etc. It is a matter of common experience that the greatest service to the health and education of normal children has been gained through efforts to aid those who were abnormal or sub-normal or suffering from physical or mental ills. For example, some of the greatest gains to educational method have been bestowed by teachers of defective children, whose work has had the direct result of furnishing many ingenious practical methods for quickening the minds of normal children; and the care of tuberculous children has made fresh air a recognized educational factor. Thus all service to the handicapped children of the community—an immediate service properly demanded by the popular conscience—also serves to aid in laying the foundations for the best service to all the children of the commonwealth. The work of the bureau is defined by law as that of investigating and reporting upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life. After serious consideration of the most useful point at which to begin the work, the subject of infant mortality was chosen, with its closely allied interests of child welfare in the home and in the community.—*Abstract of the fourth annual report of the chief of the Children's Bureau (1916)*.

1908-1914.—Progress in France—Compulsory education.—Children's courts.—Penal majority age.—"Mr. W. L. George, writing in 1908 of France in the twentieth century, says of the Frenchman—From childhood upwards he is overworked, and thrives under the burden; long hours and short holidays are willingly accepted by the people for their children. The law fixes 9½ hours (now 8 since 1912) as the legal working day in factories, a high limit. . . . Moreover the average is counted over six days, for the half-day has not yet entered into national customs. Indeed, up to four or five years ago no child had more than one half-holiday in every week. This is now changed, and the position of the child is becoming stronger. Up to the age of thirteen, education in

France is compulsory, and has reached the masses without any great difficulty. A problem that has always interested the French lawyer, who is naturally a student of philosophy and sociology, is the problem of juvenile criminality. The history of legislation in France on this aspect of law is the history of the whole law as to infancy, and it has culminated in the law of the 22d July, 1912, which came into force on the 4th March, 1914.

. . . The law of the 11th April, 1906, raised the 'penal majority' to eighteen years, and finally the erection of special Tribunaux has been brought about for children under thirteen and for those between thirteen and eighteen. . . . The main points are that children of either sex under thirteen years of age are not subject to punitive but rather to correctional jurisdiction. They are not tried before a criminal court, but the jurisdiction is civil in its nature, and the decisions of the Court are not inscribed 'au casier judiciaire.' The law of the 22d July, 1912 [contains the following provisions]: Article I.—When found guilty they may be placed in charge of a guardian, in an educational establishment, in a charitable institute of recognized public utility, or in a public institution, as best meets the case. Article II.—Trials are held in private, the only persons admitted being 'membres des comités de défense des enfants traduits en justice,' such members of charitable institutions taking charge of children as may be admitted by the court, and any person specially admitted.

. . . Article VI.—Special provision is also made for minors between thirteen and eighteen years of age who are guilty of infractions of the law. Such persons cannot be directly cited before the ordinary criminal courts, but may only be committed to such courts by an examining magistrate."—R. W. Holland, *Law relating to the child*, pp. xi-xiii.

1910.—Care of orphans in Belgium. See BELGIUM: 1792-1910.

1911-1919.—First steps at regulation of women's and children's labor in Japan and China.—Japanese factory law.—Preventive laws in Hong Kong.—The first factory law passed in 1911 [Japan] provides that "factory owners must not employ children below the age of twelve, but the administration authorities may allow children above ten years of age to work in factories for lighter kinds of work. Children below the age of fifteen and women must not be worked more than twelve hours a day. The minister of agriculture and commerce, however, may allow the extension of the hours to fourteen in certain industries for fifteen years following the enactment of this law. Again children below the age of fifteen and women shall not be employed in factories between 10 p. m. and 4 a. m., but this does not apply in the following cases: in industries whose nature necessitates immediate work; in industries which require night work as a necessity; in industries which require continuous operation. [When this law was passed, the manufacturers begged for a period of five years in which to adjust themselves to these reforms; in 1916, when the law was due to take effect, they again asked for a postponement. They were overruled, however, and the law went into effect June 1, 1916.]

The movement is spreading. "For the first time in the history of Hong-Kong, China, and that part of the far east generally, some attempt to regulate the employment of women and children and to prevent overcrowding in factories is being made.

. . . In a general way the regulations as to child labor presented for enactment as an ordinance by the legislative council of the colony—which un-

questionably will enact them—are far behind those obtaining in Great Britain or the United States. The proposed law merely provides that no child under 14 years of age shall be employed more than 10 hours, excluding meal times, in any one day except by special permit of the sanitary board; and prohibits the employment of children under 13 years of age in any factories or workshops likely to be injurious to life, limb, or health—regard being had to the individual physical condition of child so employed. Since only two holidays per lunar month are allowed, and no half-holidays are observed in Hong Kong, the weekly hours thus fixed are nearer to seventy than to the fifty-five which such a regulation would secure in Great Britain. In the matter of overcrowding, section 3 (1) of the factory and workshop act of the United Kingdom (1901) was adopted by the board. This provides that there shall be not less than 250 cubic feet of space in each room or subdivision of any factory or workshop for each person employed therein, and not less than 400 cubic feet for each person employed after 6 p. m. Under the regulation adopted the board will post a notice in English and Chinese in every factory and workshop, indicating the number of persons who may be employed in each room or subdivision. Practically all shops employing women and children in Hong Kong are already within the provisions of the new regulations, whose purpose is preventive rather than corrective."—U. S. Department of Commerce, *Report*, Aug. 15, 1919.

1914.—Legislation in force in Sweden.—Removal of restrictions in Germany.—"The chief laws and ordinances providing for the protection of children are the Care of Foster Children Act, the Education of Depraved and Morally Neglected Children Act, and the Poor Relief ordinance. From lack of space, only an abbreviated and compressed account can be given of the various forms assumed by the protection of children in Sweden. The following categories of children are contemplated by the above Acts: (1) parentless children, or those who lack relatives; (2) those whose parents are unknown; (3) those whose relatives cannot, or will not contribute to the protection or care of them; (4) those who in consequence of mental deficiency need some other attention than can be provided by individuals, homes, or schools; (5) and finally, children so morally degenerate as to require care at institutions specially adapted for them.

"The management of the work is undertaken by institutions that receive public encouragement and support from the State or commune, by associations wholly or partially privately financed, or thirdly by private persons who from philanthropic or other motives, devote their efforts to the work of protecting children."—J. Guinchard, ed., *Sweden, historical and statistical handbook*, pt. 1, *Land and People*, p. 771.

"Upon the outbreak of the war the [German] Government enacted the 'war emergency law' of August 4, 1914, which authorized the granting of exemptions from many provisions of the labor laws, including those restricting the employment of children under 16 years of age in establishments subject to factory inspection. This opened the way for the suspension of the most important safeguards for the protection of children in industry. During the early part of the war such exemptions were granted to a limited extent only, but as the demands of the war industries increased, they became more and more frequent. According to law, they were to be permitted only upon investigation of each case and a showing that adult

workers were not available, and it was the announced policy of the factory inspection authorities to comply strictly with this provision. But judging from the frequent complaints of the shortage of inspectors made by the inspection officials themselves, it seems hardly probable that the investigations were at all thorough or even that they were made in every instance. Perhaps the most frequent requests were for the suspension of the legal rest periods, which were, for children under 14, a half-hour in a six-hour day, and, for children between 14 and 16, two hours a day—one hour at noon, a half-hour in the forenoon, and another half hour in the afternoon. The employers claimed that the greater frequency of the children's rest periods interfered with the output of the adults, with whom they worked side by side; consequently in order to raise production to the highest limit their intermissions were either shortened or, when the pressure of war work was greatest, often entirely eliminated. Overtime work was also very common. Reports from almost every district state that children under 14, for whom the law prescribed a six-hour day, were frequently allowed to work up to 10 hours daily. The working day of children between 14 and 16, normally 10 hours, was often extended to 11 and 12 hours. This was particularly frequent in the machine-manufacturing, woodworking, and metal industries. Employment of children under 16 on Sunday, prohibited by law, was permitted in a number of districts; in others, of less industrial importance, it was consistently refused. Night work was even more prevalent than overtime work. In normal times children under 16 could not be employed between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m.; but during the war many of them were permitted to work until late in the evening or in the early morning, and a very large number were employed on the regular night shifts, which often lasted 12 hours, including rest periods."—A. Kalet, *Effect of the war on working children in Germany (Monthly Labor Review, July, 1921, Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, p. 2)*.

1915-1920.—Children's laws in Norway.—Protection for illegitimate children.—Placing of responsibility.—Care of mothers.—Juvenile advisory boards in South Africa.—"The laws adopted in Norway, in April, 1915, and popularly termed the children's laws, are the result of a movement which has of late gained great force in all civilized countries, and which has, as its aim, the protection of children, especially during the first years of life. All the laws mentioned above undoubtedly resulted in the better protection of childhood, but the further step of legally establishing closer ties between father and child, was not accomplished until the enactment of the so-called children's laws—laws concerning children whose parents have not married. It was reserved for the then head of the Ministry of Social Affairs, Minister Johan Castberg, to propose those laws which went into effect January 1, 1916, and, as regards certain paragraphs, January 1, 1917. According to these laws, illegitimate children now have right of inheritance from the father; right of name as regards the family name of mother or father; right to better arranged economic support; and the mother is assured economic support and satisfactory attention both before and after childbirth. There is a very satisfactory mothers' insurance for women in industries. It was only natural that the new children's laws should awaken a storm of protest as regards the right of name and of inheritance. Meetings of protest, discus-

sion in the press and otherwise and lists containing thousands of signatures both for and against the laws were produced. The laws were publicly discussed for a long time. The future was pictured darkly, such a prediction being usual, as that unmarried mothers, with one or more children would suddenly appear in peaceful homes to demand inheritance, name and a home for their children. Now that the law has been in force for almost three years there has been very little rumor of these dire consequences. The public officials who administer the law generally state, that the whole matter proceeds surprisingly smoothly and satisfactorily. The fathers have willingly paid their contributions—at least the number of the unwilling, is no larger now than before the law came into force."—*Survey, Oct. 9, 1920.*

"The idea of Juvenile Advisory Boards started in Durban: the first board was appointed in Durban. The idea was that increased difficulty was being found in the way in which boys leaving school at 14 were going into undesirable employment, and a number of citizens in various places took an interest in the matter and thought that some systematic method of getting hold of these juveniles after they leave school and trying to assist them to get into proper occupations was very much needed. After that the first board was created. The board assisted juveniles in that particular town to try and get better employment and not to get into blind-alley occupations. That was soon followed by others. A section of the report of last year says, 'during the latter part of the year 1920 new Juvenile Advisory Boards were appointed at Port Elizabeth, Germiston, Benoni and Krugersdorp, and for coloured juveniles a special board was formed to operate at Durban (1915), the Cape Peninsula (1916), Johannesburg (1917), Bloemfontein (1918) and Pretoria (1918).' . . . The boards have been working voluntarily so far. There was a conference last year at which the question of incorporation by Act of Parliament was discussed. . . . You can see the extreme importance of the three bills being linked up together: the Juvenile Bill dealing with the child as he leaves school, the Apprenticeship Bill which carries him on to a trade, and the Wages Regulation Bill."—*Minutes of evidence (Union of South Africa, First-Third Reports of the Select Committee on Subject-Matter of Apprenticeship Bill and Regulation of Wages Bill, June, 1921, pp. 1-4)*.

1916-1922.—Federal Child labor laws.—Influence of labor organizations.—Keating-Owen law declared unconstitutional.—Effects of adverse decision.—New law passed in 1919.—Declared unconstitutional by supreme court.—"Organized labor is the agency to which, more than to any other, credit must be given for stimulating national interest in the fight against child labor. In its first constitution the American Federation of Labor declared itself in favor of the complete abolition of the employment of children under fourteen years of age. . . . Coöperating with organized labor, often guiding its forces, always affording the benefit of scientific foundation, has been a considerable group of students of practical philanthropy and social economics. . . . Tangible evidence of the effectiveness of this volunteer work is seen, also, in the Federal Children's Bureau, established as a bureau in the Department of Labor in 1912, and since then an effective official agency in the campaign in behalf of children and women. . . . The first serious consideration given child labor in the United States Congress was in 1907, when the Beveridge-Parsons bill was under

discussion. This bill was not permitted to come to a vote in either House, owing to a widespread conviction that it was unconstitutional. In 1915 a bill similar in character passed the House of Representatives, but did not reach a vote in the Senate. The following year this measure, then known as the Keating-Owen Bill, passed both Houses by large majorities, and went into effect September 1, 1917. This law was permitted to operate for only nine months, but during that time its effectiveness was demonstrated in widely separated sections of the country. It was declared unconstitutional in the Federal Court of the Western District of North Carolina, Judge Boyd presiding, and on June 3, 1918, the decision was affirmed by the United States Supreme Court, four of the nine justices dissenting."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, pp. 246-248.—The setting aside by the supreme court, in June, 1918, of the federal Child Labor law (see U. S. A.: 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures) on the ground of its unconstitutionality was promptly followed by the restoration of the longer working hours for children which a number of state laws sanctioned; while the demand for child labor, joined to abnormally high wages under war conditions, caused even the state laws to be extensively violated. In one state 47 out of 53 factories were found to be violating the law by employing children under 12 years of age; in another, where the minimum age for employment in canneries was 14 years, 721 children under that age, including fifty who were less than ten years old, were working in canning establishments in the summer of 1918. Some check to the evil was given when the War Labor Policies board made compliance with the standards set by the federal Child Labor law a condition in government war contracts made after the date of the supreme court decision. An investigation of the shipbuilding plants on the Atlantic Coast, the Gulf of Mexico and the Great Lakes, however, undertaken in the winter and spring of 1919 in cooperation with the Emergency Fleet Corporation, showed numerous violations by important establishments of both state and federal standards. In five states which the Children's Bureau investigated 19,606 children between fourteen and sixteen years of age were found to whom work certificates had been issued. Of that number, more than one-fourth could not write their name legibly; nearly ten per cent had not gone further than the first grade; more than half were in the fourth or some lower grade when they left school; only about three per cent had reached the eighth grade, and only about one per cent had gone as far as the high school. Of the 19,606 children, only twenty-four were foreign-born.—From *Report issued by Children's bureau of federal Department of Labor*, Jan., 1920.—The National Child Labor Committee called attention to the fact that in spite of increasing adult unemployment, more children left school to go to work in 1920 in many industrial centers than in 1919. Fourteen states reported an increase in child labor during the first six or eight months of 1920. In New York city 5,283 more children applied for work permits in the first six months of 1920 than in the same period of the preceding year, but in the last three months there was a decrease in applications so that the total increase was only 2,353. In Baltimore County, Md., there were 4,064 more applications for work permits up to October 31, 1920, than in 1919, while during the summer the Chicago authorities reported an increase of 13,000 in that city, and in Minnesota there had been an increase of 193 per cent since 1915.—"The Keating-Owen

law was based upon the power of Congress to regulate commerce and prohibited interstate commerce in articles in the production of which the labor of children had entered. A new law, based upon the power of Congress to tax, was enacted, going into operation on April 25, 1919. On August 19 of that year, this measure was declared unconstitutional in the same court that passed upon its predecessor."—F. C. Ensign, *Compulsory school attendance and child labor*, p. 258.—This same court again declared the act invalid in December, 1921. The case was carried to the Supreme Court, which in May, 1922, declared against the constitutionality of the law as an infringement upon the sovereign rights of the States.—See also U. S. A.: 1916 (August); 1916-1917: Opposition to Keating-Owen-Child Labor Law; 1917-1919: Taxation and expenditures.

"Although the Federal law accomplished an enormous amount of good, it was distinctly limited in scope. Though it affected 300,000 children by its age, hour, and night-work provisions, it applied only to industries and occupations in which according to the census of 1910, but 15 per cent. of the total number of child laborers were engaged. The only standards of the Federal law were the 14-year age-limit for children employed in factories, mills, workshops and canneries; a 16-year age-limit for children employed in mines and quarries, and an eight-hour day, with night work prohibited, for children between 14 and 16 in factories, mills, workshops and canneries. The Federal law provided no protection whatever for child labor in agriculture, in tenement homework, street trades, domestic service, restaurants, hotels, moving pictures and a list of other industries which might be extended indefinitely. It was in these occupations combined, according to the Census of 1910, that 85 per cent. of America's 2,000,000 child laborers were engaged. The Federal law set no educational qualifications for children leaving school to go to work, and made no requirement as to physical fitness."—*New York Times Current History*, July, 1922, p. 617.

1918-1920.—Steps for child welfare taken by new governments of Europe.—Child labor laws in Austria and Czecho-Slovakia.—Special provisions for children in the labor laws of Soviet Russia.—Poland.—"Austria, by the Child Labour Act of 19 December, 1918, prohibits the general employment of children under 12 years old. . . . This prohibition is modified in the case of agriculture, employment in 'light work in agriculture' being permitted from the age of 10. Under the 'general limitations clause' of the Austrian Act 'children shall only be employed or otherwise occupied in so far as the carrying out of their compulsory school attendance is not prevented.' This applies to 'the employers' own children and all other children in work of any kind for which remuneration is paid or which is carried on regularly even if it is not specially remunerated.'"—*International Labor Review*, Sept., 1921, p. 193.—"On July 17, 1919, the National Assembly of the Czecho-Slovakian republic passed a child labor law which was promulgated on July 28, 1919, and became effective three months after its promulgation. The law defines as children all boys and girls who have not completed their fourteenth year of age. Child labor within the meaning of the law is the regular employment of children at whatever labor for or without compensation. The performance of work by children for purposes of training or instruction, as well as the employment of children at casual jobs, and the employment of own children at light, although regular, household work, is not to be

considered child labor. Own children within the meaning of the law are children living in common household with the employer, who are related to him by blood or marriage up to the third degree, or live with him as foster children or wards. The employment of children at manual labor or other occupations is permissible only in so far as it does not endanger their health, their physical and mental development, or their morals, and in so far as it does not interfere with their attendance at school. The employment of children who have not completed their twelfth year of age is prohibited. Children over 10 years of age may, however, be employed at light agricultural or household work. On school days children may not be employed at labor in excess of two hours. Their employment at labor before the morning session of school and during the two hours preceding the afternoon session is prohibited. With respect to agricultural and household work this prohibition is limited by the law to two hours preceding the school session. A period of recreation of one hour is to be granted after school hours. On school holidays children may not be employed at labor in excess of four hours, except that in agricultural and household work employment may not exceed six hours. The employment of children at labor on Sundays and church holidays is prohibited. Children employed in agriculture and at household work must be allowed an uninterrupted night rest of 10 hours from 8 p. m. to 6 a. m. In all other fields of child labor the employment of children between 8 p. m. and 7 a. m. is prohibited. . . . If an employer employs other than his own children for compensation in money he may deduct from their wages only lodging, board, clothing and school supplies furnished by him and the price charged therefor may not exceed the actual cost. . . . Whoever employs other children than his own must without delay report their employment to the communal authorities of his place of residence, indicating the nature of his establishment and of the employment of the children. . . . Anybody intending to employ other children than his own must previously apply to the communal authorities for a work card for each child. The cards are to be issued for one year and must be renewed on their expiration. They are to be issued free of charge by the communal authorities of the place of residence of the child after a hearing of the legal representative of the child and of the competent school authorities. . . . The issuance of a work card must be refused if in the opinion of the physician or the school authorities the labor in question would endanger the morals or the physical or mental development of the child. . . . Contraventions of the law, if not subject to severer penalties in accordance with other laws, are punishable with fines up to 1,000 crowns or imprisonment up to three months. . . . Persons convicted of a contravention of the law may temporarily or permanently be enjoined by the political authorities from employing children. The law authorizes the Minister of Social Welfare to conclude agreements with foreign countries for assuring the application abroad of the principles of the present law."—*Monthly Labor Review, Apr., 1920.*

"The labor laws of Soviet Russia provide that children under sixteen years of age shall not be permitted to work. In special cases children of fourteen and over may get the permission of the labor department but only when there is acute need and it is impossible to place the children in schools, homes and other state institutions. They

must not work longer than four hours a day, those between sixteen and eighteen must not work longer than six hours a day, those under eighteen are forbidden overtime, night work and underground work. The guiding idea of the Soviet Republic is to give the children a preference in everything, from food and clothing to less tangible goods. . . . In practice, the Soviet Republic can realize its ideal program only on a limited scale. It lacks teachers, buildings and material, even if the mass of Russian parents were content to allow their children to be educated in colonies or boarding schools up to the age of sixteen. . . . The most picturesque of them [schools] are the 'colonies,' planted as a rule in forests which begin a few miles beyond the suburban area. I saw two of these, in the Sokolniki Park outside Moscow, and in the Tsarskoe Selo, the Russian Windsor, now known as Dyetskoe Selo (children's village), outside Petrograd. . . . Many of the villas were assigned to ailing or tuberculous children, and these later, sleeping more or less in the open even in the winter, make wonderfully rapid cures. Others, however, were inhabited by normal children of all ages and both sexes up to the age of sixteen. Boys and girls live together, and co-education is, indeed the universal rule in all Russian schools. . . . The villas were clean and tidy, though simply, even barely furnished, and the children were learning to be personally clean, a lesson they would never have learned at home. Their gardens and vegetable plots were well kept and they did most of the housework themselves. I took a meal with the children. The food was good and I should say sufficient, though the milk was only condensed. . . . Every villa had its piano. The children evidently revelled in drawing and painting, and were encouraged to exercise their creative fancy. Some of their portraits, and even more their interpretations of Russian fairy tales, showed unusual talent. They vied with each other moreover in writing verses. Each little colony had its 'Soviet,' in which the children, with the aid of a teacher, learned to discuss their own affairs. . . . Even in remote Vladimir, there were some of these colonies, especially a permanent one for tuberculous children, and a big camp in charge of an enthusiastic young doctor, in which several hundred children of all ages spent the summer under canvas, dividing their time between sports and helpful farm work to assist the peasants. Not the least interesting of the new developments is a Children's Court, composed of a doctor, a teacher and a legal member, which deals with juvenile criminals (chiefly thieves) and has also the right to send children living in bad moral environment to one of these school homes. It works with a volunteer organization, composed mainly of young people, called 'The Brothers and Sisters of Social Aid,' which devotes itself to aiding or reclaiming neglected children. Ten of its members from Vladimir are taking a course of instruction in Moscow. The Communists are justly proud of their whole organization for the 'protection' (Ochrana) of children—a conception which includes moral welfare, education and recreation as well as the provision of food and hygiene. Several playing fields for the children have been opened in Vladimir, and there was also a so-called Children's 'club,' in which I saw them doing carpentering, painting and theatricals, voluntarily but with some help from teachers out of school hours. In the long summer vacation the children were organized to do such pleasant and useful work as the collection of medicinal herbs, and the gather-

ing of fir cones in the forest for fuel. All this, needless to say, is not only new but unprecedented in Russia."—H. N. Brailsford, *Russian impressions* (New Republic, Dec., 1920).—See also INTERNATIONAL RELIEF: European relief council.—For Poland, see POLAND, CONSTITUTION OF.

1918-1921.—Effect of Fisher Act on Child Labor in England and Wales.—"The Fisher Education Act represents the government's effort permanently to improve the condition of young workers. This law requires school attendance of every child under fourteen. Gainful employment outside school hours is absolutely forbidden, except a very limited amount by children between twelve and fourteen. Working boys and girls are required to go to continuation school eight hours a week until eighteen years of age, when the law goes into full effect, and the time of attendance must be taken out of working hours. It is unfortunate that the children who in some ways most need the help of the act, namely those who went to work during the war, are expressly exempted from its provision. . . . The chief forces in bringing about this diminution of child labor were, naturally, the laws forbidding child labor and requiring compulsory schooling. Children were required to attend school until they were fourteen unless they were thirteen and could secure a certificate of 'proficiency' or of regular attendance. They might not work in factories until they had completed their school attendance, except that 'half timers,' girls and boys of twelve, might work not more than thirty-three hours a week and were compelled to go to school half the time. Most of the 'half timers' were found in the Lancashire cotton mills. Children under eleven might not sell articles on the street, boys under fourteen might not work in coal mines, and the local authorities might forbid all work by children under fourteen, though unfortunately the power had been but slightly exercised. The health and safety regulations affecting 'young persons' under eighteen were similar to those for women, but somewhat more stringent. The lead processes which were forbidden women were also forbidden girls and boys under eighteen, together with a few other very unhealthy trades. In others where women might be employed, boys and girls under sixteen were forbidden to work. Children under fourteen might not be employed 'in a manner likely to be dangerous to their health or education.' . . . In addition the hours of boys under sixteen employed in mines were limited, and a maximum of seventy-four hours a week was fixed for shop assistants under eighteen. The minimum rates set by the trade boards for boys and girls under eighteen generally rose year by year according to age from about 4s. weekly at fourteen (66 cents) to 10s. (\$2.40) or 12s. (\$2.88) at seventeen. Girls with the necessary experience in the trade received the full minimum rate for women at eighteen years of age, but the boys, who sometimes began at a higher rate than the girls, did not reach the full men's rate till they were twenty-one or more. Almost all these working conditions—the principal kinds of work women and children were doing, the rate of increase in their numbers, their wages and the legal regulations protecting them—were changed during three years of the world war."—I. O. Andrews and M. A. Hobbs, *Economic effects of the world war upon women and children in Great Britain*, pp. 12, 18-10.—"The Factory Acts still permit night work for boys and girls in glass works, iron and steel mills, letter press and printing works, paper mills, and blast furnaces. In these occupations no intelligent work is offered to the great majority of

young persons. Yet a boy of fourteen may be kept at labour amid the dirt and heat for as much as fourteen hours on a night shift and for sixty hours in any week."—*Juvenile labour: A problem in industry* (Contemporary Review, Feb., 1921.)

1919.—Legislation in the United States during the year.—Comparative study of working age throughout the world.—According to the report of the National Child Labor Committee, made by A. R. Lovejoy in 1920, "the most encouraging child welfare legislative achievements [during 1919] have been in Kentucky and Alabama. In the latter state following the establishment of the Child Welfare Department, organized by the staff of the National Child Labor Committee, a bill was passed at a special session of the legislature increasing the annual appropriation from \$12,500 to \$30,000, thus enabling the department to develop the agencies for child welfare still further. In Kentucky the governor appointed a Children's Code Commission which is now at work; the total appropriation for state health work was more than doubled; a Board of Charities and Corrections was created; the child labor and compulsory education laws were improved and a Domestic Relations' Court for Louisville was created. Favorable legislation was enacted in the following states: Louisiana, provision for mothers' pensions; Massachusetts, prohibiting the operation, cleaning or repairing of freight elevators by children under sixteen years; Mississippi, compulsory school attendance made state-wide, permitting, however, districts to exempt themselves by their own vote; New York, the creation of a Children's Code Commission to revise and standardize the laws of the state which relate to children and report back to the legislature, and the extension of medical inspection provisions to include children employed in mercantile establishments; Virginia, provision for an eight-hour day for children under sixteen years in canneries, factories and mercantile establishments. Unfavorable legislative action resulted in the following states: Delaware, the new school code was weakened at a special session of the legislature reducing the required school attendance from 180 days to 120 a year; Maryland, permitting non-resident minors to appear in theatrical performances with travelling companies in Baltimore, and amending the work permit provisions to allow mentally retarded boys over fourteen years of age to obtain temporary work permits; in Virginia, permitting children of twelve years of age to work in canneries when schools are not in session, and to work at errand and delivery service."—*Child welfare* (The Survey, Dec. 18, 1920, p. 427).—"As we go over the laws of the various States we feel without particular examination that we have fairly good laws, that we have various safeguards thrown around the children at the ages they are permitted to work. As we go down the list of States we find the maximum working hours for children under sixteen years in nineteen States and the District of Columbia to be eight hours a day and forty-eight hours a week, and in eleven additional states the same hours but with certain exemptions; in ten states a maximum working day of nine to ten hours but not more than fifty-eight hours a week; and in seven states ten hours or more a day, with sixty hours a week. After the age of sixteen, children are permitted in many states to work ten hours, in some states even longer. In Indiana, which is one of our important industrial States, there is no regulation for the hours for women. Thus after children reach the age of sixteen—and girls of sixteen are children—they can work twelve, fourteen, in fact any num-

ber of hours that the employer may choose. Our safeguards are left off at a very tender age."—A. Nestor, *Hours (United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, publication No. 60, 1919)*.—See also CALIFORNIA: 1919.

"Fourteen is the age for admission to employment in industry in the following countries: The United States of America, Belgium, Great Britain, Bulgaria, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, Greece, Norway, Serbia, Sweden (girls only), Switzerland; five Australian States: New South Wales, Victoria (girls, 15), Queensland, Western Australia, Tasmania; seven provinces of Canada: Ontario, Quebec, Manitoba (girls, 15), Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, British Columbia, Saskatchewan; and New Zealand. Thirteen is the minimum age fixed in France, Germany, the Netherlands, Sweden (boys only) and South Australia; twelve in the Argentine Republic, Brazil, Italy, Japan, Mexico, and Portugal; eleven in Rumania; ten in Spain; and nine in India. A few instances of a higher minimum limit are found in seven states of America: California, Maine, Michigan, Montana, Ohio, South Dakota and Texas; in one province of Canada, Alberta; and for girls in two other Canadian provinces: British Columbia and Manitoba; and the State of Victoria in Australia, where the minimum age is fifteen. It is sixteen in one American State: Montana. In five countries (Czecho-Slovakia, Greece, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden) and in thirty-six American States, children who have not passed an educational standard are excluded from industrial employment after reaching the age fixed for absolute exclusion. In countries where the general age limit is fixed at fourteen there are cases in which a lower limit is allowed. This may include, as in Great Britain and Germany, children employed elsewhere than in factories and mines; or in special work connected with seasonal trades and in street trading, as in several of the provinces of Canada, where the age limit is twelve (ten in one case); or again, as in New Zealand, in special cases authorized by the inspector if the child has an educational certificate (age limit thirteen), or with educational and medical certificates, as in France (where the age limit is twelve). Moreover, in certain States permits are given for employment at ten in light agricultural and domestic work (Czecho-Slovakia, Japan) and with a school-leaving certificate at ten in Portugal. It has been remarked that in general the age for employment in mines—employment being usually restricted to boys—is higher than that for employment in factories and workshops. There are, however, some exceptions to this rule, the age for employment in mines in British Columbia (metalliferous mines only), Nicaragua, Nova Scotia, and the Yukon Territory, and in Portugal being twelve only. In France the minimum age for trimmers is thirteen, for assistants, or apprentices at the face, fourteen, while for all other underground work a boy must have attained the age of fifteen. Fourteen is the usual minimum age in Europe, but instances of a higher age of entry are not wanting. The minimum is fifteen in two provinces of Canada (British Columbia and Quebec), Greece (underground work), and Sweden. In America the Tax on Employment of Child Labour Act in effect prohibits the employment of children under sixteen in any mine or quarry. [This Act was declared unconstitutional in 1922.] This is the statutory age in one province of Canada (Alberta, underground), South Africa (underground) and Spain, where also the minimum age for employment in extraction of minerals or work carried on by means of explosives is eighteen; seventeen in the parts

of Poland formerly ruled by Russia and in the State of Texas; eighteen in the State of Arizona (underground), in Bulgaria and in the State of Wisconsin. . . . The replies received to the questionnaire issued by the Committee to the different governments show that fifteen countries (including two of the British Dominions and five Australian States) have already adopted the age (16) recommended by the Berne Conference of 1913, as the general minimum for employment during the night in industrial work and in a number of cases (nine) have adopted a still higher age. Sixteen has also been adopted as the age limit in Germany. In Brazil (São Paulo), Great Britain, Denmark, France, Norway, Sweden, Switzerland, and three American States, the minimum age is 18; in the Netherlands, and the parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule, 17; in the United States of America, the Argentine, Belgium, Germany, five Australian States, New Zealand, in the parts of Poland formerly under Austrian and German rule, in South Africa, and in Spain, 16; in Italy, Japan, and Rumania it is 15. There is also conformity in all these States (except France) with the proposal in Article 1 of the Berne Draft Convention that the prohibition of night work is to be absolute in all cases and no exceptions are to be permitted from the general rule until 14 years of age. In France, the age at present is 13. Belgium, Great Britain, Germany, Italy, Japan, the Netherlands, parts of Poland formerly under German and Austrian rule, Spain and Switzerland allow certain exceptions at 14; Denmark (for purposes of industrial training only), and the parts of Poland formerly under Russian rule at 15; and Norway and Sweden at 16. In most cases exception is allowed only for continuous industries; for trades dealing with perishable materials; and for newspaper printing works. . . .

"The protection of young persons from injury to health in especially injurious trades and processes takes the form either of hygienic regulations or of the total exclusion of young workers. . . . The age limits for exclusion vary greatly. In Belgium, Italy and Spain, where adult women are not excluded at all, the employment of female young persons is prohibited up to 21 years of age, while the corresponding prohibition of boys' work extends only up to the age of 16 (15 in Italy). Male as well as female young persons up to the age of 21 are debarred from certain lead processes in the State of Pennsylvania. Both sexes are excluded from certain injurious work up to the age of 18 in Great Britain, France, Germany, the Netherlands and part of Poland. The States of Maryland, Massachusetts, New York, Ohio and Wisconsin in America provide examples of the exclusion of boys as well as girls up to 18 from unhealthy processes. Cases where the age limit for exclusion is 18 for girls and 16 for boys are found in Greece, and the Canadian Province of Quebec; 17 is the age limit for lads in certain trades in the Netherlands. The most common standard is that which admits boys to unhealthy processes after the age of 16, whether coupled with a higher limit for girls (as in the cases mentioned above, where young women up to 21 years of age are excluded), or with the same rule applying to both girls and boys (as in the case of a long list of trades in Belgium, of a few specially regulated industries in Great Britain, and a small part of the schedules of injurious trades in France, and in practically every case where young workers are debarred from injurious work in the United States of America). A lower age limit for boys is found in Italy, where 15 is the age generally fixed

for the purposes here considered. In Japan and parts of Poland exclusion of young persons from unhealthy trades affects both girls and boys up to 15 only. In a few countries (Belgium, France, Great Britain, Germany) children under 14 are specifically excluded from certain unhealthy occupations. But provisions to that effect will become obsolete as the age limit for general admission to industrial work is raised. For example, in Great Britain, the few instances of exclusion from unhealthy work under 14 will become meaningless when, on Section 14 of the Education Act of 1918 coming into operation, children under that age are no longer admitted at all to employment in factories and workshops."—*League of Nations, Report III, Employment of women and children, International Labour Conference, Washington, 1919, pp. 45-47, 51-52, 56-57.*

1921.—Care of dependent children in Jugoslavia. See CHARITIES: Jugoslavia: 1921.

1921.—Children hoarded out in Ohio. See CHARITIES: United States: 1921.

BIBLIOGRAPHY for comparative study of child labor legislation.—W. F. Osburn, *Progress and uniformity in child-labor legislation*. The legislation studied covers the period from 1879-1910, and includes all child labor laws in the United States, numbering over 1,000, enacted by state-legislature, legislative bodies of territories, by Congress, and by Constitutional conventions.—H. L. Sumner and E. A. Merritt, *Child labor legislation in United States, 1915 (United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, publication No. 10)*. This study covers all legislation in force in the United States up to Oct. 1, 1915.—M. E. Loughran, *Historical development of child labor legislation in the United States*. This study gives the history of child labor legislation in every state (separately) to 1921.—*League of Nations report on the employment of women and children, 1919*. This report includes an appendix (II) which gives in tabular form the status of child labor legislation throughout the world, arranged alphabetically in the following order: country, law, date, scope of application.—*United States Bureau of labor, bulletin, July, 1920*. This bulletin covers child labor legislation in Austria, Belgium, France, Germany, Italy and Switzerland in 1910.—*Rural child welfare (Report of the National Child Welfare Committee, 1922)*.

CHILDEBERT I (d. 558), Frankish king at Paris, 511-558.

Childebert II (570-595), Frankish king of Austrasia, 575-596; of Burgundy, 592-595.

Childebert III, Frankish king of Neustria, and Burgundy, 695-711.

CHILDERIC I (c. 437-481), king of the Salian Franks, 457-481.

Childeric II (c. 653-673), Frankish king of Austrasia, 660-673.

Childeric III (d. 751), last of the Frankish kings.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU, United States. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1904-1916.

CHILDREN'S COURTS.—United States. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1899-1921.

France. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1908-1914.

Great Britain. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1903-1920.

Italy. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1902-1920.

Russia. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1918-1920.

CHILDREN'S CRUSADE. See CRUSADES: 1212.

CHILDREN'S PLAGUE. See PLAGUE: Pestilence: Epidemics: 1360-1363.

CHILDS, Richard Spencer (1882-), American publicist. See SHORT BALLOT: 1908-1921.

CHILE.—Geographic description.—Resources. "The Republic of Chile, beginning at latitude seventeen degrees, and extending to the farthest southern limits of South America, forms a narrow longitudinal strip of territory twenty-four hundred miles long, and not exceeding 200 miles in width in the extreme. It has an area of 462,000 square miles. . . . [See LATIN AMERICA: Map]. Nature has been prodigal in the bestowal of her varied gifts upon Chile. Its geographical formation represents a huge serpent with its sinewy form stretched along the west coast of the continent, its head resting in the arid coast of the continent, its tail coiled about the wood-crowned hills and ice-bound islands of Tierra del Fuego. Upon one side looms the Andes Mountains, . . . upon the other stretches the vast expanse of the Pacific. Bordered as it is by the ocean on one side, and including within its limits a range of mountains reaching in some places an altitude of 24,000 feet, Chile presents a variety of geological, geographical and climatic conditions possessed by few countries in the world. Being isolated by great national barriers, it faces away from all the centres of population and ancient homes of civilization, and of all the countries of South America, it occupies the most unfavorable position geographically, and is the most inaccessible from Europe, North America and the Far East. But with all its isolation, its long struggle to gain a place among civilized nations, its history of cruel and uncivilized warfare, Chile possesses natural resources and attractions which intervening years have made known."—R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile, pp. 11, 12*.—"Looked on from the agricultural and economical standpoint as well as regarding the distribution of its natural products, Chile may be divided into three large zones. The Northern zone extends about as far as the 30 deg. and shows for the most part the characteristics of a desert. In this thinly populated zone the chief mineral treasures of the country are to be found. A European savant, who explored this part of the country being appointed by the Chilean government, compared them to a huge chemical laboratory because they are stocked with almost every kind of ore. They contain immeasurable quantities of saltpetre and borax and also numerous silver and copper mines, especially the latter. The central zone, about as far as the 38 deg., reaching up to the boundaries of the province of Valdivia, is the best cultivated and watered. It is crossed by numerous railways and roads, and on the whole it is fairly well populated. This is the agricultural zone, and in it thrive wine, olives and corn to a great extent. The southern zone is mainly remarkable for its woods. There is in some places good coal, and gold dust has been found in some of the rivers, but the main wealth of this still sparsely populated zone are the woods and products of the sea. However, cattle raising is developing and the different branches of industry . . . are increasing to a great extent."—*Short description of the Republic of Chile, p. 2, according to official data (F. A. Brockhaus, ed.)*.—See also LATIN AMERICA: Agriculture: 1918-1921: Effect of Natural resources; and below 1900-1910: Mineral wealth and progress.

ALSO IN: W. H. Koebel, *Modern Chile, pp. 167-170*.—G. F. S. Elliot, *Chile, pp. 1-13*.

Population.—"In Chile the growth of population has been very slow indeed, far too much so for

the economic development of the country. On the other hand, chiefly owing to the difficulties of access to the country in the past, it has been, on the whole and as compared with other South American Countries, a fairly homogeneous growth. . . . According to historians the Spaniards in Chile numbered little more than 2,000 at the beginning of the eighteenth century. By the middle of the eighteenth century they had increased to 80,000, and at the Declaration of Independence (1810) the population was about 500,000. It had rather more than doubled by 1835. In 1907, at the last census, the population was found to be 3,249,279. It is probable that at the present time (1914) the number of Chile's population approaches 5,000,000. There is practically no admixture of Asiatic or African blood. The people are of mainly European descent, and very largely Spanish. Among the governing classes many English and Irish names are to be met with, and a few French are found, the bearers of these being descendants of old colonists who made their mark in politics, the army and navy, and in consequence, have now become thoroughly identified with the country. Since these early days there has been a thin infiltration of foreign emigrants, perhaps the most prominent elements being the German colonists who came to Valdivia and its neighbourhood about 1850, and the Anglo-Saxon sheep and cattle ranchers and miners. Other attempts at importation of foreign colonists on a fairly large scale have been made, but the grand total was not at all overwhelming. For instance, in 1910 only 2,543 emigrants registered. Meanwhile the natural growth of population is quite inadequate to the needs of the country, partly owing to the heavy death rate, the mortality among children being exceptionally high. In 1910 the excess of births over deaths was less than 25,000. Population is most dense in the Central Provinces. At the last census [written in 1914] the population of Santiago was 332,723, of Valparaiso 162,447, whilst Concepcion (which could claim 55,330) and ten other towns accounted for another 306,965. Thus, about a fourth of the population was concentrated in twelve towns of 15,000 inhabitants and upwards. There is quite a notable foreign element in the seaport towns, but it must be remembered that in such northern ports as Iquique, Antofagasta, and Talca, the foreigners are largely mere birds of passage, attracted by the nitrate and mineral industries."—G. J. Mills, *Chile*, pp. 40-42.—The 1920 census shows a population of 3,754,723. In December, 1921, the estimated population was 3,792,241.

ALSO IN: R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, pp. 231-234.—W. A. Smith, *Temperate Chile*, pp. 59-74.—G. F. S. Elliot, *Chile*, pp. 288-297.

Origin of the name.—"The name of Chile is of doubtful origin. During the Inca epoch it was called Tilli, that being the name of a powerful and popular Araucanian Chief. It was pronounced 'tele,' which translated means enemy. From changes in the pronunciation, the word was finally converted into Chile. Some authorities say that the name is derived from the Indian word Tchile or Techile, which signifies cold, having direct reference to the snows of the Cordilleras, or the glaciers of the far south."—R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, p. 11.—See also LATIN AMERICA.

ALSO IN: Stanford's *Compendium of travel and geography*, v. 1, p. 269.

Aborigines.—"It is estimated that at the Conquest there were about half a million Indians in the country. . . . They consisted of the Changos in the North, to the extremity of Atacama,

a branch of the Aymara Indians, who had submitted to the influence of the Incas, then came the sturdy and patriotic Araucanians in the centre provinces and down south to Llanquihue, the Fuegians in the cold regions of the Archipelago. All these made war with the Spanish invaders, and the Araucanians kept up active hostility until well into the first half of the nineteenth century. The Fuegians, on the other hand, came into conflict with colonists through a not altogether unnatural inability to distinguish sheep and cattle from the wild guanaco of their mountains. Consequently the native races have been worn down to a tithe. But the Araucanians have shown themselves a fine race."—G. J. Mills, *Chile*, pp. 40-41.—"Chili from 30° south latitude, was and is still in part occupied by several tribes who speak the same language. They form the fourth and most southern group of the Andes people, and are called Araucanians. Like almost all American tribal names, the term Araucanian is indefinite; sometimes it is restricted to a single band, and sometimes so extended as to embrace a group of tribes. Some regard them as a separate family, calling them Chilians, while others, whom we follow, regard them as the southern members of the Andes group, and still others class them with the Pampas Indians. The name Araucanian is an improper one, introduced by the Spaniards, but it is so firmly fixed that it cannot be changed. The native names are Moluche (warriors) and Alapuche (natives). Originally they extended from Coquimbo to the Chonos Archipelago and from ocean to ocean, and even now they extend, though not very far, to the east of the Cordilleras. They are divided into four (or, if we include the Picunche, five) tribes, the names of which all end in 'tche' or 'che,' the word for man. Other minor divisions exist. The entire number of the Araucanians is computed at about 30,000 souls, but it is decreasing by sickness as well as by vice. They are owners of their land and have cattle in abundance, pay no taxes, and even their labor in the construction of highways is only light. They are warlike, brave, and still enjoy some of the blessings of the Inca civilization; only the real, western Araucanians in Chili have attained to a sedentary life. Long before the arrival of the Spaniards the government of the Araucanians offered a striking resemblance to the military aristocracy of the old world. All the rest that has been written of their high stage of culture has proved to be an empty picture of fancy. They followed agriculture, built fixed houses, and made at least an attempt at a form of government, but they still remain, as a whole, cruel, plundering savages."—*The standard natural history* (J. S. Kingsley, ed.), v. 6, pp. 232-234.—"The Araucanians inhabit the delightful region between the Andes and the sea, and between the rivers Bio-bio and Valdivia. They derive the appellation of Araucanians from the province of Arauco. . . . The political division of the Araucanian state is regulated with much intelligence. It is divided from north to south into four governments. . . . Each government is divided into five provinces, and each province into nine counties. The state consists of three orders of nobility, each being subordinate to the other, and all having their respective vassals. They are the Toquis, the Apo-Ulmenes, and the Ulmenes. The Toquis, or governors, are four in number. They are independent of each other, but confederated for the public welfare. The Arch-Ulmenes govern the provinces under their respective Toquis. The Ulmenes govern the counties. The upper ranks, generally, are likewise comprehended under

the term *Ulmenes*."—R. G. Watson, *Spanish and Portuguese South America*, v. 1, ch. 12.

ALSO IN: R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, pp. 25-26.—G. F. S. Elliot, *Chile*, pp. 1-13.—J. I. Molina, *Geography, Natural and civil history of Chili*, v. 2, bk. 2.

1450-1535.—Invasion and conquest of northern Chile by Yupanqui, Inca of Peru.—"In the year 1450 the Peruvian Inca, Yupanqui, desirous of extending his dominions towards the south, stationed himself with a powerful army at Atacama. Thence he dispatched a force of 10,000 men to Chili, under the command of Chinchiruca, who, overcoming almost incredible obstacles, marched through a sandy desert as far as Copiapo, a distance of 80 leagues. The Copiapins flew to arms, and prepared to resist this invasion. But Chinchiruca, true to the policy which the Incas always observed, stood upon the defensive, trusting to persuasion rather than to force for the accomplishment of his designs. . . . While he proffered peace, he warned them of the consequences of resisting the 'Children of the Sun.' After wavering for a time, the Copiapins submitted themselves to the rule of the Incas. "The adjoining province of Coquimbo was easily subjugated, and steadily advancing, the Peruvians, some six years after their first entering the country, firmly established themselves in the valley of Chili, at a distance of more than 200 leagues from the frontier of Atacama. The 'Children of the Sun' had met thus far with little resistance, and, encouraged by success, they marched their victorious armies against the Purumancians, a warlike people living beyond the river Rapel." Here they were desperately resisted, in a battle which lasted three days, and from which both armies withdrew, undefeated and unvictorious. On learning this result, the Inca Yupanqui ordered his generals to relinquish all attempts at further conquest, and to "seek, by the introduction of wise laws, and by instructing the people in agriculture and the arts, to establish themselves more firmly in the territory already acquired. To what extent the Peruvians were successful in the endeavor to ingraft their civilization, religion, and customs upon the Chilians, it is at this distant day impossible to determine, since the earliest historians differ widely on the subject. Certain it is, that on the arrival of the Spaniards the Incas, at least nominally, ruled the country, and received an annual tribute of gold from the people."—E. R. Smith, *Araucanians*, ch. 11-14.

ALSO IN: R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, pp. 27-28.

1535-1724.—Spanish conquest.—Araucanian War of Independence.—"In the year 1535, after the death of the unfortunate Inca Atahualpa, Diego Almagro, fired by the love of glory and the thirst for gold, yielded to the solicitations of Francisco Pizarro, the conqueror of Peru, and set out for the subjection of Chili, which, as yet, had not been visited by any European. His army consisted of 570 Spaniards, well equipped, and 15,000 Peruvian auxiliaries. Regardless of difficulties and dangers this impetuous soldier selected the near route that lay along the summits of the Andes, in preference to the more circuitous road passing through the desert of Atacama. Upon the horrors of this march, of which so thrilling an account is given by Prescott in the 'Conquest of Peru,' it is unnecessary for us to dwell; suffice it to state that, on reaching Copiapo no less than one-fourth of his Spanish troops, and two-thirds of his Indian auxiliaries, had perished from the effects of cold, fatigue and starvation. . . .

Everywhere the Spaniards met with a friendly reception from the natives, who regarded them as a superior race of beings, and the after conquest of the country would probably have been attended with no difficulty had a conciliatory policy been adopted; but this naturally inoffensive people, aroused by acts of the most barbarous cruelty, soon flew to arms. Despite the opposition of the natives, who were now rising in every direction to oppose his march, Almagro kept on, overcoming every obstacle, until he reached the river Cacha-pual, the northern boundary of the Purumancian territory." Here he met with so stubborn and effective a resistance that he abandoned his expedition and returned to Peru, where, soon after, he lost his life (see PERU: 1533-1548) in a contest with the Pizarros. "Pizarro, ever desirous of conquering Chili, in 1540 dispatched Pedro Valdivia for that purpose, with some 200 Spanish soldiers and a large body of Peruvians." The invasion of Valdivia was opposed from the moment he entered the country; but he pushed on until he reached the river Mapoclio, and "encamped upon the site of the present capital of Chili. Valdivia, finding the location pleasant, and the surrounding plain fertile, here founded a city on the 24th of February, 1541. To this first European settlement in Chili he gave the name of Santiago, in honor of the patron saint of Spain. He laid out the town in Spanish style; and as a place of refuge in case of attack, erected a fort upon a steep rocky hill, rising some 200 feet above the plain." The Mapochins soon attacked the infant town, drove its people to the fort and burned their settlement; but were finally repulsed with dreadful slaughter. "On the arrival of a second army from Peru, Valdivia, whose ambition had always been to conquer the southern provinces of Chili, advanced into the country of the Purumancians. Here history is probably defective, as we have no account of any battles fought with these brave people. . . . We simply learn that the Spanish leader eventually gained their good-will, and established with them an alliance both offensive and defensive. . . . In the following year (1546) the Spanish forces crossed the river Maulé, the southern boundary of the Purumancians, and advanced toward the Itata. While encamped near the latter river, they were attacked at dead of night by a body of Araucanians. So unexpected was the approach of this new enemy, that many of the horses were captured, and the army with difficulty escaped total destruction. After this terrible defeat, Valdivia finding himself unable to proceed, returned to Santiago." Soon afterwards he went to Peru for reinforcements and was absent two years; but came back, at the end of that time, with a large band of followers, and marched to the south. "Reaching the bay of Talcahuano without having met with any opposition, on the 5th of October, 1550, he founded the city of Concepcion on a site at present known as Penco." The Araucanians, advancing boldly upon the Spaniards at Concepcion, were defeated in a furious battle which cost the invaders many lives. Three years later, in December, 1553, the Araucanians had their revenge, routing the Spaniards utterly and pursuing them so furiously that only two of their whole army escaped. Valdivia was among the prisoners taken and was slain. Again and again, under the lead of a youthful hero, Lautaro, and a vigorous *toqui*, or chief, named Caupolican, the Araucanians assailed the invaders of their country with success; but the latter increased in numbers and gained ground, at last, for a time, building towns and extending settlements in the Araucanian territory.

The indomitable people were not broken in spirit, however; and in 1598, by an universal and simultaneous rising, they expelled the Spaniards from almost every settlement they had made. "In 1602 . . . of the numerous Spanish forts and settlements south of the Bio-Bio, Nacimiento and Arauco only had not fallen. Valdivia and Osorno were afterward rebuilt. About the same time a fort was erected at Boroa. This fort was soon after abandoned. Valdivia, Osorno, Nacimiento, and Arauco still remain. But of all the 'cities of the plain' lying within the boundaries of the haughty Araucanians, not one ever rose from its ashes; their names exist only in history; and the sites where they once flourished are now marked by ill-defined and grass-grown ruins. From the period of their fall dates the independence of the Araucanian nation; for though a hundred years more were wasted in the vain attempt to reconquer the heroic people . . . the Spaniards, weary of constant war, and disheartened by the loss of so much blood and treasure, were finally compelled to sue for peace; and in 1724 a treaty was ratified, acknowledging their freedom, and establishing the limits of their territory."—E. R. Smith, *Araucanians*, ch. 11-14.

ALSO IN: R. G. Watson, *Spanish and Portuguese South America*, v. 1, ch. 12-14.—J. I. Molina, *Geography, Natural and civil history of Chili*, v. 2, bk. 1, ch. 3-4.

1540-1778.—Institutions of the Spaniards.—"The Spanish *conquistadores* based their power on the royal charters which allocated the lands that should accrue to the crown, and the conquered regions at once became fiefs or seignories in accordance with the Spanish political system. Valdivia distributed the territory of Chile amongst his chief captains, allotting to each a proportion of the native inhabitants in conformity with the system of *encomiendas* then in vogue in the New World. The institution of the *encomiendas* was merely a means of gaining possession of the territory and of subduing the native population. It enabled Valdivia and his successors to acquire the labour indispensable to the building of cities and forts, the working of mines and placers, and particularly the cultivation of the soil. The Spanish soldiery, constantly occupied in warfare with the Indians, had no time to found important cities, and lived primitively enough in camps and villages of mud huts, though later on they built a few wretched little hamlets. But the vitality and activity of the colony increased in proportion as the affairs of war permitted of the development of agriculture, and, thanks to the system of *encomiendas*, of the utilization of native labour. Thus gradually were formed the farms and estates of the colony, which gave the Spaniards definite possession of the great longitudinal valley as far as the banks of the Bio-Bio, where by force of arms they held in check the warlike Araucanian tribes. On these estates, as in the cities, Spanish and native blood began to intermingle, and soon a new and vigorous race was born, the race of the *mestizo*, which to-day forms a great majority of the inhabitants of the Republic. The upper classes maintained more or less the purity of their European blood, and their descendants enjoyed an advantageous pre-eminence in society, while some of them received the further consideration due to the administrative functions which they discharged. Owing to the wars with the Araucanos, ship-loads of European soldiery were arriving in the colony, and while the population was augmented by their numbers the *encomiendas* benefited by the additional native labour which they forced into their

service. The creole Spanish, that is to say the white race without admixture of Indian blood, occupied second place in the social hierarchy, but formed, by virtue of their industry and intelligence and their attachment to the country of their birth, the patrician class which secured the independence of the colony and organized the most prosperous Republic of South America. The third social element was constituted by the *mestizos*, born of the intermingling of Spanish and Indian blood, to which class we have already referred. . . . The native, regarded by the law as an individual who needed protection and segregation, was in reality, during the colonial period, a member of a vanquished race, and as such was subjected to forced labour. His wages were heavily taxed, and in addition to the constant toil which was exacted from him he had to suffer the cruel treatment of his masters. The consequence was the gradual extinction of the Indian inhabitants. The excesses and abuses committed against the natives towards the end of the eighteenth century aroused the humanitarian sentiments of the Governor of Chile, Don Ambrosio O'Higgins, who represented to the monarch the necessity of suppressing the *encomiendas* then in existence, showing how the abolition of forced labour must bring as an immediate consequence the industrial and agricultural prosperity of the country. A royal Act of 1791 ordered the incorporation to the crown of all the *encomiendas* of Chile. By this time the number and importance of the Indian allotments had dwindled considerably, while the free and independent working-class had increased in extraordinary fashion. The fulfilment of the royal wishes, however, encountered some opposition from the usufructuaries of the system and contributed to the alienation of a part of the population from the maintenance of Spanish rule. As to the natives themselves, their ignorance prevented them from understanding that the king had given them their liberty, and they continued to slave for their masters under the designation of *inquilinos* ('tenants'), a name which is still accepted, without protest, by the free labourers who settle on a farm or estate to work for the proprietor. The reforms accomplished during this period mark the dawn of a new era in Chilean history. The colony now relied upon the original institutions for the formation of a people capable of self-government. For nearly three centuries the absolute authority of the Spanish monarchs had prevailed without let or hindrance; the king was arbiter and sovereign lord of the country, dictating his commands under the sanction of his own laws and wielding unrestricted power. All appointments were held from the crown, and were conferred as a rule upon Spanish-born subjects who had friends at court. Seldom were they obtained by the *criollos* of the colony. The fear of usurpation of power or of the exercise of undue influence, says an author, was the general cause of the insecurity of public offices or appointments. Not a single functionary, whether of the administrative, military, or even the judicial order, could feel his position assured, since all the appointments were for a limited period, terminable at will. Purchase by auction was the system by which nine-tenths of the public posts were obtained. . . . The government of the country was invariably entrusted to a personage of high military rank, who assumed the title of Captain-General, Governor, and President of the Kingdom of Chile. His residence was in the city of Santiago, and he exercised his function subject to no authority but that of the monarch, save in the event of war, when he was obliged to consult

with the Viceroy of Perú. In his quality of Captain-General he had under his command all the military forces and the heads of the garrisons of Chiloé, Valdivia, Valparaíso, and Juan Fernandez. As President he controlled the highest tribunal of Justice, the Royal Audience, or Chancery. The provinces were governed by *Intendentes*, in theory appointed by the king, but, in view of the distance from Madrid, usually nominated by the governor. In the province capitals a municipal corporation known as the *Cabildo*, composed of *alcaldes*, *regidores*, and other magistrates, administered local affairs. In respect of the ecclesiastical government, the territory was divided into two vast dioceses, that of Santiago and that of Concepcion, in the charge of suffragan bishops of the Archbishopric of Lima. The system of taxation in vogue in the American Colonies followed no theoretical principle, and was designed solely to secure the greatest possible profit to the crown, without regard for the injury that the imposts might occasion to the prosperity of the country and the welfare of its inhabitants. The principal revenues of the Treasury consisted of the customs house duties, the *diezmos* or tithes, the taxes on mining and agriculture, and the product of the sale of public offices and of Papal bulls. It is probable that these revenues would have sufficed for the ordinary expenditure, but they failed to cover the heavy cost of the wars against the Araucanos. Chile, at the period of the Independence, was in reality a military colony, which contributed no surplus to the Royal Treasury, and which, for its own support, had need of the endowment of 220,000 ducats which was voted by the 'Laws of India' and annually received from Lima. . . . The Spanish monopoly of exports, together with this system of restrictions and prohibitions, sufficiently explained the backward state of Chilean agriculture at the Independence period. Mining, on the other hand, had developed without obstruction for the reason that it was immensely to the interest of Spain that her colonies should furnish the greatest possible quantity of precious metals. Chile was thus able to occupy fourth place amongst all the countries of the world in respect of her production of gold, for the coining of which a mint was installed in Santiago towards the middle of the seventeenth century. This obviated the necessity of sending the metal to Lima, as was formerly prescribed by laws designed to favour the Lima merchants and the Lima mint. . . . As to the commerce of the interior, the sale of merchandise was subject to taxation in respect of the quality and price in each locality of the goods on sale, which also paid the excise duty. Intercolonial commerce, when not prohibited altogether, was subject to important export duties, though in Chile the export of wheat and flour was free. Commerce with Spain could not be effected direct from Chile, but was carried on through the medium of Peru, and, as regards commerce with foreign countries, this was prohibited absolutely, under pain of confiscation and death. These excessive restrictions underwent a remarkable transformation with the advent of the edict of free trade issued by Carlos III in 1778, but freights was so high that Chile profited very little by the change. Such was the political, economical, and social condition of Chile when events in Spain, consequent upon the Napoleonic invasion, affected a notable alteration in the situation of the colony."

—J. P. Canto, *Chile*, pp. 147-155.

1568.—Audiençia established.—"In 1567 (or 1568) the royal audiençia was established, with Don Melchor de Bravo as president, civil

governor, and military commander. This system of government, however, lasted only to 1575, when a special commissioner was appointed to reorganize the government under a captain general."—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin America*, p. 136. See AUDIENCIAS.

1810-1818.—Achievement of independence.—San Martín, the Liberator.—"Chili first threw off the Spanish yoke in September, 1810 [on the pretext of fidelity to the Bourbon king dethroned by Napoleon], but the national independence was not fully established till April, 1818. [See LATIN AMERICA: 1778-1824.] During the intermediate period, the dissensions of the different parties; their disputes as to the form of government and the law of election; with other distracting causes, arising out of the ambition of turbulent individuals, and the inexperience of the whole nation in political affairs; so materially retarded the union of the country, that the Spaniards, by sending expeditions from Peru, were enabled, in 1814, to regain their lost authority in Chili. Meanwhile the Government of Buenos Ayres, the independence of which had been established in 1810 [see ARGENTINA: 1806-1820], naturally dreaded that the Spaniards would not long be confined to the western side of the Andes; but would speedily make a descent upon the provinces of the River Plate, of which Buenos Ayres is the capital. In order to guard against this formidable danger, they bravely resolved themselves to become the invaders, and by great exertions equipped an army of 4,000 men. The command of this force was given to General Don José de San Martín, a native of the town of Yapeyu in Paraguay; a man greatly beloved by all ranks, and held in such high estimation by the people, that to his personal exertions the formation of this army is chiefly due. With these troops San Martín entered Chili by a pass over the Andes heretofore deemed inaccessible, and on the 12th of February, 1817, attacked and completely defeated the royal army at Chacabuco. The Chilians, thus freed from the immediate presence of the enemy, elected General O'Higgins [see PERU: 1550-1816] as Director; and he, in 1818, offered the Chilians a constitution, and nominated five senators to administer the affairs of the country. This meritorious officer, an Irishman by descent, though born in Chili, has ever since [1825] remained at the head of the government. It was originally proposed to elect General San Martín as Director; but this he steadily refused, proposing his companion in arms, O'Higgins, in his stead. The remnant of the Spanish army took refuge in Talcahuana, a fortified sea-port near Concepcion, on the southern frontier of Chili. Vigorous measures were taken to reduce this place, but, in the beginning of 1818, the Viceroy of Peru, by draining that province of its best troops, sent off a body of 5,000 men under General Osorio, who succeeded in joining the Spaniards shut up in Talcahuana. Thus reinforced, the Royal army, amounting in all to 8,000, drove back the Chilians, marched on the capital, and gained other considerable advantages; particularly in a night attack at Talca, on the 10th of March, 1818, where the Royalists almost entirely dispersed the Patriot forces. San Martín, however, who, after the battle of Chacabuco, had been named Commander-in-chief of the united armies of Chili and Buenos Ayres," rallied his army and equipped it anew so quickly that, "on the 5th of April, only 17 days after his defeat, he engaged, and, after an obstinate and sanguinary conflict, completely routed the Spanish army on the plains of Maypo. From that day Chili may date her complete inde-

pendence; for although a small portion of the Spanish troops endeavoured to make a stand at Concepcion, they were soon driven out and the country left in the free possession of the Patriots. Having now time to breathe, the Chilean Government, aided by that of Buenos Ayres, determined to attack the Royalists in their turn, by sending an armament against Peru—a great and bold measure, originating with San Martín.”—Capt. B. Hall *Extracts from a journal*, v. 1, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: J. Miller, *Memoirs of General Miller*, v. 1, ch. 4-7.—T. Sutcliffe, *Sixteen years in Chili and Peru*, ch. 2-4.—Gen. B. Mitre, *Emancipation of South America: History of San Martín*.

1820-1826.—Operations in Peru.—Aid in her struggle for independence. See PERU: 1820-1826.

1824.—First congress of South American Republics. See LATIN AMERICA: 1822-1830.

1833-1884.—Successful oligarchy and its constitution.—War with Peru and Bolivia.—“After the perfection of its national independence, the Chilean government soon passed into the permanent control of civilians, ‘while the other governments of the west coast remained prizes for military chieftains.’ Its present constitution was framed in 1833, and though it is only half a century old ‘it is the oldest written national constitution in force in all the world except our own, unless the Magna Charta of England be included in the category.’ The political history of Chile during the fifty years of its life has been that of a well ordered commonwealth, but one of a most unusual and interesting sort. Its government has never been forcibly overthrown, and only one serious attempt at revolution has been made. Chile is in name and in an important sense a republic, and yet its government is an oligarchy. Suffrage is restricted to those male citizens who are registered, who are twenty-five years old if unmarried and twenty-one if married, and who can read and write; and there is also a stringent property qualification. The consequence is that the privilege of voting is confined to an aristocracy: in 1876, the total number of ballots thrown for president was only 46,114 in a population of about two and a quarter millions. The president of Chile has immense powers of nomination and appointment, and when he is a man of vigorous will he tyrannically sways public policy, and can almost always dictate the name of his successor. The government has thus become practically vested in a comparatively small number of leading Chilean families. There is no such thing as ‘public opinion’ in the sense in which we use the phrase, and the newspapers, though ably conducted, do not attempt, as they do not desire, to change the existing order of things. ‘History,’ says Mr. Browne, ‘does not furnish an example of a more powerful political “machine” under the title of republic; nor, I am bound to say, one which has been more ably directed so far as concerns the aggrandizement of the country, or more honestly administered so far as concerns pecuniary corruption.’ The population of Chile doubled between 1843 and 1875; the quantity of land brought under tillage was quadrupled; . . . more than 1,000 miles of railroad were built; a foreign export trade of \$31,695,039 was reported in 1878; and two powerful iron-clads, which were destined to pay a most important part in Chilean affairs, were built in England. Meanwhile, the constitution was officially interpreted so as to guarantee religious toleration, and the political power of the Roman Catholic priesthood diminished. Almost everything good, except home manufactures and popular education, flourished. The development

of the nation in these years was on a wonderful scale for a South American state, and the contrast between Chile and Peru was peculiarly striking. . . . Early in 1879 began the great series of events which were to make the fortune of Chile. We use the word ‘great,’ in its low, superficial sense, and without the attribution of any moral significance to the adjective. The aggressor in the war between Chile and Peru was inspired by the most purely selfish motives, and it remains to be seen whether the just gods will not win in the long run, even though the game of their antagonists be played with heavily plated ironclads. . . . At the date last mentioned Chile was suffering, like many other nations, from a general depression in business pursuits. Its people were in no serious trouble, but as a government it was in a bad way. . . . The means to keep up a sinking fund for the foreign debt had failed, and the Chilean five per cents were quoted in London at sixty-four. ‘A political cloud also was darkening again in the north, in the renewal of something like a confederation between Peru and Bolivia.’ In this state of things the governing oligarchy of Chile decided, rather suddenly, Mr. Browne thinks, upon a scheme which was sure to result either in splendid prosperity or absolute ruin, and which contemplated nothing less than a war of conquest against Peru and Bolivia, with a view to seizing the most valuable territory of the former country. There is a certain strip of land bordering upon the Pacific and about 400 miles long, of which the northern three quarters belonged to Peru and Bolivia, the remaining one quarter to Chile. Upon this land a heavy rain never falls, and often years pass in which the soil does not feel a shower. . . . Its money value is immense. ‘From this region the world derives almost its whole supply of nitrates—chiefly saltpetre—and of iodine’; its mountains, also, are rich in metals, and great deposits of guano are found in the highlands bordering the sea. The nitrate-bearing country is a plain, from fifty to eighty miles wide, the nitrate lying in layers just below a thin sheet of impacted stones, gravel, and sand. The export of saltpetre from this region was valued in 1882 at nearly \$30,000,000, and the worth of the Peruvian section, which is much the largest and most productive, is estimated, for government purposes, at a capital of \$600,000,000. Chile was, naturally, well aware of the wealth which lay so close to her own doors, and to possess herself thereof, and thus to rehabilitate her national fortunes, she addressed herself to war. The occasion for war was easily found. Bolivia was first attacked, a difficulty which arose at her port of Antofagasta, with respect to her enforcement of a tax upon some nitrate works carried on by a Chilean company, affording a good pretext; and when Peru attempted intervention her envoy was confronted with Chile’s knowledge of a secret treaty between Peru and Bolivia, and war was formally declared by Chile upon Peru, April 5, 1879. This war lasted, with some breathing spaces, for almost exactly five years. At the outset the two belligerent powers—Bolivia being soon practically out of the contest—seemed to be about equal in ships, soldiers, and resources; but the supremacy which Chile soon gained upon the seas substantially determined the war in her favor. Each nation owned two powerful iron-clads, and six months were employed in settling the question of naval superiority. . . . On the 21st of May, 1879, the Peruvian fleet attacked and almost destroyed the Chilean wooden frigates which were blockading Iquique; but in chasing a Chilean corvette the larger Peruvian iron-clad—the Inde-

pendencia—ran too near the shore, and was fatally wrecked. 'So Peru lost one of her knights. The game she played with the other—the Huascar—was admirable, but a losing one'; and on the 8th of October of the same year the Huascar was attacked by the Chilean fleet, which included two iron-clads, and was finally captured 'after a desperate resistance.' . . . From this moment the Peruvian coast was at Chile's mercy: the Chilean arms prevailed in every pitched battle, at San Francisco [November 16, 1870], at Tacna [May 26, 1880], at Arica [June 7, 1880]; and finally, on the 17th of January, 1881, after a series of actions which resembled in some of their details the engagements that preceded our capture of the city of Mexico [ending in what is known as the battle of Miraflores], the victorious army of Chile took possession of Lima, the capital of Peru. . . . The results of the war have thus far exceeded the wildest hopes of Chile. She has taken absolute possession of the whole nitrate region, has cut Bolivia off from the sea, and achieved the permanent dissolution of the Peru-Bolivian confederation. As a consequence, her foreign trade has doubled, the revenue of her government has been trebled, and the public debt greatly reduced. The Chilean bonds, which were sold at 64 in London in January, 1870, and fell to 60 in March of that year, at the announcement of the war, were quoted at 95 in January, 1884."—*Growing power of the republic of Chile* (*Atlantic Monthly*, July, 1884).—See also PERU: 1826-1876.

ALSO IN: H. Birkedal, *Late war in South America* (*Overland Monthly*, Jan., Feb., and Mar., 1884).—C. R. Markham, *War between Peru and Chile*.—R. N. Boyd, *Chile*, ch. 16-17.—*Message of the President of the U. S., transmitting papers relating to the war in South America*, Jan. 26, 1882.—T. W. Knox, *Decisive battles since Waterloo*, ch. 23. 1884-1894.—Sale of cruiser *Esmeralda* to Japan.—Complications over transfer. See ECUADOR: 1888-1890.

1885-1891.—Presidency and dictatorship of Balmaceda.—His conflict with the Congress.—Civil war.—"Save in the one struggle in which the parties resorted to arms, the political development of Chili was free from civil disturbances, and the ruling class was distinguished among the Spanish-American nations not only for wealth and education, but for its talent for government and love of constitutional liberty. The republic was called 'the England of South America,' and it was a common boast that in Chili a pronunciamiento or a revolution was impossible. The spirit of modern Liberalism became more prevalent. . . . As the Liberal party became all-powerful it split into factions, divided by questions of principle and by struggles for leadership and office. . . . The patronage of the Chilian President is enormous, embracing not only the general civil service, but local officials, except in the municipalities, and all appointments in the army and navy and in the telegraph and railroad services and the giving out of contracts. The President has always been able to select his successor, and has exercised this power, usually in harmony with the wishes of influential statesmen, sometimes calling a conference of party chiefs to decide on a candidate. In the course of time the more advanced wing of the Liberals grew more numerous than the Moderates. The most radical section had its nucleus in a Reform Club in Santiago, composed of young university men, of whom Balmaceda was the finest orator. Entering Congress in 1868, he took a leading part in debates. . . . In 1885 he was the most popular man in the country; but his claim to the presidential suc-

cession was contested by various other aspirants—older politicians and leaders of factions striving for supremacy in Congress. He was elected by an overwhelming majority, and as President enjoyed an unexampled degree of popularity. For two or three years the politicians who had been his party associates worked in harmony with his ideas. . . . At the flood of the democratic tide he was the most popular man in South America. But when the old territorial families saw the seats in Congress and the posts in the civil service that had been their prerogative filled by new men, and fortunes made by upstarts where all chances had been at their disposal, then a reaction set in, corruption was scented, and Moderate Liberals, joining hands with the Nationalists and the reviving Conservative party, formed an opposition of respectable strength. In the earlier part of his administration Balmaceda had the co-operation of the Nationalists, who were represented in the Cabinet. In the last two years of his term, when the time drew near for selecting his successor, defection and revolt and the rivalries of aspirants for the succession threw the party into disorder and angered its hitherto unquestioned leader. . . . In January, 1890, the Opposition were strong enough to place their candidate in the chair when the House of Representatives organized. The ministry resigned, and a conflict between the executive and legislative branches of the Government was openly begun when the President appointed a Cabinet of his own selection. . . . This ministry had to face an overwhelming majority against the President, which treated him as a dictator and began to pass hostile laws and resolutions that were vetoed, and refused to consider the measures that he recommended. The ministers were cited before the Chambers and questioned about the manner of their appointment. They either declined to answer, or answered in a way that increased the animosity of Congress, which finally passed a vote of censure, in obedience to which, as was usual, the Cabinet resigned. Then Balmaceda appointed a ministry in open defiance of Congress, with Sanfuentes at its head, the man who was already spoken of as his selected candidate for the presidency. He prepared for the struggle that he invited by removing the chiefs of the administration of the departments and replacing them with men devoted to himself and his policy, and making changes in the police, the militia, and, to some extent, in the army and navy commands. The press denounced him as a dictator, and indignation meetings were held in every town. Balmaceda and his supporters pretended to be not only the champions of the people against the aristocracy, but of the principle of Chili for the Chilians."—*Appleton's annual cyclopaedia*, 1891, pp. 123-124.—"The conflict between President Balmaceda and Congress ripened into revolution. On January 1, 1891, the Opposition members of the Senate and House of Deputies met, and signed an Act declaring that the President was unworthy of his post, and that he was no longer head of the State nor President of the Republic, as he had violated the Constitution. On January 7 the navy declared in favour of the Legislature, and against Balmaceda. The President announced the navy as traitors, abolished all the laws of the country, declared himself Dictator, and proclaimed martial law. It was a reign of terror. The Opposition recruited an army in the Island of Santa Maria under General Urrutia and Commander Canto. On February 14 a severe fight took place with the Government troops in Iquique, and the Congressional army took possession of Pisagua.

In April, President Balmaceda . . . delivered a long message, denouncing the navy. . . . The contest continued, and April 7, Arica, in the province of Tarapaca, was taken by the revolutionists. Some naval fights occurred later, and the iron-clad Blanco Encalada was blown up by the Dictator's torpedo cruisers. Finally, on August 21, General Canto landed at Concon, ten miles north of Valparaiso. Balmaceda's forces attacked immediately and were routed, losing 3,500 killed and wounded. The Congress army lost 600. On the 28th a decisive battle was fought at Placilla, near Valparaiso. The Dictator had 12,000 troops, and the opposing army 10,000. Balmaceda's forces were completely routed after five hours' hard fighting, with a loss of 1,500 men. Santiago formally surrendered, and the triumph of the Congress party was complete. A Junta, headed by Señor Jorge Montt, took charge of affairs at Valparaiso August 30. Balmaceda, who had taken refuge at the Argentine Legation in Santiago, was not able to make his escape, and to avoid capture, trial, and punishment committed suicide, September 20, by shooting himself. On the 10th November Admiral Jorge Montt was chosen by the Electoral College, at Santiago, President of Chile, and on December 26 he was installed with great ceremony and general rejoicings."—*Annual Register*, 1891, p. 420.

1887.—**Trans-Andean railway.** See RAILROADS: 1872-1912.

1890.—**First Pan-American congress at Washington.** See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1890.

1891-1892.—**Difficulty with the United States.** —**Threatened war.**—During the civil war which terminated, as told above, in the overthrow and suicide of the dictatorial usurper, Balmaceda, the triumph of the Congress party, and the election to the presidency of Admiral Jorge Montt, the representative of the United States, Minister Patrick Egan, showed marked favor to Balmaceda and his party, which irritated the Chileans, and produced among them a hostile feeling towards Americans and the American government. This was increased by the action of Egan, after the defeat of the Balmacedists, in sheltering a large number of refugees of that party within the walls of the American legation. The same was done by other foreign representatives, but to no such extent, except in the case of the Spanish legation. A telegram sent by Egan on October 8 to the state department at Washington stated: "80 persons sought refuge in his legation after the overthrow of the Balmaceda government; about the same number in the Spanish legation, 8 in the Brazilian, 5 in the French, several in the Uruguayan, 2 in the German, and 1 in the English. Balmaceda sought refuge in the Argentine. All these have gone out except 15 in his own legation, 1 in the German and 5 in the Spanish." Not venturing to violate the privileges of the American minister's residence, the Chilean authorities placed it under police surveillance, and arrested a number of persons entering the premises. The minister complained, and was supported in his complaints at Washington, causing further irritation in Chile. This was again greatly increased by his claiming the right not only to shelter the refugees in his residence, but to protect them in their departure from the country. In that, too, he was sustained by his government, and the refugees were safely sent away. Meantime a more serious cause of quarrel between the two countries had arisen. A party of sailors on shore at Valparaiso, from the United States ship *Baltimore*, had been assailed

by a mob, October 16, and two were killed, while eighteen were wounded. The United States demanded satisfaction, and much angry correspondence ensued, made particularly offensive on the Chilean side by an insulting circular which Señor Matta, the Chilean foreign minister, issued December 13, and which he caused to be published in the Chilean newspapers. "The note was to the last degree insulting, and would have justified a withdrawal of our minister and a severance of diplomatic relations. The attempt was made later to set up the claim that it was a 'domestic communication' which could not be the subject of diplomatic complaint. Mr. Blaine declined to accept the view that a nation is to take no notice of an insult not directly communicated, and refused to receive as a sufficient apology a statement that the Chilean government would strike out the offensive words. . . . In the elaborate review of the difficulty made in his message of January 25, 1892, President Harrison says: 'The Communications of the Chilean government . . . have not at any time taken the form of a manly and satisfactory expression of regret, much less of apology.' This statement is accurate as to the attitude of Chile up to the end of Matta's administration. . . . When, in January, the Chilean foreign department passed into the hands of Señor Percira, a change is instantly visible; on January 4th Señor Montt at Washington officially mentioned the occurrence which 'Chile has lamented and does so sincerely lament.' Four days later he announced that he had received special instructions to state 'that the Government of Chile has felt very sincere regret for the unfortunate events which occurred in Valparaiso on the 16th of October;' and he added that his Government 'sincerely deploras the aforesaid disturbance.' Minister Montt had already suggested arbitration as a means of settling the dispute. . . . On January 16th the Chilean authorities notified Mr. Egan that they would withdraw any offensive passages in the Matta circular, and had instructed their Minister in Washington to express regret. The apology, thus expressed both in Washington and Santiago, was stiff and ungraceful, perhaps inadequate; but it was made in good faith. On January 20th, evidently feeling that all was now serene, the Chileans ventured, acting on a hint of Mr. Blaine's, to ask for Egan's withdrawal as a 'persona non grata.' What, therefore, must have been the dismay of the Chileans, on January 23d, to receive an official notice, which the newspapers dubbed an 'ultimatum,' containing the statement that the United States Government was not satisfied with the result of the judicial investigation at Valparaiso and still asked 'for a suitable apology;' that for the Matta note there must be still another 'suitable apology,' without which the United States would terminate diplomatic relations; and that the request for Mr. Egan's withdrawal could not at that time be considered. It was a bitter draught for any government; but threats of war were resounding through the United States; American naval vessels were hurriedly being made ready; coal and supplies were going into the Pacific. There was power behind the note, and Chile prepared to bend to the storm. The 'ultimatum' appears to have reached the Chileans on Saturday, January 23d. On Monday, January 25th, they sent an answer which could not possibly be read as anything but a complete and abject apology on all the three points." But on the same day on which this answer was being forwarded, the President of the United States sent a warlike message to Congress. "It rehearsed the whole con-

trovery at great length, submitted copious correspondence, and ended with the significant phrase: 'In my opinion I ought not to delay longer to bring these matters to the attention of Congress for such action as may be deemed appropriate.'

. . . It is an unprofitable controversy as to whether the authorities in Washington knew that an answer was on its way, if they had read the correspondence they knew that an answer must come, and that the Chilean Ministry must have sent a peaceful answer. It is therefore difficult to understand the purpose of the President's message. . . . The effect . . . was to inflict an unnecessary humiliation on Chile. Spanish-Americans have good memories. Mexico still cherishes resentment for the war begun against her forty-five years ago; and forty-five years hence the Chileans are likely to remember the Balmaceda affair as Americans remembered the impressment of American seamen by Great Britain. We have the apology, but with it we have the ill-will."—A. B. Hart, *Practical essays on American government, Essay 5*.—See also U. S. A.: 1891: Trouble with Chile; EXTERRITORIALITY: Application to diplomatic agents.

1894-1900.—Dispute with Bolivia and Peru concerning Atacama, Tacna and Arica.—Of the treaties which closed the war of 1879-1884 between Chile, Bolivia and Peru, that between Chile and Bolivia contained the following curious provision, of "indefinite truce," as it has been called: "Until the opportunity presents itself of celebrating a definite treaty of peace between the Republics of Chile and Bolivia, both countries duly represented by . . . have agreed to adjust a treaty of truce in accordance with the following bases: First, the Republics of Chile and Bolivia agree to celebrate an indefinite truce; and, in consequence, declare at the end the state of war, which will not be renewed unless one of the contracting parties should inform the other, with at least a year's notification, of its intention to recommence hostilities. In this case the notification will be made directly, or through the diplomatic representative of a friendly nation. Second, the Republic of Chile, while this truce is in force, shall continue to rule, in accordance with the political and administrative system established by Chilean law, the territories situated between parallel 238 and the mouth of the Loa in the Pacific, such territories having for their eastern boundary a straight line." Under this agreement Chile has held ever since the territory in question (which is the province of Atacama) and has claimed that her possession of it should be made conclusive and permanent by such a "definite treaty" as the "treaty of truce" in 1884 contemplated. In her view it was taken in lieu of a war indemnity. Bolivia has disputed this view, maintaining that a permanent cession of the province, which was her only seaboard, and without which she has no port, was not intended. The Bolivian government has continually urged claims to the restoration of a seaport for Bolivian trade, which Chile has refused. At the same time when Atacama was taken from Bolivia, the provinces of Tacna and Arica were taken by Chile from Peru, with a stipulation in the peace treaty of Ancon (1884) that she should hold them for ten years, pending the payment by Peru of a war indemnity, and that the inhabitants should then decide by vote to which country they would belong. The Chilean government, however, would not allow the vote to be taken. In September, 1900, the dispute, as between Chile and Bolivia, was brought to what seemed to be an ultimate stage by an incisive note from the Chilean to the Bolivian

government, proposing to grant to the latter "in exchange for a final cancelling of all claims to the littoral, three compensations, viz.: First, to pay all obligations contracted by the Bolivian Government with the mining enterprises at Huachaca, Corocoro and Oruro, and the balance of the Bolivian loan contracted in Chile in 1867; second, an amount of money, to be fixed by mutual agreement, for the construction of a railroad connecting any port on the Chilean coast with the interior of Bolivia, or else to extend the present Oruro Railway; and, third, to grant free transit for all products and merchandise passing into and out of Bolivia through the port referred to."

1896.—Presidential election.—An excited but orderly presidential election held in June, 1896, without government interference, resulted in the choice of Señor Errazuriz, to succeed Admiral Jorge Montt, who had been at the head of the government since the overthrow and death of Balmaceda in 1891.

1898.—Settlement of boundary dispute with Argentina. See ARGENTINA: 1898.

1900.—Adoption of compulsory military service.—The *Diario Oficial* of Chile of September 5, 1900, published a decree of the Chilean government establishing compulsory military service in Chile. By the decree all Chileans will be liable to military service from their twentieth to their forty-fifth year. Every man on completing his twentieth year will be liable to be chosen by lot to serve one year with the colors, after which, if so chosen, he will pass into the first reserve, where he will remain for nine years. Those not chosen by lot to serve one year with the colors will pass directly into the first reserve. The second reserve will consist of men of from thirty to forty-five years of age. Among those who will be exempt from compulsory military service are the members of the government, members of Congress, state and municipal councillors, judges, the clergy, including all those who wear the tonsure, or belong to any religious order, the directors and teachers of public schools and colleges, and the police. The last, however, will be liable to military duty if called upon by the president. Various civil servants and every only son, or every one of two only sons of a family which he assists to maintain, may be excused service under certain conditions.

1900.—Vote against compulsory arbitration at Spanish-American congress. See SPAIN: 1900 (November).

1901.—Death of President Errazuriz.—General German Riesco chosen to succeed him.—"The Republic had the misfortune to lose by death the services of President Errazuriz. In July General German Riesco was elected by an overwhelming majority, and the significance of the choice of him was regarded as lying in the unification of all shades of Liberals. His programme was that of financial reform."—*Annual Register*, 1901, p. 441.

1901-1902.—Participation in second international conference of American republics held at the city of Mexico.—"A matter that aroused some interest was the attitude of Chile in the Pan-American Congress held late in the year in Mexico. Chile accepted the invitation to the gathering only on the condition that resolutions should not be of a retroactive character, or include subjects, present or past, in which Chile had an interest. The object of this restriction was to exclude Chile from decisions of the Congress in questions such as that of International Arbitration, thus leaving her a free hand in regard to her frontier controversies with Argentina, Bolivia and Peru."—

Annual Register, 1901, pp. 441-442.—See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1901-1902.

1902.—Treaties with Argentina for obligatory arbitration. See ARGENTINA: 1902.

1903.—Sale of war vessels to Great Britain.—Pursuant to her convention with Argentina, for the reduction of armaments, Chile, in this year, sold two newly built war vessels to Great Britain.

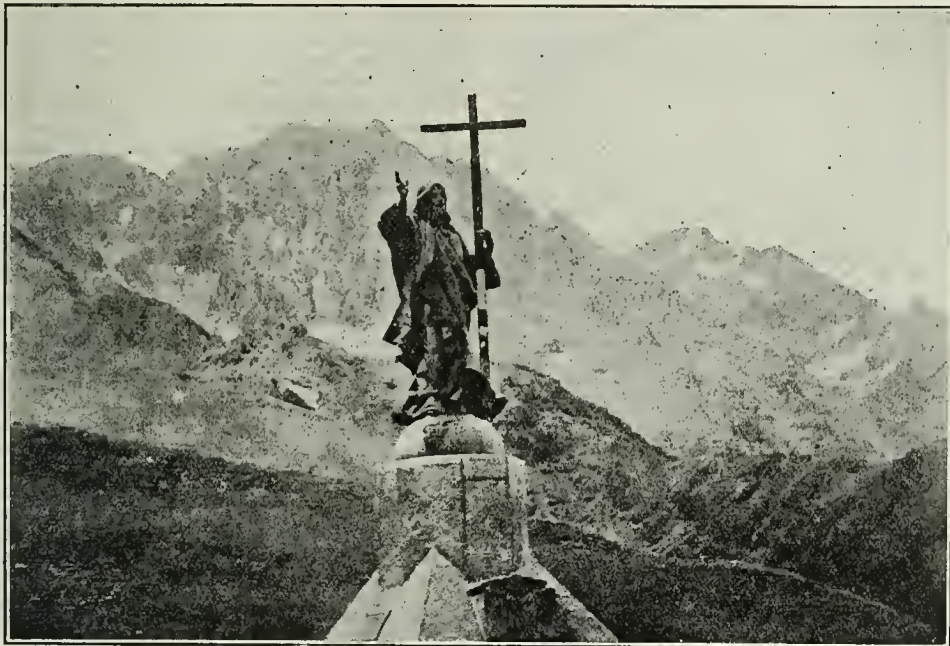
1904.—Treaty with Bolivia over seaport question. See below 1909-1912; BOLIVIA: 1920-1921.

1906.—Participation in third international conference of American republics at Rio de Janeiro. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1906.

1906.—Installation of President Montt.—Don Pedro Montt, elected president of Chile in June,

pedo boat destroyers, and two submarines at an expenditure of \$14,000,000."—See also WAR, PREPARATION FOR: 1909: Chilian navy building.

1909-1910.—Completion of Trans-Andean railway tunnel and Trans-Andean railway via Uspallata pass.—"The first step in the progressive policy of railway building in which Chile has been engaged in recent years, was the Construction of the Transandine Railway via Uspallata Pass. This important line, connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific, and giving to the Republic rail connections with countries to the east of the Andean range, brought the importance of better interior transportation facilities more closely to the minds of the people, and the result has been a period of railway building surpassing the expectation of the most radical advocates of an aggressive indus-



CHRIST OF THE ANDES

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Monument erected to commemorate the treaty (1902) which insured permanent peace between Chile and Argentine

1906, was installed in office on September 10 following—the anniversary of Chilean independence.

1906.—Earthquake at Valparaiso. See VALPARAISO: 1906.

1907.—Diplomatic relations with Peru re-established.—Diplomatic relations with Peru were re-established in 1907; but the old sore question between the two countries, concerning the interpretation of the peace treaty of Ancon (1884), relative to the provinces of Tacna and Arica, which Chile took from Peru in the preceding war remained open. (See above 1894-1900.)

1909 (October.)—Naval plans.—It was reported from Santiago de Chile to the English press, October 21, 1909, that "the government has decided upon a naval expenditure of £4,000,000 which includes a 20,000-ton battleship, two ocean-going destroyers, and several submarines. Instructions for tenders have been sent to the commission in London." A later message to the American press, November 12, stated that "the naval program decided upon by the Chilian government, provides for the construction of one battleship, four tor-

trial policy. . . . On May 25, 1910, the first train was run through the tunnel and an all-rail route opened between Valparaiso and Buenos Ayres, a distance of 888 miles,—the first railroad across the South American continent. Thus after thirty-seven years of work and planning, vicissitudes and discouragements, the hopes of the promoters were realized and the Transandine Railway an accomplished fact."—R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, pp. 212-214.

ALSO IN: F. J. G. Maitland, *Chile*, p. 191.

1909-1910.—Mineral wealth and progress.—"Copper and nitrate are the two mineral products which have made the name of Chile universally known. The exploitation of copper began early in the seventeenth century, and the ore extracted from the mines of Coquimbo was sufficient to satisfy the needs of local consumption and to supply the demand of the vice-royalty of Perú, where it was principally used in the casting of ordnance. In the eighteenth century copper-mining spread to the provinces of Atacama and Aconcagua, and at the beginning of the nineteenth century

so many mines were in operation that the Chilean Industry became the most important in the world. . . . Until the end of 1882 this country occupied first place amongst copper-producing countries, but from that date the United States and other countries began to produce on a large scale, surpassing the Chilean yield. . . . The most detailed statistics available with respect to the production of copper from the commencement of the working of this mineral to the end of 1909 gave a total of 2,207,908 tons with a value of £135,324,092. . . . Nitrate constitutes the most important of Chile's mineral products. From the time when the Tarapacá and Antofagasta territories passed into the possession of Chile the nitrate industry made great strides; the output, which in 1879 was approximately 60,000 tons, increased ten years later to 950,000 and now reaches 2,350,000, with a customs house value of £17,675,006. But this enormous development has only been attained within the last ten years, during which time an intelligently conducted propaganda has succeeded in making known, in a scientific and practical form, the advantages accruing from the use of nitrate as a nitrogenous fertilizer in agriculture. Nitrate, as is well known, is extracted from the saline deposits which exist in immense abundance in the province of Tarapacá and Antofagasta, where they form layers of varying thickness. It occurs as a rule mixed with other salts, from which it has to be separated. The raw material, known as *claiiche*, is treated in large establishments by means of a solution-and-evaporation process. . . . In 1910 there were in operation 108 *ofcinas* (or factories), which employed 25,000 hands. . . . Iodine [iodine], in restricted quantities, is extracted from the liquid solution of the nitrate deposits. . . . The total production of nitrate in Chile from 1878 to 1909 was 33,060,182 tons, of which the value is estimated at £235,433,071. The total output of iodine in the same period was 8,975 tons, worth £9,511,713. In addition to nitrate and iodine many other mineral substances are exploited, among which coal, natural borates, guano, sulphur, and common salt are worthy of mention. Coal mining is assured of a great future in Chile, which possesses a very extensive carboniferous zone, but up to the present it is a source of wealth which has not been exploited on a very large scale. The present output amounts to about 1,000,000 tons a year, and it is computed that from 1840 to 1909 the production was 26,617,574 tons, with a value of £22,402,910. The mining statistics for 1909 give the following *résumé*, which demonstrates the importance of this branch of national production:

	Output	Value
Copper	42,726 tons	£ 1,985,814
Gold	40,695 ounces	88,168
Silver	1,420,735 "	77,932
Coal	808,971 tons	876,497
Nitrate	2,101,512 "	13,135,253
Iodine	474 "	417,889
Borate	32,218 "	342,790
Sulphur	4,507 "	40,569
Guano	10,692 "	31,879

The total value of the mineral production in Chile in 1909 is calculated at £19,583,912. As may be seen, nitrate, with the iodine derived from it, is easily first in importance, far surpassing other sources of Chilean mineral wealth. Nitrate and iodine contribute to the State, in the shape of export duties, a sum which in 1910 amounted to £6,029,533, of which only £55,381 was paid on

export of iodine. In addition to copper, silver, gold and lead are mined in Chile, and of late the iron ores of exceptional quality which occur in great abundance in the country have been exploited. . . . Broadly speaking, the production of silver, or rather the working of the silver mines, is a decadent industry. Important mines are, however, carried on in Tarapacá and other provinces, the principal centre of production being for the present the department of Taltal. Seeing that the majority of the silver mines are situated amongst calcareous rocks it is remarkable that the calcination process is not adopted for smelting with copper ores to produce argentiferous regulus, which would be easily marketable in Europe. . . . Gold-mining, in the last few years, has declined considerably, for the fine gold produced in 1909 amounted only to 1,603 ounces, as against 12,952 ounces six years previously, that is in 1903. There are many gold mines which are not worked because the treatment of the ores requires special plants, according to their nature, and also would necessitate the investment of capital which is used to better advantage and with less risk in other industries. This state of affairs has effected a stoppage of numerous plants. However, the recent discovery in the Constitución district may, if report speaks true, do much to revive the industry. It is said that . . . a *peon*, having purchased the foundations of an old house, found amongst the fallen masonry a stone which contained a considerable quantity of gold. Learning that the stones originally came from a neighbouring hill he investigated the site, with the result that, within a week, gold to the value of £15,000 was extracted from the soft quartz matrix in which it occurs. A company has been formed to exploit the deposit, and at the time of writing the find has created a species of 'gold rush.' . . . In 1910 was started the exploitation of the rich iron mine *El Tofo*, in Coquimbo, which belongs to the French iron prospecting company that established blast furnaces at Corral, Valdivia, for the smelting of ingots. The exportation to England of 65 per cent. ferruginous ores free from undesirable substances has also been commenced. Chile's wealth in iron ores is fabulous, and when it is better known it will attract much attention in the metallurgical centres of Europe."—J. P. Canto, *Chile: an account of its wealth and progress*, pp. 227-230.

Also in: G. J. Mills, *Chile*, pp. 142-156.
 1909-1911.—Arbitration of the Alsop claim of the United States.—"Many years ago diplomatic intervention became necessary to the protection of the interests in the American claim of Alsop and Company against the government of Chili. The government of Chili had frequently admitted obligation in the case, and had promised this government to settle it. There had been two abortive attempts to do so through arbitral commissions, which failed through lack of jurisdiction. Now, happily, as the result of the recent diplomatic negotiations, the governments of the United States and Chili, actuated by the sincere desire to free from any strain those cordial and friendly relations upon which both set such store, have agreed by a protocol to submit the controversy to definitive settlement by his Britannic Majesty, Edward VII."—*Message to Congress of President Taft*, Dec., 1909.

The claim referred to is that of "the Alsop Company of New York and Connecticut" which advanced large sums of money to the Bolivian government in exchange for the right to valuable guano deposits in that country and other concessions. The government contracted further to return

a part of the loan from the receipts of customs at the port of Arica. Before her contract could be fulfilled Bolivia lost Arica and the adjoining districts to Chili in war. In 1885, following representations by the American State Department, Chili agreed to assume the obligations of Bolivia to the Alsop Company. The settlement of the Alsop claim was finally made on July 5, 1911, King George V acting as *aimable compositeur*. The amount offered by Chile was \$450,000, but the arbitrator finally decided that Chile was to pay to the claimants through the United States the sum of \$935,000.

1909-1912.—Contract given for the Arica-La Paz railway.—Railway completed.—“An important division of the State railways is the line extending from Arica to La Paz. This road, constructed in accordance with stipulations in the treaty celebrated between Chile and Bolivia, October, 1904, was built at the expense of the Chilean government at a cost of \$11,900,000 United States currency. The treaty agreement providing for this road caused a vigorous protest from the Peruvian government, as the route lies through the province of Arica which, previous to the war of 1879, was Peruvian territory, and which is still involved in the Tacna and Arica question.”—R. E. Mansfield, *Progressive Chile*, pp. 215-216.—The contract for the construction was awarded in 1909 and the road was completed in 1912. See RAILROADS: 1872-1912.

1910.—Presidential election.—President Pedro Montt died at Bremen on August 16 and Vice-President Elias Fernández Albano who had been acting as chief executive in the absence of the president continued in that capacity. He died on September 6 while the campaign for the election of president was going on. Ramón Barros Luco was chosen president.

1910.—Fourth Pan-American congress. See AMERICAN REPUBLICS, INTERNATIONAL UNION OF: 1910.

1913.—Opening of Arica-La Paz railway.—Protocol with Bolivia. See BOLIVIA: 1913 (May).

1914.—A B C conference at Niagara Falls. See A B C CONFERENCE; U. S. A.: 1914 (April).

1914.—Declaration of neutrality.—Chilean government adopts conditions of second peace conference of The Hague.—“Chile was so far removed from the scene of the war in Europe and had so few ships engaged in European trade that her government did not have the same provocation that others had. Furthermore, German propaganda had made great headway in Chile and the Chilean army, trained by German officers, was strongly pro-German. In the navy, on the other hand, sentiment was strongly in favor of the Allies. This was a matter of tradition, for since the days of Lord Cochrane the Chilean navy has followed English ideals. Under these circumstances Chile remained neutral, though before the end of the war public sentiment had shifted to the side of the Allies.”—J. H. Latané, *United States and Latin America*, p. 316. (See LATIN AMERICA, 1914.)—“The first official notification of the breaking out of War that the [Chilean] Government received was the following:

“IMPERIAL GERMAN LEGATION,
“SANTIAGO, 3RD AUGUST, 1914.

“SIR, By order of my Government, I have the honour to inform you that the German Empire is at war with Russia from the first of August of this year. I avail myself of this opportunity to

reiterate to Your Excellency the assurance of my highest consideration.

(Signed) “VON ECKERT.

“TO MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.’

“The Minister answered in accordance with diplomatic usage:

“SANTIAGO, 3RD AUGUST, 1914.

“SIR, I have the honour to acknowledge receipt of Your Excellency's note of the 3rd inst. in which you, by order of your Government, graciously bring to the knowledge of this Department, that the German Empire is at war with Russia since the first of August of this year. I take due note of this State of War, and manifest to Your Excellency that the Government of Chile will maintain the strictest neutrality in the actual conflict. I offer very sincere prayers for the speedy reestablishment of Peace, and reiterate to Your Excellency the assurance of my most distinguished consideration.

(Signed) “E. VILLEGAS E.

“TO HIS EXCELLENCY VON ECKERT, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Germany.’

“The later notifications of a State of War, made by other countries, received analogous replies, and thus the attitude of the Republic was outlined with precision. The countries which were not directly affected by the hostilities declared, or which were not leagued with the belligerent nations by Treaties of Alliance, replied in the same manner. Very few days after the 7th of August, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, addressed himself to the Department of Home Affairs, of War, and of the Army and Navy, impressing on them the line of conduct to which the Government had determined to adjust itself, to make the neutrality adopted, as effective as possible. The communication of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs stated that ‘The Government of Chile which subscribed the Convention of the second Peace Conference of the Hague in 1907 relative to the rights and duties of the Powers and neutral persons in case of war, accepted the conditions of that Convention, which are inspired by the principles of International Law universally recognised, and consequently, although the Convention has not been ratified, the principles laid down therein constitute the only authorised norms to which the conduct of the Authorities and habitants of the Republic should be adjusted, in regard to the maintaining of neutrality. In conformity with this criterion, I shall be obliged to you, Sir, if you will be good enough to impart to the Intendants and Governors, the instructions necessary to enable them to make known, to the habitants of the national territory, the neutrality declared by the Government of the Republic, as also the conduct which should be observed towards the belligerents, in conformity with the beforenamed Hague Convention, of which I herewith transmit an authorised copy for you, Sir.’ The Minister of Foreign Affairs made no delay in addressing the Naval Department, so as to determine what rules should be observed on the coasts, in the ports and territorial waters in respect to the navigation of neutral ships, the supervision of all ships, and the provisioning and movements of them, which might signify a breach of neutrality.”—E. Rocuant, *Neutrality of Chile*, pp. 21-23.

1914.—Neutrality violated by von Spee at Valparaiso. See WORLD WAR: 1914: IX. Naval operations: f, 2.

1914.—Percentage of railroads controlled by government. See RAILROADS: 1917-1919.

1914-1915.—Effect of the World War on commerce and industry.—“Although the effects of the general world-wide depression were felt in Chile throughout the year 1913 and during the six months of 1914 immediately preceding the outbreak of the European War, the acuteness of the depression was not so marked as in the other leading countries of South America, notably the Argentine, Brazil, and Peru. The main reason for the more favorable situation of Chile” was that “the local situation was not aggravated by a reaction against a long period of speculative inflation, such as characterized Argentine and Brazilian commercial conditions during the years 1910 to 1913, inclusive. While it is true that world conditions were not favorable either to the nitrate or to the copper market—the two great products of Chile—the depression was not sufficient to lead to any serious curtailment of production. In fact, during the months of May, June, and July, 1914, there were marked indications of a healthy renewal of business. It was generally expected that the year would end with a record of real improvement over 1913. The war came as a blight to all these prospects. The fact that Chile is essentially a ‘one-product country’ and that not only the general prosperity of the country but also the stability of government finances are dependent on the conditions of the nitrate market, means that any influence that seriously affects the demand for nitrate immediately reacts throughout the entire country. The European War, at one blow, practically destroyed the nitrate market for the time being. Up to the outbreak of the war Europe was the market for this product. . . . The uncertainties of transportation due to the presence of belligerent fleets in the Pacific completely paralyzed shipping and thus made it impossible to meet even the reduced demands of Europe. The importance of nitrate as a factor in the international trade of Chile is seen from the fact that in 1913 it represented \$111,454,397 out of a total export of \$142,801,576. . . . The nitrate producers found themselves facing a situation which threatened ruin. During the first six months of 1914 the production of nitrate was 32,748,900 quintals of 101.4 pounds as compared with 30,002,777 quintals during the first six months of 1913. Exportation during the first six months of 1914 was 24,144,211 quintals as compared with 26,922,030 for the same period of 1913.”—L. S. Rowe, *Early effects of the European war on the finance, commerce and industry of Chile*, pp. 25-26.

1915 (March).—Diplomatic controversy with Great Britain.—“Chile had a slight diplomatic controversy with Great Britain in March, owing to the British cruiser *Glasgow* sinking the German cruiser *Dresden* in Chilean territorial water, off the Juan Fernandez Islands on March 14. On March 26th the Chilean Minister in London sent a note to Sir Edward Grey making complaints relative to this incident. . . . Sir Edward Grey replied that the British Government made a full apology to the Chilean Government for the incident.”—*Annual Register*, 1915, pp. 350-351.

1915.—Presidential election.—“In the summer the presidential elections were held, the successful candidate being Señor Don Juan Luis Sanfuentes. In a manifesto to the country, the new President declared that the financial difficulties arising out of the war had been overcome and that a prosperous period might be expected. In spite of that optimistic declaration, the Budget of 1915 showed a very serious estimated deficit. . . . The new

President, in accordance with the usual custom, did not actually assume office until December.”—*Annual Register*, 1915, p. 351.

1915.—Formation of A B C alliance.—Reasons. See LATIN AMERICA: 1912-1915.

1915.—Pan-American conference. See U. S. A.: 1915 (August-October).

1916-1917. — Dispute with Argentina over Straits of Magellan. See ARGENTINA: 1916-1917.

1919.—Status of education.—“The most advanced republics (of Latin America) from the educational standpoint are Argentina, Chile and Uruguay. . . . Chile maintains over 2,500 primary schools, some 75 secondary schools, 16 training colleges, as well as 6 agricultural colleges, 10 commercial schools, 3 mining schools, and 29 technical schools for women, where all kinds of practical work are taught, also a school of art, music, and drama. Chile owes much of her educational advance to the work of Balmaceda [see above 1885-1891]. There are two Chilean universities, a National University and a Catholic University.”—W. W. Sweet, *History of Latin America*, p. 230.—See also EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: Latin America.

1920.—Organization of permanent board for conciliation and arbitration of labor disputes.—“A permanent board has been organized in Chile for the conciliation and arbitration of labor disputes. The board is composed of seven members, two representing industrial establishments and two representing labor, the remaining three members being designated by the Government. When the board is in session each of the interested parties, employers and laborers, shall designate, respectively, three representatives. After receiving the petitions of the parties in controversy, and duly considering industrial conditions and the possible effects on labor and capital in granting these petitions, the board shall render a decision, such decision to be accompanied by the supporting reasons. In any particular case the discussion may continue five days, during which the cessation of labor operations is prohibited. Arbitration is subject to the consent of both parties.”—*Monthly Labor Review*, Sept., 1920, pp. 197-198.

1920.—Increase in navy.—In 1920 Chile purchased ten naval vessels, mainly gunboats and armored cruisers.

1920 (June).—Presidential election.—Political tendencies. — Parties. — Platforms. — Method of electing the president.—“By a majority of one, the electoral vote finally standing 177 to 176, Arturo Alessandri, the Liberal Alliance candidate, has been declared President of Chile. When the popular election was held the vote for presidential electors stood 179 for Alessandri and 175 for Barros Borgoño, the candidate of the National Union, but the final decision as to who should be the next president lay with a Court of Honor formed with the consent of both parties to pass on the qualifications of the electors. This Court decided in favor of Alessandri by a vote of five to two, and the Chilean Congress has accordingly proclaimed him president, and has ended an election which was the greatest and most significant that ever took place in Chile. In the Constitution of 1833, the fundamental document of Chile, there is the following statement: ‘There is no privileged class in Chile.’ Justice requires one to say that there has been a steady and notable social advance in Chilean affairs since that sentence was written, but candor compels one to add that it never was and is not yet representative of the truth. There has always been a more or less dominant aristocracy in Chile, made up largely

of the great land-owners and the church. For many years they were the directing force in all branches of Chilean life. The first great break from traditional influences came during the presidency of Balmaceda, toward the close of the nineteenth century. Meeting with tremendous opposition in his efforts for reform, Balmaceda illegally assumed dictatorial powers. There followed the revolution of 1891, in which Balmaceda was defeated, committing suicide rather than surrender to his opponents. Balmaceda's reforms, many of which were aimed against the church, have since his death in great part been attained, but it is not precisely on their account that he stands out as a great figure in Chilean history. Rather it is because he is looked upon as the martyr in the fight on behalf of the masses. Their cause has made great strides since 1891. The Conservatives, the traditionalist party in Chilean politics, are no longer dominant, though they have heretofore held the balance of power—and may yet. The Liberals are now the most numerous element, but they have split into four groups: Liberals proper (*Doctrinarios*); Liberal Democrats (or Balmacedists); Nationals; and Nationalists. The Liberals, however, are no longer the chosen prophets of the people. Two new parties have appeared, one of which, the Radical, has pushed forward so rapidly that it is now the most numerous single group in Chilean politics. The Radicals represent what was until recent years a new element in Chilean society. They contain the bulk of the fast-growing, educated 'middle class.' They are the party of the youth of Chile, standing for social and political reforms which are not at all 'radical,' as that word is understood in the United States, but more in line with what North Americans would term 'progressive.' They are bitter enemies of the traditionalist elements, and are greatly feared by the church. A second party, the Democrats, is made up mainly of laborers, whose radicalism is more extreme than that of the Radicals. They had not heretofore attained to any considerable power, but the importance of their rôle in the recent election cannot be denied. There are also some other insignificant groups—Socialists, for example. Straight through and across these groups there is another line of cleavage, made necessary by the cabinet system and the election of a president both of which demand a majority. Thus there has sprung into being what amounts to two parties, the National Union and the Liberal Alliance. Both have their origin in the Liberal party. Strangely enough, some members of a single group may belong to the Alliance and others to the Union. Most of the Liberals, however, lined up with the Union. The real strength of the Alliance was the Radical party. The Democrats and Socialists were also enthusiastic supporters of the Alliance. On the other hand, the Conservatives threw their weight to the Union. Both candidates for the presidency—Señor Alessandri and Barros Borgoño—were not only Liberals, but also *Doctrinarios*, belonging, that is, to the same group, but the real battle was between the Radicals and Conservatives, as personified in the opposing candidates.

"A natural query on the part of North Americans would be: What were the issues in the recent campaign? A study of the two platforms would lead one to believe that there were none, for both proclaimed the same things, differing only in phraseology and in degree. Thus, both came out strongly for educational reform, emphasizing the same needs; both stood for the protection of national products; and both called for legislation

on behalf of the workingman. And yet there is a profound difference between the two parties, though it is mainly psychological and exists to a great extent in the minds of each with respect to the other. The Union holds that its members are the 'true Chileans,' not opposed to reforms, but wishing to advance toward them at a safe and sure pace. The Alliance considers the Unionists reactionaries, opposed to any and all reform, lest it injure their selfish interests, and its own members to be progressives, standing for a hastening of internal reforms. The Union regards them as dangerous innovators, ready to ruin the country to vent their spite on the church and the aristocracy. These feelings found perfect expression in the two candidates. Barros is the type of man who would appeal to certain elements of the better educated classes. Member of an old Chilean family which has produced one of the greatest historians in Hispanic-American historiography (Barros Arana), he, too, has won distinction as historian and man of letters; for years he was a professor in the University of Chile; his political achievements have been more than usually notable, especially in his capacity of Minister of Foreign Affairs; and to round out a long, varied, and successful career, he is at present one of the leading figures in the most powerful banking institution in the country. Nor can it be claimed that he is an out-and-out reactionary. Indeed, his nomination displeased the Conservatives, because in the past he has advocated reforms that were unwelcome to the church; before they would join the Union they exacted certain pledges from him. Barros is therefore a figure that commands respect. But he does not possess the divine fire that wins the multitude. Alessandri is just the opposite kind of man. He is a new man, of Italian descent, a self-made man, and a young man for a Hispanic-American presidential candidate, for he is only in the forties. For some twenty years he has been well-known as a lawyer and politician. As Deputy, Senator, and Cabinet Minister, he has won a reputation for fearlessness and for moving oratory, such that he is known popularly as 'the Lion of Tarapacá' (the province he represents). He is distinctly a man for the attack. . . . No man in Chile has been more severely maligned. Every other person one meets will tell you of 'crooked deals' that Alessandri has been mixed up in, but the masses either do not believe these charges or do not care about them. Never have I known a man to be so enthusiastically accepted as the prophet of the people. On June 25 the election was held. In Santiago there were mounted carbineers and lancers everywhere; policemen and soldiers, be it said in passing, do not possess the vote. The day was more like the occasion of a glad picnic, however, than a riot, for the manifest Alessandri sentiment was overwhelming, almost to the complete exclusion of any in favor of Barros. On ensuing days news items were given out proclaiming—what seemed incredible—that Barros was winning, or at least making it clear that Alessandri could win by only a narrow margin. Then indeed there was a little trouble. Business houses closed (with shutters down), street cars stopped running, crowds of ragged commoners filled the center, and soldiers were at all strategic corners. Now and then there were mild clashes, serious only in that they might have become worse. Alessandri himself saved the situation, calling upon the people to return to work. The prophet had spoken, and all became again serene. Chile has long been a country of two principal and widely separated classes, the aristocracy and the *rotos* (literally, the 'broken'), as the common people are

usually called. The lot of the *roto* has indeed improved, and many have emerged therefrom into the comparatively new middle class, but the majority of Chileans are still utterly poor, illiterate, and almost without hope. Leading politicians can refer to them as 'canaille' or 'rag-bags' (*chusma*) without fear of damage to their career; indeed, that happened during the recent campaign. To be sure, great numbers of the *rotos* do not possess the vote, since the law disfranchises those who cannot read and write, but there are many who do vote. They certainly do! For in Chile vote-buying has not been frowned down by public opinion. In past elections the *roto* got five or ten pesos (\$1 or \$2). This time it was different. The Alliance organized a League Against Vote-buying, which their opponents styled a 'League to Monopolize Vote-buying for the Alliance,' and the *rotos* resolved to stand by Alessandri. Unquestionably many votes were bought, and by both parties, even though the price went up to fifty, a hundred, and as much as two hundred pesos. Many took these sums from Union supporters, but voted for Alessandri just the same. But the real heroes, of whom one hears on every side—I have even heard men of opposite party refer to them with a certain amount of pride—were the thousands in all parts of Chile who refused even the semblance of being bought. In some cases they took the money, and tore it to shreds before the eyes of their would-be corrupters. This, to my mind, is the most admirable and by all odds most hopeful, sign in Chilean politics in recent years. It gives one confidence in the future of Chile. Here there is the making of a real democracy!

"Outwardly the Chilean method of electing a president is quite like our own. The people vote for electors, who a month later cast ballots for the president. One important difference in the Chilean system is that electoral districts are separate. Thus the vote of each province (state) and even of each department (county) does not go as a unit, but may, and usually does, split. Speaking generally, northern Chile, the mining district, went for Alessandri. The Union displayed most strength in central Chile, an agricultural section of vast estates and the nucleus of the country. The far south, the new and coming Chile, a land of great variety (though mainly agricultural), leaned toward the Alliance. Santiago, though in the center, seemed to be all for Alessandri, but on the official return he carried the department by twenty to nineteen, and lost the province twenty-nine to twenty-two. Great numbers of those who cheered, sang, and paraded in his honor must have been non-voting illiterates. It was five days before the vote of Santiago was declared. Three days more, and the full count for the country was announced as 179 for Alessandri to 175 for Barros Borgoño. Not until the last day was the former assured of his majority. Late in July the electors cast their ballots. One month afterward Congress was to pass judgment on the legitimacy of the electoral vote, but at the suggestion of Eduardo Juarez Mujica, former Chilean Ambassador to the United States, the Court of Honor was formed instead, and both parties agreed to abide by its decision. In addition to the political factors already indicated for which this election is significant—the rise of a new democracy and the installation in the presidency of the first candidate of the people in Chilean history—there are two others worthy of note. One is that the presidency is returning to its one-time prestige. Formerly the president was the principal element in the Government, even going so far as virtually to chose his successor. The

revolution against Balmaceda ended that. Then Chile went to the opposite extreme, making Congress the arbiter. In imitation of the English system, the cabinet, representing the majority in Congress, took charge of the executive branch. The president was merely to 'preside,' as the king of England 'reigns,' but was not to 'rule.' This system has, however, proved something of a failure, because of the instability of Congressional majorities. The average life of a cabinet has been about three months; during four months recently there were four cabinets. Inevitably, therefore, the president has been recovering prestige and power, even though legally he is still a figurehead. The importance which all classes attach to the present election is proof enough that the presidency is no longer what the victors of 1891 intended it to be. At the least it amounts to an active party leadership. It seems inevitable that some change in the method of choosing the president will be made. The Unionist papers are advocating the French system, of election by Congress. There are two preliminary questions that ought first to be solved, it would seem. Is it possible, or advisable, to have that system when the president is not in fact an innocuous abstraction like the president of France? Is it advisable, or possible, to have it until such time as a thoroughgoing reform shall have removed Congress from even the suspicion of the venality and graft from which few Chileans of the present day absolve it? The basic question, after all, is not one of constitutional systems, but rather the development of a civic righteousness which will insist upon clean politics—whatever the system—and will then abide by the result. Such a spirit, I believe, has made its appearance (at least in one of its aspects) in the present election. This is a new force, of which it is to be hoped, for the good of Chile, that the leaders of both parties will avail themselves."—C. E. Chapman, *Chilean elections* (*Nation*, Oct. 20, 1920, pp. 445-446).

1920-1921.—Dispute with Bolivia over sea-ports. See BOLIVIA: 1920-1921.

1921-1922.—Invitation to Chile and Peru by President of United States for a conference at Washington to settle the Tacna-Arica quarrel.—Bolivia excluded.—"On Dec. 23, 1921, President Alessandri addressed a note to the Peruvian Government, asking that representatives of both countries be appointed to negotiate the settlement of the unfulfilled clauses of the Ancón Treaty [1884]. After an exchange of views, negotiations were dropped owing to the impossibility of attaining a similar point of view, Peru's intentness on demanding that the whole treaty be declared null and void, and the settlement of the whole territorial dispute, including the Province of Tarapacá, be referred to arbitration. On Jan. 17, President Harding sent notes to the Governments of Peru and Chile inviting them to meet at Washington, 'on neutral and friendly soil,' to negotiate directly an accord upon 'the unfulfilled clauses of the Treaty of Peace,' or else to find their way toward arbitration of the controversy, now more than thirty years old. Later, Bolivia presented its claims before the White House, asking to be represented in the negotiations. President Harding, however, on Feb. 28, declined to interfere, leaving the matter entirely to a mutual agreement between Chile and Peru."—*New York Times Current History*, May, 1922, p. 340.

The conference opened on May 15, 1922, attended by two "official observers" sent by Bolivia. Secretary of State Hughes emphatically declared to the meeting that the success of the conference

would be left entirely in the hands of the countries therein represented, which statement definitely allayed any suspicion that the United States government would play a part in the proceedings. The Tacna-Arica controversy was the principal point of discussion, both sides firmly insisting on the exclusion of Bolivia from the deliberations. The conference progressed slowly owing to the fact that the delegates were invested with limited powers, all important decisions having to be referred to their respective governments. After two months of discussion it was announced on July 14 that a provisional protocol of an agreement for the arbitration of the unfulfilled clauses of the Ancon Treaty would be signed shortly. [A] "deadlock which the conference faced at the beginning of June had been broken with the Chilean proposal that the United States be invited to arbitrate the conditions under which the Tacna-Arica plebiscite should be held. The Peruvian Government answered that, the plebiscite having been postponed for so many years, changed conditions had altered the terms of the problem. It insisted, therefore, that all three demands stipulated in its proposal should be considered as interlocked. They were: (1) To submit to arbitration whether in the present circumstances the plebiscite should be held or not. (2) If a plebiscite should not be held, the arbitrator to decide to which country shall be given the final dominion over Tacna and Arica, and under what conditions. (3) If a plebiscite should be held, the arbitrator to decide on the conditions to the plebiscite. . . . [Following an appeal to Mr. Hughes, the latter proposed a middle course to the effect that] in the event of an affirmative decision by the arbitrator, the conditions of the plebiscite will be fixed by him, but if the decision is against the plebiscite the Chilean and Peruvian governments will call another conference for the purpose of deciding how article 3 of the Treaty of Ancon shall be fulfilled. . . . By the second week in July it was evident that the results of the conference depended mainly on the skill and directness of Secretary Hughes's action. Minor questions, such as the scope of the arbitration in the fixation of the conditions of the plebiscite, were discussed in the meanwhile. Also a rectification of the boundaries of the province of Tacna, with reference to the disputed districts of Tarata on the north and Chilcaya on the south . . . was under consideration. . . . The second week in July the protocol began to be drafted. With the substitution of the term 'good offices' for the arbitration demanded by Peru in case the plebiscite were declared void by the United States, Chile met practically every one of the demands presented by Peru. . . . The signing of the protocol marked the end of the first act of the negotiations. After its ratification by both governments, special commissions must come again to Washington to present the case for each country and plead their claims to the territory of Tacna and Arica. . . . Thus, at last, there is concrete ground to expect a lasting settlement of the conflicting claims which sprang out of the faulty wording of clause 3 of the Ancon Treaty subscribed between Peru and Chile at the close of the war fought by Peru and Bolivia against Chile from 1879 to 1883."—*Current History*, August, 1922, p. 910.

ALSO IN: M. Wright, *Republic of Chile*.—A. S. Chisholm, *Independence of Chile*.—N. O. Winter, *Chile and her people of today*.

CHILE, Constitution of: Abstract and text.—"By the constitution of the 25th May, 1833, still in force, though repeatedly amended, the republican

form of government was confirmed and declared to consist of the Legislative, Executive and Judicial branches. Although important in details, the amendments of 1888 and 1890 and 1892 did not materially modify the original provision, the centralised form of administration being retained. Legislative Power rests in the National Congress, composed of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. Senators are elected as representatives of provinces by direct cumulative vote, for a period of six years. There is one senator for every three deputies, and one-third of the Senate is renewed every two years. Senators must not be less than 36 years of age and have a fixed income. Deputies are elected by direct cumulative vote by the departments and sit for three years. There is a deputy for every 30,000 inhabitants, or fraction of that number not falling below 15,000. Deputies must not be less than 36 years of age, and like Senators they must be possessed of a fixed income, and also serve without a salary. Every married male Chilean of 21, or every unmarried man of 25, not civilly disqualified by Judicial act, is an elector; but he must know how to read and write and possess landed or movable property. The literary test practically disenfranchises three-fifths of the possible electorate, for although primary education is gratuitous, it is not compulsory. . . . The President of the republic, who must be a native Chilean of not less than 30 years of age, is Chief of the Executive. He is elected by representatives who are themselves sent to a special congress for the purpose of a direct vote of the whole electorate. [See also ELECTIONS, PRESIDENTIAL: South American republics.] He holds office for a period of five years and cannot serve two successive terms. Moreover, he must not leave the country either during his term of office, or for one year after its termination, without sanction of Congress. The President receives the quite moderate salary of \$5,000 per annum. . . . He is assisted by a Council of State, consisting of eleven members, five of whom he appoints, the other six being appointed by the Senate. The Council of Ministers consists of the holders of the following portfolios: Interior, Foreign Affairs, Justice and Public Instruction, Treasury, War and Marine, Industry and Public Works. In the event of the President's death or abdication, the Minister of the Interior becomes Vice-President and Chief of the Executive. The country is divided into twenty-three provinces, and one national territory. The provinces are divided into departments of which there are seventy-four, and these are divided into 865 sub-delegations, further subdivided into 3,068 districts. . . . The Judicial Administration comprises Supreme Court of Justice, Courts of Appeal, Courts of First Instance, Courts of Justice and Peace, and Courts of the Alcaldes and Higher Police Officers."—G. J. Mills, *Chile*, pp. 74-77.

The following is the text of the constitution, taken from J. I. Rodriguez, *American constitutions*, v. 2 (1902):

CONSTITUTION

(As promulgated May 25, 1833, and amended up to June 26, 1893.)

In the name of Almighty God, the Creator and Supreme Law of the Universe.

The Great Convention of Chile called upon by the law of October first, eighteen hundred and thirty-one, to amend the Political Constitution of

the Nation, promulgated on the eighth of August, eighteen hundred and twenty-eight, after having examined that code, adopted those of its provisions believed to be conducive to the prosperity and good government of the State, modified and suppressed other provisions, and added some new ones deemed especially suitable to promote the same important end, decrees that all previous constitutions are repealed and that the following shall be the political Constitution of the Republic of Chile:

Chapter I. The Form of Government

ARTICLE 1. The Government of Chile is popular and representative.

ART. 2. The Republic of Chile is one and indivisible.

ART. 3. The sovereignty is vested essentially in the Nation, which delegates its exercise to the authorities established by this Constitution.

Chapter II. Religion

[See below Annex No. 1.]

Chapter III. Chileans

ART. 5. The following are Chileans:

1. Those born within the territory of Chile.
2. The children of Chilean father or mother born in foreign territory, by the sole fact of becoming domiciled in Chile. The children of Chileans born in foreign territory, while the father is in the actual service of the Republic, are Chileans for all intents and purposes, even those for which the fundamental laws, or any others, require nativity in Chilean territory.
3. Foreigners who, having resided one year in the Republic, declare before the municipal authorities of the district in which they reside their desire to become domiciled in Chile, and ask for papers of naturalization.
4. Those who have obtained an especial grant of naturalization by an act of Congress.

ART. 6. The power to declare that persons who have not been born in Chile are entitled to naturalization under clause 3 of the preceding article, belongs to the municipality of the department of their residence. Upon the favorable declaration of the municipality the President of the Republic shall issue the proper naturalization papers.

ART. 7. No one shall be a Chilean citizen entitled to vote, who has not reached the age of twenty-one years, can not read and write, and has not been duly inscribed in the electoral register of the department.

ART. 8. Active citizenship with the right of suffrage shall be suspended for the following causes:

1. Physical or moral incapacity interfering with the free and reasonable use of the mental faculties.
2. The condition of domestic service.
3. Prosecution for a crime which merits corporal or infamous punishment.

ART. 9. Citizenship is lost for the following causes:

1. Condemnation to corporal or infamous punishment.
2. Fraudulent bankruptcy.
3. Naturalization in a foreign country.
4. Acceptance of employment, office, or salary from a foreign government, without special permission of Congress.

Those who from any one of the causes enumerated in this article have suffered the loss of citizenship, may apply to the Senate for rehabilitation.

Chapter IV. Public Law of Chile

ART. 10. The Constitution guarantees to all inhabitants of the Republic

1. Equality before the law. In Chile no class privileges exist.

2. Admission to all public employments and offices without other conditions than those prescribed by law.

3. The equal distribution of imposts and taxes in proportion to property and the equal distribution of all other public charges. A special law shall determine the method of recruiting and enrolling substitutes for the land and naval forces.

4. The liberty of sojourn in any part of the Republic, of removal to any other part, and of departure from its territory, respecting, however, the regulations of police and always without injury to the rights of third parties. No person shall be arrested, detained, or exiled except according to the forms prescribed by law.

5. The inviolability of property of all kinds, whether belonging to individuals or corporations. No one shall be deprived of his property or of any part thereof, however small, or of any right therein, except by virtue of a judicial decision, or when the interest of the State, declared by law, requires the use of or condemnation thereof; but in this case proper indemnification to be determined either by agreement with the owner or by valuation made by a jury of competent men shall be previously made.

6. The right to assemble without previous permission and without arms. . . .

The right to form associations without previous permission.

The right to present petitions to the properly constituted authorities on any subject of public or private interest has no other restriction than that of using respectful and proper language.

The liberty of teaching.

7. The liberty of publishing through the press, without previous censorship, their own opinions; and no one shall be condemned for abuse of this liberty except upon trial and conviction by a jury according to law.

Chapter V. The National Congress

ART. 11. The legislative power is vested in the National Congress, composed of two chambers, one of deputies, the other of senators.

ART. 12. The deputies and senators are inviolable for the opinions expressed and the votes cast by them in the discharge of their duties.

ART. 13. From the day of his election no senator or deputy shall be accused, prosecuted, or arrested, except when taken *in flagrante delicto*, unless the chamber of which he is a member has previously authorized the prosecution.

ART. 14. From the day of his election no deputy or senator shall be accused except before the chamber of which he is a member, or before the permanent committee, if the chamber is not in session. If the prosecution is authorized, the accused shall be suspended from his legislative functions, and subjected to the proper tribunal.

ART. 15. Deputies or senators arrested *in flagrante delicto*, shall be placed immediately at the disposal of their respective chamber, or of the permanent committee. . . .

The Chamber of Deputies

ART. 16. The Chamber of Deputies shall be composed of members elected from the departments by direct vote in the manner determined by the electoral laws.

ART. 17. One deputy shall be elected for each thirty thousand inhabitants and for each fraction not below fifteen thousand.

If a deputy dies or ceases for any cause whatever to belong to the chamber during the first two years of his term, a new election shall be held to choose his successor in the manner and time prescribed by law.

A deputy who loses his representative character by resignation or by accepting an incompatible office shall not be reeligible at the next renewal of the chamber.

ART. 18. The Chamber of Deputies shall be totally renewed every three years.

ART. 19. The qualifications for eligibility to the office of deputy are:

1. Possession of the rights of a citizen elector.
2. An annual income of at least five hundred dollars.

ART. 20. Deputies are reeligible indefinitely.

ART. 21. The following persons are ineligible to the office of deputy:

1. Members of the religious orders, curates and vice-curates.
2. Judges of the superior courts and of the courts of first instance, and prosecuting attorneys.
3. Intendants of provinces and governors of places or departments.
4. Contractors of public works, or other government services, and their bondsmen.
5. Chileans mentioned in Clause 3 of Article 5, unless they have been in possession of their naturalization papers at least five years prior to their election.

The office of deputy is gratuitous and is incompatible with that of member of the municipal council, and with any remunerative public employment, function, or commission. Persons elected for the position of deputy shall choose between said position and the employment, function, or commission which they are serving, the choice to be made within fifteen days if they are within the territory of the Republic, or within one hundred days if they are absent. The time must be reckoned from the date of the approval of the election. Upon failure to make the choice within the required period the elected deputy forfeits his seat.

No deputy from the moment of his election until six months after the termination of his office shall be appointed to any remunerative public function, commission or employment.

This provision is not binding in case of foreign war, nor does it apply to the offices of President of the Republic, cabinet minister, or diplomatic agent; but no other offices than those bestowed during the state of war and the positions of cabinet minister shall be compatible with the functions of deputy. . . .

The Senate

ART. 22. The Senate shall be composed of members elected by direct vote from the provinces, each of which shall choose one senator for every three deputies or fraction of two deputies.

ART. 23. The senators shall serve for six years and are reeligible indefinitely.

ART. 24. The senators shall be renewed every three years in the following manner:

The Provinces which elect an even number of senators shall renew half of them at the triennial election.

The Provinces which elect an odd number shall renew an even number in the first triennial election and leave for the next one the renewal of the odd senator not touched at the preceding election.

The provinces which elect only one senator shall make the renewal every six years.

ART. 25. If a senator dies or for any cause whatever ceases to be a member of the chamber, before the last year of his term, the vacancy shall be filled for the unexpired term by a new election in the manner and time prescribed by law.

A senator who loses his seat by discharging or accepting an incompatible employment shall not be reeligible before the next triennial election.

ART. 26. The qualifications for eligibility to the office of senator are:

1. Citizenship in exercise.
2. To be over 36 years of age.
3. Never having been condemned for a crime.
4. An annual income of at least two thousand dollars.

The provisions of article 21 relating to deputies apply likewise to senators.

Powers of Congress and Special Functions of Each Chamber

ART. 27. The exclusive powers of Congress are:

1. To approve or disapprove the annual account of disbursements made to defray the expenses of the public administration, which must be presented by the Government.
2. To approve or disapprove the declaration of war, recommended by the President of the Republic.
3. To declare, in case the President of the Republic tenders his resignation, whether the causes set forth by him render him unable to discharge the duties of his office, and consequently to accept or refuse his resignation.
4. To declare, when any doubt should arise in the case specified in Articles 65 and 69, whether the impediment which deprives the President from the exercise of his office is of such a nature as to demand the holding of a new election.
5. To count the votes and verify the election of the President of the Republic in conformity with Articles 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, and 64.
6. To pass exceptional and temporary laws, for a period not longer than one year, restricting personal liberty and the liberty of the press, and suspending or restricting the liberty of reunion, when so demanded by imperious necessity for the defense of the state, or the preservation of the constitutional system or of internal peace.

If such laws establish penalties, the application thereof shall always be made by the established courts. . . .

ART. 28. Only by virtue of a law shall it be permissible:

1. To impose taxes of any kind or nature whatsoever, to abolish those existing, and to determine in case of necessity their apportionment among the Provinces or Departments.
2. To fix annually the expenditures of the public administration.
3. To determine likewise in each year the strength of the land and naval forces in time of peace or war.

Taxes shall be levied for the period of eighteen months only; and the strength of the land and sea forces shall be determined for like period.

4. To contract debts, ratify those already incurred, and provide funds for their payment.

5. To create new provinces or departments, fix their boundaries, create ports of entry, and establish custom-houses.

6. To fix the weight, fineness, value, form, and denomination of the coins, and to regulate the system of weights and measures.

7. To permit the introduction of foreign troops into the territory of the Republic, and determine the length of their stay therein.

8. To permit troops to be quartered in the place where the sessions of Congress are held, or within ten leagues around it.

9. To permit the departure of the national troops from the territory of the Republic, and fix the time of their return.

10. To create or abolish public offices. [See below Annex No. 2.] . . .

11. To grant general pardons or amnesties.

12. To fix the place of residence of the National Executive and of Congress.

ART. 29. The exclusive powers of the Chamber of Deputies are:

1. To be the judge of the election of its own members, and pass upon charges of nullity made against the same; and to accept the resignation of its members if the causes assigned therefor are of such a nature as to make it physically or morally impossible for them to perform their duties. To pass upon these causes there must be a concurrence of three-fourths of the deputies present.

2. To impeach before the Senate whenever it shall be found proper any of the following officers:

Cabinet ministers and councilors of state in the manner and for the offenses set forth in Articles 83, 84, 85, 86, 87, 88 and 98.

Generals of the army or navy for having seriously endangered the security and honor of the Nation, the proceedings to be in the same form as that provided for cabinet ministers and councilors of state.

Members of the permanent committee for grave omissions in the discharge of the duty imposed upon them by Clause 2, Article 49.

Intendants of provinces for the crimes of treason, sedition, violation of the constitution, misappropriation of public funds, and official corruption.

Magistrates of the superior courts of justice for notable malfeasance in office.

In the last three cases the Chamber of Deputies shall first declare whether or not there is good ground for considering the proposition to impeach; and six days thereafter, upon consideration of the reports of a committee of five chosen by lot from among its own members, whether or not impeachment proceedings should be instituted. If the decision is in the affirmative two deputies shall be chosen to formulate the articles, and prosecute the case before the Senate.

ART. 30. The exclusive powers of the Chamber of Senators are:

1. To be the judge of the election of its own members, and pass upon the charges of nullity made against the same; and to accept the resignation of the senators, if the causes assigned therefor are of such a nature as to make it physically or morally impossible for them to perform their duties. To pass upon these causes there must be a concurrence of three-fourths of the senators present.

2. To try according to the provisions of Articles 29 and 89 the case of the functionaries impeached by the Chamber of Deputies.

3. To approve the nominations to be made by the President for archbishops and bishops in the Republic.

4. To give or refuse its consent to the acts of the government, when such consent is required by the Constitution.

The Making of the Laws

ART. 31. Laws may be originated in the Senate or in the Chamber of Deputies upon the motion

of any member or by a message from the President of the Republic. Laws concerning taxation of all kinds and recruiting shall be originated in the Chamber of Deputies. Laws relating to amnesties shall be originated in the Senate.

ART. 32. Upon the approval of a bill in the chamber where it was introduced it shall be referred immediately to the other chamber for debate and approval within the period of that session.

ART. 33. A bill rejected in the chamber of origin shall not be reintroduced in that chamber until the session of the following year.

ART. 34. Upon the approval of a bill by both chambers it shall be sent to the President of the Republic, who, if he approves it, shall promulgate it as a law.

ART. 35. If the President of the Republic disapproves the bill, he shall return it to the chamber where it originated within fifteen days with such objection thereto as he may deem proper.

ART. 36. If the two chambers accept the objections of the President of the Republic, the bill as amended shall become a law and shall be sent to the President for its promulgation. [See below Annex No. 3.] . . .

Arts. 37, 38, and 39 were stricken out, by law of June 26, 1893.

ART. 40. If the President of the Republic does not return the bill within fifteen days after it shall have been forwarded to him, it shall be considered approved and shall be promulgated as law. If the chambers adjourn before the expiration of the fifteen days within which the bill must be returned, the President of the Republic shall return it within the first six days of the regular session of the following year.

ART. 41. A bill passed by one chamber and rejected absolutely by the other shall be returned to the chamber of origin where it shall be considered anew, and if passed by a two-thirds majority of the members present it shall be again sent to the chamber which rejected it; and it shall not be considered that the latter chamber again rejects it unless it does so by a majority of two-thirds of the members present.

ART. 42. All bills amended by the revising chamber shall be returned to the chamber of origin; and if the latter approves the amendments by an absolute majority of the members present, the bill shall be sent to the President of the Republic.

But if the amendments are rejected, the bill shall be sent a second time to the revising chamber; if the amendments are there passed again by a two-thirds majority of the members present the bill shall be returned to the other chamber, and the said amendments shall not be considered rejected by the latter unless it does so by a majority of two-thirds of the members present.

Sessions of Congress

ART. 43. The regular sessions of Congress shall commence on the first day of June of each year and shall end on the first day of September.

ART. 44. When convened in extraordinary session, Congress shall consider the business for which it was called to convene to the exclusion of all other matters.

ART. 45. The Chamber of Senators shall not do business without a quorum of one-third of its members. The quorum for the Chamber of Deputies shall be one-fourth.

ART. 46. If on the day fixed by the Constitution for the opening of the regular sessions, Congress is sitting in extraordinary session, the latter shall be closed, and the business for which it was called

shall continue to be considered in the regular session.

ART. 47. The Senate and Chamber of Deputies shall open and close their regular and extraordinary sessions at the same time. The Senate, nevertheless, may convene without the presence of the Chamber of Deputies for the exercise of the judicial functions belonging to it under Clause 2 of Article 30.

The Chamber of Deputies shall continue its sessions without the presence of the Senate, if at the close of a regular session any charges against the officers designated in Clause 2 of Article 29 are left pending; but the continuation shall be only for the exclusive purpose of declaring whether or not there is good ground for an impeachment.

The Permanent Committee

ART. 48. Before the close of the regular sessions of Congress, each chamber shall elect seven of its members, who shall together constitute a single body called the permanent committee, and whose functions shall expire *de facto* on the thirty-first day of the following May. [See below Annex No. 4.]

ART. 49. The permanent committee as the representative of Congress shall exercise the supervision pertaining to that body over all branches of the public administration. It is therefore its duty:

1. To watch over the observance of the Constitution and the laws and to afford protection to the individual guaranties.

2. To address to the President of the Republic representations conducing to those ends, and reiterate them if those already made have not proved sufficient.

When such representations are based upon abuses or wrongs committed by the authorities depending upon the President of the Republic and he does not adopt the measures within his power to put an end to them, and punish the guilty officials, it shall be understood that the President of the Republic and the minister of the respective department accept the responsibility for the acts of the subordinate authority, as if they had been done by their order and with their consent.

3. To give or refuse its consent to such acts of the President of the Republic as, according to the provisions of the Constitution, require for their validity the ratification of the permanent committee.

4. To call Congress to meet in extraordinary session, whenever in its judgment such action is necessary, or when a majority of both chambers has asked for it in writing.

5. To render an account to Congress at its first meeting of the measures taken by it in the discharge of its duties.

The committee is responsible to Congress for any omission in the fulfillment of the duties imposed upon it by the preceding sections.

Chapter VI. The President of the Republic

ART. 50. A citizen with the title of President of the Republic of Chile administers the government of the State and is the supreme chief of the Nation.

ART. 51. The qualifications for eligibility to the office of President of the Republic are:

1. To have been born in the territory of Chile.

2. To be eligible to membership in the Chamber of Deputies.

3. To be at least thirty years old.

ART. 52. The President of the Republic shall ful-

fill his duties for the term of five years and shall not be eligible for the succeeding term.

ART. 53. To be eligible for a second or more terms the period of one term shall always have intervened.

ART. 54. The President of the Republic shall be elected by electors chosen by direct popular vote. The number of electors shall be three times the total number of deputies corresponding to each Department.

ART. 55. The electors shall be chosen by departments on the twenty-fifth of June of the year in which the presidential term ends. The qualifications of the electors shall be the same as those of the deputies.

ART. 56. The electors shall meet on the twenty-fifth day of July of the year in which the presidential term ends and proceed to the election of the President in conformity to the general law of elections.

ART. 57. The electoral boards shall make two lists of all the individuals elected, and the said lists, after having been signed by all the electors, shall be transmitted in sealed envelopes, one to the municipal council of the capital of the province, in whose archives it shall be kept on file, and the other to the Senate, where it shall be kept in the same manner until the thirtieth day of August.

ART. 58. On that day the said lists shall be opened and read in a public session of both chambers assembled in the hall of the Senate, the president of the Senate presiding, and the counting of the votes, and if necessary the revision of the election, shall take place. [See below Annex No. 5.]

ART. 59. The one who has received an absolute majority of the votes shall be proclaimed President of the Republic.

ART. 60. If none has an absolute majority, the Congress shall choose between the two who have received the greatest number of votes.

ART. 61. If more than two have received a majority Congress shall choose from among all of them.

ART. 62. If the highest number of votes is given to one person alone, and two or more persons obtain the second highest number, Congress shall choose from among all the persons receiving such highest and second highest numbers.

ART. 63. This election shall be made by absolute plurality of votes and by secret ballot. If there is not an absolute majority on the first ballot a second ballot shall be taken, the voting being limited to the two persons who, upon the first ballot, shall have received the greatest number of votes. In case of a tie another ballot shall be taken, and if a tie again occurs the president of the Senate shall cast the deciding vote.

ART. 64. No counting or verification of the election returns shall be held unless an absolute majority of the members of each chamber is present.

ART. 65. When the President of the Republic is in personal command of the armed forces of the Republic, or when by reason of sickness, absence from the territory of the Republic, or other grave reason, he has become unable to discharge the duties of his office, the minister of the interior shall take his place under the title of *Vice-President of the Republic*. If the disability of the President is temporary the said minister shall continue to take his place until the President shall be able to resume his duties. In case of death of the President, acceptance of his resignation, or other cause of absolute disability, or of disability which can not be removed before the termination of his five years of office, the minister Vice-President shall order, within ten days after assuming the office, a

new presidential election to be held in the manner prescribed by this Constitution.

ART. 66. If there is no minister of the interior, the senior member of the cabinet shall take the place of the President; and if there are not cabinet members, the office shall be filled by the senior member of the council of state, who is not an ecclesiastic.

ART. 67. The President of the Republic shall not leave the territory of the State during the term of his office, or within one year after the expiration of the same, without the consent of Congress.

ART. 68. The President of the Republic shall cease to hold office on the day on which his five-year term expires, and he shall be succeeded by the newly elected President.

ART. 69. If the newly elected President is temporarily prevented from entering upon the discharge of the duties of his office, the senior member of the council of state shall take his place for the time being; but if the disability of the President-elect is absolute, or likely to continue indefinitely, or for a period longer than the presidential term, then a new election shall be held in the manner prescribed by this Constitution, the office in the meantime being filled by the senior councillor of state, who is not an ecclesiastic.

ART. 70. When in the cases mentioned in Articles 65 and 69 an election of the President of the Republic is to be held at a time different from the one prescribed by the Constitution, the order for the election upon the same day of presidential electors shall be given, and the same intervals and the same forms shall be observed for such an election of President, and for the counting and verification of the returns, as are prescribed by Articles 56 to 65, inclusive.

ART. 71. The President-elect, upon entering upon the discharge of the duties of his office, shall take the following oath administered by the president of the Senate in the hall of the Senate before the two chambers therein assembled:

"I, ———, swear by God, our Lord, and by these holy gospels that I shall faithfully discharge the duties of the office of President of the Republic; observe and protect the Roman Catholic Apostolic Religion; preserve the integrity and independence of the Republic; and comply and cause others to comply with the Constitution and the laws. If I do so, may God help and defend me. If not, may He demand it of me."

ART. 72. The President of the Republic is entrusted with the administration of the government of the State; and his authority extends to everything that has for its object the preservation of public order at home and the security of the Republic from external danger, observing and causing others to observe the Constitution and the laws.

ART. 73. The special powers of the President are:

1. To concur in making the laws in conformity with the provisions of the Constitution; and sanction and promulgate them.

2. To issue such decrees, regulations, and instructions as he may deem necessary for the execution of the laws.

3. To watch over the official conduct of the judges and other judicial officers; and to this end he may require the prosecuting attorneys to cause the competent tribunal to take proper disciplinary measures, or if there be sufficient grounds to file a formal accusation.

4. To extend the time of the regular sessions of Congress, at the most, fifty days.

5. To call with the advice and consent of the council of state an extra session of Congress.

6. To appoint and remove at will cabinet ministers, department officers, councilors of state of his own choosing, diplomatic ministers, consuls, and other foreign agents, intendants of Provinces and governors of Departments.

The appointment of diplomatic ministers shall require approval by the Senate, or by the permanent committee if the Senate happens to be in recess.

7. To appoint upon nomination by the council of state in conformity with Clause 2 of Article 95 the justices of the superior courts and the judges of first instance.

8. To nominate archbishops, bishops, canons, and prebendaries of the cathedrals, the names to be selected by him out of lists of three candidates submitted by the council of state. The person selected by the President for archbishop or bishop must also receive the confirmation of the Senate.

9. To appoint all other civil and military officers; but the consent and advice of the Senate, or, if the latter is in recess, that of the permanent committee shall be required for the appointment of colonels, naval captains, and other superior officers of the army and navy. Upon the field of battle he may make these appointments without consulting the Senate.

10. To dismiss public employes for incompetency or for any other cause which injuriously affects the public service; but the consent of the Senate, or, during its recess, of the permanent committee, shall be required to remove chiefs of bureaus or other high officers. Subaltern officers shall not be removed without a report from their respective chief.

11. To grant leaves of absence, and pensions of all kinds in conformity with the laws.

12. To watch over the collection and disbursement of the public revenues in conformity with the laws.

13. To exercise the right of patronage in regard to churches, benefices, and ecclesiastical persons in conformity with the laws.

14. To grant or refuse, with the consent of the council of state, passage to the decrees of councils, papal bulls, briefs and rescripts; but if they contain general provisions their passage shall only be granted or refused by means of a law.

15. To grant, with the consent of the council of state, individual pardons. Cabinet ministers, councilors of state, members of the executive committee, generals in chief, and intendants of Provinces, indicated by the Chamber of Deputies and condemned by the Senate, shall only be pardoned by Congress.

16. To dispose of the land and naval forces, and organize and distribute them, as he shall judge proper.

17. To command in person, with the consent of the Senate, or, during its recess, with that of the permanent committee, the land and naval forces of the Republic. In such a case the President of the Republic may reside in any part of the territory occupied by the Chilean armies.

18. To declare war with the previous approval of Congress, and to grant letters of marque and reprisal.

19. To maintain political relations with foreign powers, receive ministers, admit consuls, conduct negotiations, make preliminary stipulations, conclude and sign all treaties of peace, alliance, truce, neutrality, commerce, concordats, and other conventions. Treaties, before their ratification, shall be submitted to Congress for approval. Discussions and deliberations upon these subjects shall

be secret, if the President of the Republic demands it.

20. To declare, in case of a foreign attack, one or various points in the Republic to be in a state of siege; but this is to be done with the consent of the council of state and for a specified period.

In case of domestic disturbance the declaration of a state of siege at one or more points belongs to Congress; but if that body is not in session, the President may make it, with the consent of the council of state, and for a specified period. If, upon the reassembling of Congress, the time specified has not expired, the declaration made by the President of the Republic shall be considered as a bill or *proposition of law*.

21. All matters pertaining to police and public establishments shall be under the supreme supervision of the President of the Republic in accordance with the particular ordinances which govern them.

ART. 74. The President of the Republic can be accused during the year immediately succeeding the end of his term of office, and not at a later date, for any act of his administration by which the honor and safety of the State have been gravely compromised or the Constitution openly violated. The forms for the accusation of the President shall be those set forth in Articles 84 to 91, inclusive.

Cabinet Ministers

ART. 75. The number of ministers and their respective departments shall be determined by law.

ART. 76. To be a minister the following shall be required:

1. To have been born within the territory of the Republic.

2. To have the qualifications required to be a member of the Chamber of Deputies.

ART. 77. All the orders of the President of the Republic shall be signed by the minister of the respective department, and shall not be obeyed when lacking that essential requisite.

ART. 78. Each minister is personally responsible for the acts signed by him, and jointly and severally for those subscribed to or agreed upon with the other ministers.

ART. 79. At the opening of the sessions of Congress each minister shall submit to it a report on the state of the Nation, in so far as the business of his own department is concerned.

ART. 80. They shall likewise present to that body the annual estimates of the expenditures required by their respective departments, and an account of the expenses of the previous year.

ART. 81. The office of cabinet minister is not incompatible with those of senator or deputy.

ART. 82. The ministers, even if not members of the Senate or Chamber of Deputies, may attend the sessions of those bodies and take part in the debate, but shall have no vote.

ART. 83. The cabinet ministers may be impeached by the Chamber of Deputies for treason, corruption in office, misappropriation of public funds, bribery, violation of the Constitution, disobedience to the laws, failure to execute the same, and having gravely endangered the safety or honor of the Nation.

ART. 84. Upon the introduction of the impeachment resolution, one of the eight succeeding days shall be set apart to hear the accused minister in reply to charges brought against him, and the question shall then be decided whether or not the proceedings are to be discontinued.

ART. 85. If it be decided to proceed with the examination of the charges, a committee of nine shall be chosen by lot from among the deputies present, whose duty it shall be to report within five days whether or not there exist sufficient grounds for a formal impeachment.

ART. 86. On the presentation of the report of the committee, the chamber shall proceed to discuss it, giving a hearing to the members of the committee, to the authors of the impeachment resolution, to the minister or ministers accused, and to all the deputies who may desire to take part in the debate.

ART. 87. If at the end of the discussion the chamber decides to admit the accusation, it shall appoint from among its members three managers who shall represent it in formulating and prosecuting the said accusation before the Senate.

ART. 88. Immediately upon the decision of the chamber to bring the accusation before the Senate, or upon its declaration that there are grounds for prosecution, the accused minister shall be suspended from his official functions.

Such suspension, however, shall terminate if the Senate does not render its decision within six months following the date on which the Chamber of Deputies decided to begin the prosecution.

ART. 89. The Senate, acting as a jury, shall try the minister, confining itself, however, to declare whether or not he is guilty of the crime or abuse of power of which he is charged.

The verdict of guilty must be rendered by two-thirds of the number of Senators present at the session. By virtue of such verdict the minister is removed from the office.

The minister declared guilty by the Senate shall be tried in accordance with the laws, by the ordinary court of competent jurisdiction, for the double purpose of imposing upon him the penalty provided by law for the crime committed and of enforcing his civil responsibility for damages caused to the state or to private individuals.

ART. 90. Cabinet ministers may be accused by any private individual, on account of losses unjustly sustained by him through any act of the minister. The complaint shall be addressed to the Senate, and that body shall decide whether or not it is well founded.

ART. 91. If the Senate declares that the complaint is well founded, the complainant shall sue the minister before the court of competent jurisdiction.

ART. 92. The Chamber of Deputies may impeach a minister during his term of office, and within six months subsequent to its termination. During these six months no minister shall absent himself from the Republic without permission of Congress, or of the executive committee, when Congress is in recess.

The Council of State

ART. 93. The council of state shall be composed of:

Three councilors chosen by the Senate and three by the Chamber of Deputies, at the first ordinary session after each renewal of the Congress, the retiring councilors being eligible for reelection. In case of death or disability of any councilor thus chosen, the respective chamber shall proceed to appoint a substitute, who shall fill the place until the next renewal.

A member of the superior courts of justice, residing in the city of Santiago.

A church dignitary.

A general in the army or navy.

A head of some office in the treasury department.

An individual who has filled the position of minister of state, diplomatic agent, intendant, governor, or chief of a municipality.

These five councilors last named shall be appointed by the President of the Republic.

The council shall be presided over by the President of the Republic, or in his absence by its own vice-president, who shall be elected annually from among its members, and may be reelected.

The vice-president of the council shall be considered the senior member thereof for the purposes contemplated in Articles 66 and 69 of this Constitution.

Cabinet ministers shall have no vote in the council, and if any councilor is appointed minister he shall thereby vacate his seat in the council.

ART. 94. The qualifications for councilor of state shall be the same as those for Senator.

ART. 95. The powers of the council of state are:

1. To render its opinion in all cases in which the President of the Republic may ask for it.

2. To suggest to the President in cases of vacancies in courts of first instance and superior courts the appointment of such persons as it shall deem suitable, to fill those positions, this to be done upon nomination by the superior court designated by law, and in the form provided by it.

3. To suggest three names for archbishops and bishops, dignitaries, canons, and prebendaries of the cathedrals of the Republic.

4. To take cognizance of all matters pertaining to ecclesiastical patronage and protection which may be subject to litigation, hearing in all cases the opinion of the superior court of justice, designated by law for that purpose.

5. To take cognizance of conflicts of jurisdiction between the administrative authorities with each other, and the administrative authorities with the courts of justice.

6. To declare whether or not there is ground for the prosecution on criminal charges of intendants, military governors, and governors of departments. The case in which the accusation against an intendant is instituted by the Chamber of Deputies is excepted from this provision.

7. To give its assent to the declaration of a state of siege in one or more provinces invaded or threatened in case of foreign war.

8. To recommend the dismissal of the cabinet ministers, intendants, governors, or other public officials who prove to be guilty of an offense, incompetent, or negligent.

ART. 96. The President of the Republic shall submit to the consideration of the council of state:

1. All bills which he intends to introduce in Congress.

2. All acts passed by the Senate and Chamber of Deputies sent to him for approval.

3. All matters in which the Constitution requires expressly that the council of state should be heard.

4. The annual budget of expenditures to be submitted to Congress.

5. All other matters concerning which the President may judge it advisable to hear the opinion of the council.

ART. 97. The opinion of the council of state is simply advisory, except in the particular cases in which the Constitution requires that the President shall act in accordance with it.

ART. 98. The councilors of state shall be responsible for the opinions rendered by them to the President contrary to the laws and manifestly with

evil intent; and they may be impeached and tried in the manner provided in Articles 84 to 89, inclusive.

Chapter VII. The Administration of Justice

ART. 99. The power of passing on civil and criminal causes belongs exclusively to the courts established by law. Neither Congress nor the President of the Republic shall in any case exercise judicial powers or assume jurisdiction in pending causes or revive causes terminated.

ART. 100. Only by virtue of a law can any change be made in the functions of the courts or in the number of their members.

ART. 101. The judges of the superior courts and those of the courts of first instance shall hold office during good behavior. Judges of commerce, mayors, and other inferior judges shall hold their respective offices for the time specified by law. . . .

ART. 102. The judges are personally responsible for bribery, failure to observe the laws of procedure, and in general for any wrong done by them in the administration of justice. The law shall determine the manner in which this responsibility shall be enforced.

ART. 103. The law shall determine the qualifications which judges shall respectively possess, and the number of years of legal practice which shall be required from lawyers to be appointed members of the superior courts, or judges learned in the law.

ART. 104. There shall be in the Republic one judicial authority entrusted with the directive, correctional, and economical superintendence of all the tribunals and courts of the nation, in accordance with the law determining its organization and attributes.

ART. 105. The organization and powers of the tribunals and courts that may be necessary for the prompt and complete administration of justice throughout the territory of the Republic shall be fixed by a special law.

Chapter VIII. Provincial Government

ART. 106. The territory of the Republic is divided into provinces, the provinces into departments, the departments into subdelegations, and the subdelegations into districts.

The Intendants

ART. 107. The superior government of each province in all branches of the administration is vested in an intendant, who shall exercise his powers in accordance with the laws, under the orders and instructions of the President of the Republic, whose natural and immediate agent he is. His term of office shall be three years, but he may be reappointed indefinitely.

ART. 108. The government of each department is vested in a governor, subordinate to the intendant of the province. His term of office shall be three years.

ART. 109. The governors are appointed by the President of the Republic, on the recommendation of the respective intendants, and are removable by the intendants with the approval of the President of the Republic.

ART. 110. The intendant of the province is also governor of the department of the capital in which he resides.

The Subdelegates

ART. 111. Each subdelegation is governed by a subdelegate, who is subordinate to the governor of the department, by whom he is appointed. The

subdelegates hold office for two years and are removable by the governor, but their removal and the grounds thereof shall be reported to the intendant. Subdelegates may be reappointed indefinitely.

The Inspectors

ART. 112. Each district is governed by an inspector, subordinate to the subdelegate, who may appoint or remove him, reporting thereon to the governor.

The Municipal Councils

ART. 113. There shall be a municipal council, in every capital of department, and in all other centers of population in which the President of the Republic, with the approval of the council of state, may think it proper to establish one.

ART. 114. The municipal councils shall be composed of as many mayors and aldermen as the law, taking into consideration the population of the department, or of the territory allotted to each, shall determine.

ART. 115. The election of aldermen shall be by direct popular vote, in the manner prescribed by the electoral law. Their term of office shall be three years.

ART. 116. The manner of election of the mayors and the length of their term of office shall be determined by law.

ART. 117. The qualifications for eligibility to the office of mayor or aldermen are:

1. Enjoyment in full of the rights of citizenship.
2. Residence in the territory of the municipality for five years at least.

ART. 118. The governor is the superior chief of all the municipal councils in his department, and the president of that one established in its capital. The subdelegate is president of the municipal council of his respective subdelegation.

ART. 119. The powers of the municipal councils in their respective territories are:

1. To attend to the public health, and all matters relating to the comfort, improvement, and recreation of the inhabitants.
2. To promote education, agriculture, industry, and commerce.
3. To supervise the primary schools and all other educational institutions supported by municipal funds.
4. To superintend the hospitals, asylums, homes for foundlings, jails, houses of correction, and all charitable institutions, in accordance with their respective regulations.
5. To attend to the construction and repair of the roads, bridges, and all other public works necessary, useful or ornamental, supported by municipal funds.
6. To manage and disburse the municipal funds in accordance with the rules established by law.
7. To make the apportionment of the amount of taxes and number of recruits and substitutes allotted to the municipality, provided that the law has not entrusted this duty to any other persons or authorities.
8. To address to Congress every year, through the intendants and the President of the Republic, such petitions as may be judged proper in relation to matters affecting the general welfare of the state, or of particular interest to the department, especially the levying of municipal taxes to meet extra expenses required for the construction of new works of public utility in the department or repairs of those in existence.
9. To propose to the general government or to that of the province or department such adminis-

trative measures as may conduce to the general welfare of the department.

10. To make municipal ordinances in regard to the aforesaid subjects and submit them, through the intendants, to the President of the Republic, for his approval, with the advice of the council of state.

ART. 120. No decision or resolution of a municipal council which is not passed in compliance with established rules shall be carried into effect without being brought to the attention of the governor, or of the subdelegate, as the case may be; said governor or subdelegate having the power to suspend its execution if he judges it to be prejudicial to the public order.

ART. 121. All municipal offices are public burdens, and no one shall be excused from serving them unless for cause specified by law.

ART. 122. A special law shall provide for the government of the provinces, designate the functions of those charged with the provincial administration and determine the manner in which such functions shall be exercised.

Chapter IX. Guarantees of Security and Property

ART. 123. In Chile there are no slaves, and the slave who should step on Chilean soil shall thereby become free. No Chilean shall engage in the slave trade, and no foreigner engaged in that trade shall be permitted to inhabit Chile or be naturalized in the Republic.

ART. 124. No one shall be condemned without legal trial and by virtue of a law promulgated before the act for which he is tried.

ART. 125. No one shall be tried by special commissions, or by any authority different from the court established by law for that purpose, and previously existing.

ART. 126. No warrant of arrest shall be executed if not issued by an authority having the right to make arrests, and if not served upon the person at the time of his apprehension.

ART. 127. Any person caught in *flagrante delicto* may be arrested without a warrant and by any person, but for the sole purpose of conducting him before a competent judge.

ART. 128. No one shall be kept imprisoned or detained, except in his own house, or in the public places destined for that purpose.

ART. 129. Wardens of jails shall not admit any prisoner without entering upon their register a copy of the warrant for the arrest issued by competent authority. They may, however, admit, as merely detained persons, all those brought there to be taken to the presence of the competent judge; but they must make the said judge acquainted with the fact, within twenty-four hours.

ART. 130. If the public authority should cause under certain circumstances any inhabitant of the Republic to be arrested, the officer who ordered the arrest shall give notice thereof to the proper judge within the next forty-eight hours, and place the arrested person at the disposal of said judge.

ART. 131. No order of solitary confinement shall prevent the magistrate in charge of the house of detention, where the prisoner is confined, from visiting him.

ART. 132. Such magistrate shall be bound, upon the request of the prisoner, to transmit to the proper judge the copy of the warrant of arrest served upon him, demand that such a copy be given him; or give him a certificate showing the fact of his imprisonment, if at the time of his

arrest no copy of the warrant was served upon him.

ART. 133. When sufficient bail has been given for the release of the prisoner, or the results of the action are properly secured by competent bond, in the manner prescribed by law for such cases, no one shall be kept in prison or under restraint, unless he is amenable to a severe or infamous penalty.

ART. 134. Any individual illegally imprisoned or detained in violation of the provisions of Articles 126, 128, 129, and 130, may have recourse, either by himself or by one acting in his name, to the magistrate designated by law, and demand that the legal forms be observed in his case. . . .

ART. 135. In criminal cases persons accused shall not be required to testify under oath as to their own acts, nor shall their descendants, husband or wife, or relatives to the third degree of consanguinity or to the second of affinity, inclusive, be compelled to do so.

ART. 136. No torture shall be inflicted, nor in any case shall confiscation of property be imposed. No infamous penalty shall extend beyond the person of the condemned.

ART. 137. The house of every inhabitant of the Chilean territory is an inviolable asylum, and shall not be invaded, except for some special reason determined by law and by virtue of an order of the proper authority.

ART. 138. Private correspondene is inviolable. No papers or documents can be seized, intercepted, or searched, except in cases expressly designated by law.

ART. 139. Congress alone has power to impose taxes, whether direct or indirect, and no authority of the State or individual shall, without its special authorization, impose them under any pretext whatsoever even if it were as a loan, voluntary or otherwise.

ART. 140. No personal service or burden of any kind shall be exacted, except by virtue of a decree issued by the proper authority based on a law authorizing the exaction, and such decree must be shown to the party concerned at the time of requiring the service, or imposing the burden.

ART. 141. No armed body shall make requisitions or exact any kind of assistance, except through the civil authorities and by their order.

ART. 142. No kind of labor or industry shall be prohibited, unless opposed to good morals or to public health or safety, or unless the prohibition is required by national interest, and a law so declares.

ART. 143. Every author or inventor shall have the exclusive ownership of his discovery or invention, for a time specified by law; and in case the law requires that said discovery or invention should be made public, suitable indemnification shall be paid to the inventor.

Chapter X. General Provisions

ART. 144. Public instruction shall preëminently demand the attention of the Government. Congress shall formulate a general plan of national education, and the minister of the respective department shall annually make a report on the condition of the same throughout the entire Republic.

ART. 145. There shall be a department of public instruction, which shall superintend and direct, under the authority of the Government, the national education.

ART. 146. No payment made in the treasury shall be approved unless it was made by virtue of a decree, in which the law or that part of the

budget, relating to it, approved by both chambers, authorizing the expenditure, is properly stated.

ART. 147. All Chileans able to bear arms shall be enrolled on the militia lists, unless specially exempted by law.

ART. 148. The public force is essentially obedient. No armed body shall deliberate.

ART. 149. Every measure taken by the President of the Republic, the Senate, or the Chamber of Deputies, in the presence of or under pressure of an army, or of a general at the head of an armed force, or of any assemblage of people, who, whether armed or unarmed, disobeys the civil authorities, is null in law and shall have no effect whatever.

ART. 150. No person or reunion of persons shall assume the title or representation of the people, arrogate to themselves its rights, or petition in its name. The violation of this article is sedition.

ART. 151. No magistrate, person, or reunion of persons shall assume, even under pretext of extraordinary circumstances, any authority or right not expressly conferred upon them by the laws. Every act in violation of this article is null and void.

ART. 152. When one or more places in the Republic are declared to be in a state of siege, in conformity with the provision of Clause 20 of Article 73, the following powers and no others shall be understood to be granted by virtue of said declaration to the President of the Republic:

1. To make arrests and keep the arrested persons in their own houses or in establishments which are not jails or prisons for common criminals.

2. To remove persons from one department to another, on the mainland and within the area comprised between the port of Caldera on the north and the Province of Llanquihue on the south. . . .

ART. 153. No entailment of property already made, or to be made in the future, shall impede the free alienation of the property affected by it; but the value of the property alienated shall be secured in favor of the beneficiaries under the terms of the entailment. A special law shall regulate the method of carrying this article into effect. [See below Annex No. 6.]

Chapter XI. Observance and Amendment of the Constitution

ART. 154. Every public functionary upon the assumption of his office shall take an oath to support this Constitution.

ART. 155. Congress alone shall have the power to settle, in conformity with Article 31 and the following of the Constitution, any doubts that may arise in regard to the interpretation of the provisions of the same.

ART. 156. An amendment to the Constitution may be proposed in either chamber in the manner and form provided in the first part of Article 31.

No vote shall be taken in either chamber upon the proposition of amendment without the presence of an absolute majority of the members thereof.

In approving a proposition of amendment the chambers shall adhere to the rules established in Articles 32, 41, and 42.

ART. 157. A proposition of amendment, approved by both chambers, which in conformity with Article 34 goes to the President of the Republic, may only be objected to by the latter, by proposing modifications or corrections to the amendments agreed upon by the Congress.

If the modifications proposed by the President of the Republic are approved in each chamber by a majority of two-thirds of the members present in conformity with the provision of the second paragraph of the preceding Article, the proposed

amendment shall be returned to the President of the Republic for its promulgation.

If the chambers approve only in part the modifications and corrections made by the President of the Republic, and do not insist by a two-thirds majority upon the amendment as agreed upon by Congress, the amendments upon which the President of the Republic and the chambers are in accord shall be considered approved, and the project in this form shall be returned for its promulgation.

When the chambers do not approve the modifications proposed by the President of the Republic and shall insist by a majority of two-thirds of those present in each chamber upon the amendment as agreed upon by them, the proposition of amendment in its original form shall be returned to the President of the Republic for its promulgation.

ART. 158. The amendments, approved and published, as established in the two preceding articles, shall be submitted to the ratification of the Congress to be elected or renewed after their publication.

The new Congress when taking up for the purpose of ratification the constitutional amendments submitted to it, shall consider them, exactly in the same terms in which they are formulated without making in them any alteration whatever.

The deliberation upon the acceptance and ratification shall begin in that chamber in which the proposition of amendment originated, and each chamber shall pass upon the question by an absolute majority of the number of members present, which number shall not be less than the absolute majority of the number of members of which each Chamber is composed.

Upon the ratification of the proposition of amendment by both chambers it shall be transmitted to the President of the Republic for its promulgation.

Upon the promulgation of the amendment, its provisions shall thereby become part of this Constitution, and shall be considered embodied in its text.

The amendments which are to be submitted to the ratification of the next succeeding Congress shall be published by the President of the Republic within six months previous to the renewal of Congress, and three months at least before the date for holding the elections. In making such publication the President of the Republic shall announce to the country that the Congress about to be elected shall be entrusted with the duty of accepting and ratifying the proposed amendments. When the Congress called upon to perform this duty permits its constitutional period to expire without having performed it, the amendment shall be considered as never proposed.

ART. 159. When Congress is called to meet in extraordinary session, either chamber may take up, discuss, and vote the proposed constitutional amendments to which Article 156 refers, even when such proposed amendments were not included in the call.

A Congress called upon to consider the ratification of proposed amendments may, if both chambers agree thereto by an absolute majority of votes, in sessions attended by an absolute majority of their members, continue its deliberations in extraordinary session for a period not exceeding ninety days without necessity of a call of the President of the Republic, and consider exclusively the question of ratification. In all cases the chambers shall have the power to deliberate upon the ratification of proposed amendments in the extraordinary ses-

sions held by them under the call of the President of the Republic, even if the subject is not mentioned in the said call.

Transient Provision

Substitutes of Senators and Deputies, elected in conformity with the constitutional provisions now in force, shall continue to hold their positions until the first renewal of the Chamber of Deputies.

If in the meantime a Senator or Deputy dies, his seat shall be given to the respective substitute.

If the substitute is already acting in place of a Senator or Deputy, or dies, or loses his position, said office shall be filled according to the provisions of the present Constitution.

AMENDMENTS AND EXPLANATIONS

Annex No. 1

Law of July 27, 1865

ARTICLE 1. It is hereby declared that under Article 4 of the Constitution those who do not profess the Roman Catholic Apostolic Religion are permitted to practice their religion inside private buildings belonging to them.

ART. 2. Non-Catholics shall be permitted to found and support schools for the instruction of their children in the doctrines of their respective religions.

Annex No. 2

Law of September 10, 1887

ARTICLE 1. Every one who wishes to obtain from the Government a pecuniary favor, whether in the form of a pension, grant, condonation of debt, or recognition of civil or military services shall before filing his petition to Congress, as provided in Clause 6, Article 12 of the Constitution, obtain from the secretaries of the two chambers, certificates showing that he has not filed during the five preceding years any petition relating to the same subject, and if such petition was filed, what was the result thereof.

ART. 2. If it should appear by any of the two certificates above named that the petitioner had filed before any chamber an application of analogous nature, within the five preceding years, which has not ended in any practical result, no action on the new petition shall be taken until the former one is disposed of; and if it is rejected, until one year thereafter, as provided by Article 42 of the Constitution.

ART. 3. No petition or resolution regarding the subjects referred to in Article 1 shall be acted upon without a report from the respective committee, which, if services rendered to the Nation by the interested party or his relatives are invoked, shall previously pass upon the question, whether the said services did or did not entitle the person who rendered them to national gratitude.

The committee shall set forth, particularly in its report, what are the facts or circumstances which in its opinion rendered the petitioners entitled to national gratitude.

ART. 4. The reports on petitions or resolutions for pecuniary favors of whatever nature shall be revised in each chamber by a special committee consisting of the members of the Board and the chairmen of the standing committees, and it shall decide whether the petitioners or their ancestors have or have not a claim upon the national gratitude.

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ART. 5. Each chamber in passing upon these petitions or resolutions shall decide previously whether the alleged services merit national gratitude.

ART. 6. No resolution or petition of this kind shall be signed by more than two members of Congress.

ART. 7. The reports of the committees in these matters shall remain secret until actually submitted to the respective chamber.

ART. 8. All resolutions or applications of this nature shall be considered by Congress in the order in which they were introduced or filed, on special days set apart for this purpose, unless precedence has been granted to any one by secret vote by a majority of three-fourths of the members present.

ART. 9. Petitions withdrawn by the applicant but reported by a committee shall remain in the archives in the secretary's office. . . .

Annex No. 3

Law of July 4, 1878

ARTICLE 1. Whenever in accordance with the provisions of the Constitution or the laws, one-third, two-thirds, one-fourth, or three-fourths of the number of members of a corporation are required to act or resolve on any subject, and if the number of persons constituting the said corporation does not admit of exact division by three or four, respectively, the following rule shall be observed: The fraction resulting after the corresponding arithmetical operation to find the third or two-thirds, or the fourth or the three-fourths is made shall be considered as a whole number and taken as such in the computation if exceeding one-half; but if equal to, or less than one-half, it shall be ignored. For instance, the third of seven shall be two and the two-thirds, five; the fourth of eleven shall be three, and the three-fourths eight.

ART. 2. The same rule shall be applicable when the laws shall require some other proportional part of the members or of the votes in a corporation to give validity to its acts, and the number of members or votes does not admit of exact division by the figure serving as a basis for the proportion.

ART. 3. The law of October eight, eighteen hundred and sixty-two, is hereby repealed.

Annex No. 4

Law of September, 1884

SOLE ARTICLE. The election of the members of the Senate and of the Chamber of Deputies, who, according to Article 48 of the Constitution, should form the permanent committee, shall be made by accumulative vote.

Annex No. 5

Law of August 28, 1851

SOLE ARTICLE. The thirtieth day of August set apart by Article 57 of the Constitution for the counting of the votes for President of the Republic is not absolutely unchangeable. If for lack of a quorum in each chamber, or for any other unforeseen circumstances, the counting can not take place on that day, it shall be made on some other day, as soon as the difficulty or impediment which caused the postponement is removed.

The President of the Republic shall extend for

CHIN HILLS

this purpose the sessions of Congress or call an extra session.

Annex No. 7

Law of December 16, 1848

SOLE ARTICLE. The provision of Article 153 of the Constitution of 1833 does not revive the entailments quashed by the Constitution of 1828.

CHILIARCHS, captains of thousands, in the army of the Vandals.—T. Hodgkin, *Italy and her invaders*, bk. 3, ch. 2.

CHILICOTHE TRIBE. See SHAWANESE, SHAWNEES, OR SHAWANDES.

CHILLIANWALLAH, Battle of (1849). See INDIA: 1845-1849.

CHILLY, village of France southeast of Amiens, scene of fighting in 1916. See WORLD WAR: 1916: II. Western front: c, 3.

CHILPERIC I (d. 584), Frankish king of Neustria, 561-584.

Chilperic II (d. 720), Frankish king of Neustria, 715-720.

CHILTERN HUNDREDS, the three hundreds of Stoke, Desborough and Bodenham in Buckinghamshire, England. The stewardship of the chiltern hundreds was originally an office for the suppression of robbers in the district, but was later used for parliamentary purposes. A seat in the British House of Commons "cannot be resigned, nor can a man who has once formally taken his seat for one constituency throw it up and contest another. Either a disqualification must be incurred, or the House must declare the seat vacant." The necessary disqualification can be incurred by accepting an office of profit under the crown,—within certain official categories. "Certain old offices of nominal value in the gift of the Treasury are now granted, as of course, to members who wish to resign their seats in order to be quit of Parliamentary duties or to contest another constituency. These offices are the Stewardship of the Chiltern Hundreds, of the manors of East Hendred, Northstead, or Hempholme, and the escheatorship of Munster. The office is resigned as soon as it has operated to vacate the seat."—W. R. Anson, *Law and custom of the constitution*, v. 1, p. 84.

CHILTS, Indian tribe. See FLATHEADS (Salishan family).

CHIMAKUAN FAMILY.—"The Chimakum are said to have been formerly one of the largest and most powerful tribes of Puget Sound. Their warlike habits early tended to diminish their numbers, and when visited by Gibbs in 1854 they counted only about 70 individuals. This small remnant occupied some 15 small lodges on Port Townsend Bay."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report, Bureau of ethnology*, p. 62.—See also INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific coast area.

CHIMARIKAN FAMILY.—"According to Powers, this family was represented, so far as known, by two tribes in California, one the Chimal-a-kwe, living on New River, a branch of the Trinity, the other the Chimariko, residing upon the Trinity itself from Burnt Ranch up to the mouth of North Fork, California. The two tribes are said to have been as numerous formerly as the Hupa, by whom they were overcome and nearly exterminated. Upon the arrival of the Americans only 25 of the Chimalakwe were left."—J. W. Powell, *Seventh annual report, Bureau of ethnology*, p. 63.

CHIN HILLS, mountainous district of Burma. See BURMA: Geographical characteristics.

CHINA

Names of the country.—"That spacious seat of ancient civilization which we call China has loomed always so large to western eyes, . . . that, at eras far apart, we find it to have been distinguished by different appellations according as it was regarded as the terminus of a southern sea route coasting the great peninsulas and islands of Asia, or as that of a northern land route traversing the longitude of that continent. In the former aspect the name applied has nearly always been some form of the name Sin, Chin, Sinæ, China. In the latter point of view the region in question was known to the ancients as the land of the Seres; the middle ages as the Empire of Cathay. The name of China has been supposed, like many another word and name connected with trade and geography of the far east, to have come to us through the Malays, and to have been applied by them to the great eastern monarchy from the style of the dynasty of Thsin, which a little more than two centuries before our era enjoyed a brief but very vigorous existence. . . . There are reasons however for believing that the name of China must have been bestowed at a much earlier date, for it occurs in the laws of Manu, which assert the Chinas to have been degenerate Kshatryas, and in the Mahabharat, compositions many centuries older than the imperial dynasty of Thsin. . . . This name may have yet possibly been connected with the Thsin, or some monarchy of like dynastic title; for that dynasty had reigned locally in Shensi from the 6th century before our era; and when, at a still earlier date, the empire was partitioned into many small kingdoms, we find among them the dynasties of the Tcin and the Ching. . . . Some at least of the circumstances which have been collected . . . render it the less improbable that the Sinim of the prophet Isaiah . . . should be truly interpreted as indicating the Chinese. The name of China in this form was late in reaching the Greeks and Romans, and to them it probably came through people of Arabian speech, as the Arabs, being without the sound of 'ch,' made the China of the Hindus and Malays into Sin, and perhaps sometimes into Thin. Hence the Thin of the author of the Periplus of the Erythraean Sea, who appears to be the first extant author to employ the name in this form; hence also the Sinæ and Thinaæ of Ptolemy. . . . If we now turn to the Seres we find this name mentioned by classic authors much more frequently and at an earlier date by at least a century. The name is familiar enough to the Latin poets of the Augustan age, but always in a vague way. . . . The name of Seres is probably from its earliest use in the west identified with the name of the silkworm and its produce, and this association continued until the name ceased entirely to be used as a geographical expression. . . . It was in the days of the Mongols . . . that China first became really known to Europe, and that by a name which, though especially applied to the northern provinces, also came to bear a more general application, Cathay. This name, Khitai, is that by which China is styled to this day by all, or nearly all, the nations which know it from an inland point of view, including the Russians, the Persians, and the nations of Turkestan; and yet it originally belonged to a people who were not Chinese at all. The Khitans were a people of Manchu race, who inhabited for centuries a country to the north-east of China." During a period between the 10th

and 12th centuries, the Khitans acquired supremacy over their neighbours and established an empire which embraced Northern China and the adjoining regions of Tartary. "It must have been during this period, ending with the overthrow of the dynasty [called the Leao or Iron dynasty] in 1123, and whilst this northern monarchy was the face which the Celestial Empire turned to Inner Asia, that the name of Khitan, Khitat, or Khitai, became indissolubly associated with China."—H. Yule, *Cathay and the way thither: Preliminary essay.*—"The term 'China,' applied by Europeans to this region, is unknown to the natives, and the Tsin dynasty, whence probably the Hindu form China, has for nearly fifteen hundred years ceased to rule over the plains of the Hoang-ho and Yangtze-kiang. Nor do they recognize the epithet 'Celestial,' attributed to their empire. . . . In ordinary language the usual expression is Chung-kwó; that is, 'Middle Kingdom,' or 'Central Empire,' in reference either to the preponderance gradually acquired by the central plains over the surrounding states, or to the idea common to so many peoples, that China was really the centre of the world. To the usual four points of the compass the Chinese add a fifth—the centre; that is, China. Since the Manchu conquest the official designation is Tatsing-kwó; that is, the 'Great and Pure Empire,' or, perhaps, Ta Tsing-kwó, the 'Empire of Tsing, or Pure.' . . . The people themselves are the 'Children of Han,' or the 'Men of Tsang,' in allusion to two famous dynasties. They also call themselves Limin, an enigmatical term commonly rendered 'Black-haired Race.' But there is no precise natural term of general acceptance either for the country or the people."—E. Reclus, *Earth and its inhabitants*, v. 2, ch. 5.

Geography of China proper.—Article 3 of the Chinese constitution reads: "The territory of the Chung Hua Min Kuo continues the same as that of the former Empire." China has an estimated area of 1,532,420 square miles and a population of 302,110,000 (1911). It lies between 18° and 43° north latitude, and extends from 08° to 122° longitude east from Greenwich. Its boundaries are Mongolia on the north; Tibet on the west; Tongking and the Gulf of Tongking on the south; and the Eastern Sea on the east. (See also MONGOLIA and TIBET.) . . . "The massive and elevated table-land of Tibet forms the centre or backbone from which all the mountains of China branch off throughout the country. To the North, the Eastern K'uenlun throwing out numerous chains into Kansu, and splitting up towards the East into 3 principal systems: (1°) The Alashan (Holan-shan) range, running North-Eastwards through the Ordos plateau into the bend of the Hwang-ho, then continuing through the Shansi plateau, the In-shan mountains and Inner Hsingngan. . . . (2°) The Eastern K'uenlun properly so-called. This range separates the basin of the Hwang-ho from that of the Yangtze-kiang and takes successively, as it runs from West to East the names of the Sik'ing-shan, Ts'inlingshan, Funiu-shan and Hwaiyang-shan. . . . (3°) The Min-shan and Kiulung ranges. The former runs along the Northern limit of Szechw'an, the second separates the Han-ho from the Yangtze-kiang. . . . Besides the above systems, which cover nearly the whole of China, there are 2 other important ranges extending along the coast, one to the South, and the other to the North, forming the Shantung promontory. (1°) The Tayü-ling

covers a great part of Fokien and of Chêkiang. The range runs parallel with the coast, North-East and South-West, and forms the boundary line between these two Provinces. . . . (2°) The Shantung hills are formed by several groups, whose highest peak, the T'ai-shan, attains 5,060 feet in height. . . . Let us mention, before concluding the orography of China, its 5 Sacred Mountains (Wu Yoh), famous in the annals of the country. These are the following: the T'ai-shan, in Shantung; Hang-shan, in Shansi; Sung-shan, in Honan; Hwa-shan, in Shensi; Heng-shan, in Hunan. Several other mountains are also famous. The principal are: the 3 peaks of Dokerla near Atuntze, North-West of Yunnan; Ngomei-shan, in Western Szechwan; Wut'ai-shan, in the North of Shansi. . . . The Great Plain lies to the North-East of China, and occupies the greater part of Chihli, Honan, Nganhwei, Kiangsu and Shantung. It is slightly undulated and is of alluvial or loess

West the Szechwan plateau, and flows into the Tung-hai or Eastern Sea, a little to the North of Shanghai. Its length is 3,200 miles.—L. Richard, *Comprehensive geography of the Chinese empire and dependencies*, pp. 11-13, 15.—“Both rivers [the Hwang-ho and Yangtze-kiang] wash down large quantities of sedimentary matter, estimated in 1792 by Staunton at one-fiftieth of the whole volume for the united stream. . . . These deposits are one of the great sources of danger to the riverain populations. Natural embankments are thereby gradually formed along the course of the stream, whose bed is raised, and new channels formed during the floods, which often cause widespread ruin. Like the Nile, Po, and Mississippi, the Yellow River thus flows occasionally at a higher elevation than the surrounding plain, although not so high as has been represented by the terror-stricken fancy of the inhabitants. A vast system of embankments has been erected on



THE MARBLE CAMEL BRIDGE

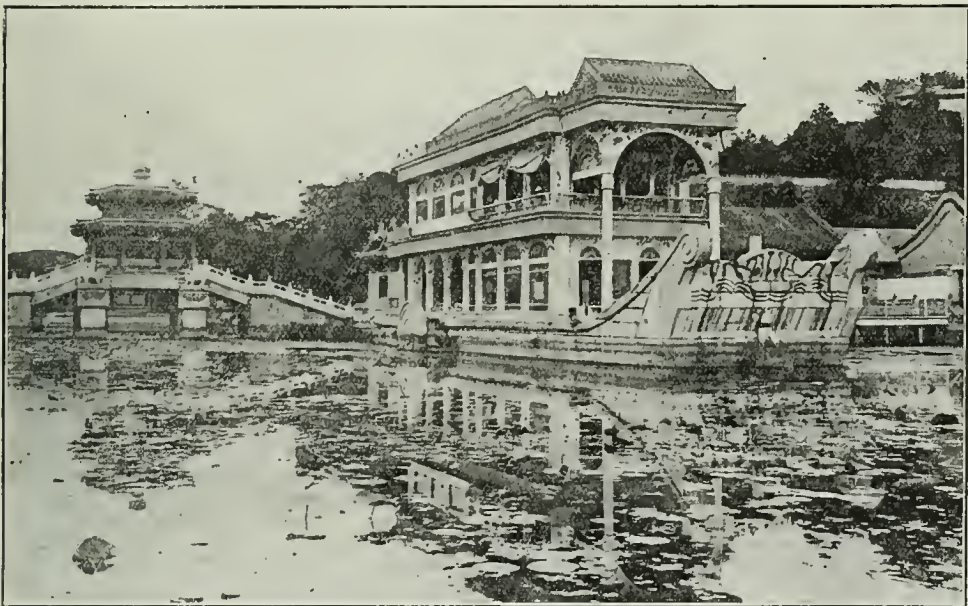
Across an inlet of the Sacred Lotus Lake, in the Forbidden City, Peking

formation. Besides the Great Plain, there are others of lesser importance, the principal of which are: the Tung'ing Lake plain, that of Hank'ow and of the P'oyang Lake, all of which are situated in the Yantze valley. The plains of Hangchow Fu and of Canton are much less important. . . . No country in the world is so well watered as China. Her river system, like her mountain system, is intimately connected with Tibet. Her rivers rise there like her mountains and run in a West to Easterly direction. China possesses 3 great rivers. In the North, the Hwang-ho (Yellow River), which rises South of the Ku-ku Nor or Ts'ing-hai, takes an extensive Northerly sweep round the Ortos plateau, forms the Western boundary of the Shansi plateau, and flows into the Gulf of Chihli. Its total length is about 2,700 miles. In the Centre, the Yangtze-kiang (Yang Kingdom River), called also the Blue River. The Yangtze rises to the South of the Hwang-ho, and runs at first Southward, under the name of the Kinsha-kiang (Golden Sand River), then takes a North-Easterly direction, leaving to the North-

both sides to keep the stream within its bed during the rising of its waters. . . . But this very system itself, maintained by the constant labor of 60,000 hands, has the inevitable result of increasing the . . . difference in level between the river bed and the low-lying plains. . . . The higher the embankments are carried the more dangerous becomes the stream. In spite of all precautions, great disasters are occasionally caused by the bursting of the dykes, when the crops of whole provinces are swept away, and millions become a prey to famine and pestilence. For China the Hoang-ho still remains the Nih-ho or 'Rebellious River,' as it is called by the old chroniclers. The riverain populations are always at the mercy of invading hosts, or even of predatory bands strong enough to seize and open the sluices. . . . Apart from the highlands and alluvial plains, most of the Hoang-ho basin is covered with hoang-tu, or 'yellow-earth,' which prevails throughout Pechili, Shansi, Kansu, half of Shensi, the northern division of Honan, and extensive tracts in Shantung. This formation, comprising a region larger than the

whole of France, reaches in some places even to the banks of the Yang-tze, and stretches westwards to the Tibetan plateaux. In these regions everything is yellow—hills, fields, highways, houses, the very torrents and streams charged with alluvia. Even the vegetation is often covered with a yellow veil, while every puff of wind raises clouds of fine dust. From these lands the emperor himself [took] the title of Hoang-ti, or 'Yellow Lord,' equivalent to 'Master of the World.' According to Richthofen, the hoang-tu, regarded by him as a formation analogous to the loess of the Rhine and Danube basins, is nothing more than so much dust accumulated during the course of ages by the northern winds. . . . On the plateaux encircled by mountain barriers forming closed basins the yellow earth forms a uniform layer of unknown depth. But wherever the erosive action of running waters has had full play, enormous fissures with vertical walls have been opened in the argillaceous mass.

contain some of the richest coal beds in the world. Anthracite and other varieties are found in all the provinces watered by tributaries of the Hoang-ho. . . . The Yang-tze-kiang basin comprises three-eighths of China proper. . . . Although not originally founded here, the State drew from this region the chief elements of strength, which enabled it to develop into the paramount power of East Asia. Of the two great Chinese rivers, the Yang-tze is by far the largest, and is hence commonly spoken of simply as the Ta-kiang, or 'Great River.' . . . It is certainly one of the very largest in the world. In the length of its course and the extent of its basin it is no doubt surpassed by three others in Asia alone—the Ob, Yenisei, and Lena. But in volume it far exceeds those Siberian streams, and, according to the careful measurements of Blakiston and Guppy, it is surpassed in this respect by three only in the whole world—the Amazon, Congo, and La Plata. . . . The Yang-



MARBLE BOAT AND BRIDGE ON LOTUS LAKE OF THE SUMMER PALACE, PEKING

. . . The erosions reveal in some places a thickness of at least 2,000 feet, offering a prodigious quantity of fertilizing soil, constantly washed down, and maintaining the productiveness of the plains watered by the Hoang-ho. For this yellow earth is the richest soil in China, being far more fertile even than ordinary alluvium. It requires no manuring, and goes on producing heavy crops for ages. . . . Much ingenuity has been displayed in overcoming the difficulties offered to free communication by the perpendicular walls of the yellow lands [see also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: China: B. C. 2297-A. D. 1915]. To pass from river basin to river basin advantage has been taken of every narrow fissure, deep cuttings have been made in many places, and fresh routes opened when these have been filled up by the landslips. Some of the most-frequented roads have been excavated to depths of from 40 to 100 feet and upwards, and the labor expended on all these works is at least equal to that lavished on the building of the Great Wall, or the construction of the Grand Canal. . . . The mountains whose lower slopes are covered by the yellow earth also

tze has never caused such widespread ruin as that which has attended the shiftings of the Hoang-ho, nor is any river in the world more useful for navigation. If it does not yet number as many steamers as the Mississippi, or even the Volga, it is none the less crowded with flotillas of junks and river craft of every description, while its floating population is numbered by hundreds of thousands. . . . The Yang-tze has received from the Mongolians the title of Dalai, or 'Sea,' and in the history of China it has played the same part as the ocean and great marine inlets elsewhere. It has afforded even greater facilities for travel, for the transport of goods, and for the mutual intercourse of the surrounding peoples. At the present day European influences are penetrating into the heart of the empire through the same channel, which for practical purposes may be regarded as a continuation of the seaboard, stretching some 2,400 miles inland. The total length of the navigable waters in its basin is equal to half the circumference of the globe. The head-streams of the Yang-tze are known to rise on the Tibetan plateaux far beyond the limits of China proper."—E. Reclus,

The earth and its inhabitants, v. 2, ch. 5.—"In the South, the Si-kiang (Western River), which rises in the Yünnan plateau, and empties itself near Canton into the South China Sea, after a course of 1,250 miles. Of the minor rivers, which water through themselves, or through their tributaries, the greater part of China, the most important are the 3 following: (1°) The Peh-ho (White river) rising in Mongolia, runs through the Chihli Province and flows into the Gulf of Chihli. (2°) The Hwei-ho which drains the Provinces of Honan and Nganhwei and flows into the Hungtseh lake. (3°) The Min-kiang, which flows through Fokien, and empties its waters into the China Sea, North of Formosa. The Mekong or Lants'ang-kiang and

overflow their banks. Between these 2 seasons are a short Spring and Autumn. The winds change their direction and the temperature is unsteady. Spring is generally ushered in by spells of increasing warmth; Autumn, on the contrary, is mild and agreeable, and lasts from the end of September till the middle of November. At T'ientsin the thermometer falls in Winter to -4° Fahrenheit, and rises in Summer to 100° F. At Shanghai it reaches in Winter $17^{\circ}.5$, and sometimes to 102° F. At Canton it rarely falls in Winter below 32° F., while in Summer the maximum varies from $96^{\circ}.8$ to $100^{\circ}.4$ F. Taken on the whole, China enjoys a rather dry climate, that is, it rains less there than in other climates lying within the same



A SCENE ON THE CHU-KIANG, OR PEARL RIVER, CHINA

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A great part of the population of many Chinese cities situated on the river front live on these sampans, or river boats

the Salween or Lu-kiang, are also important streams, but they drain only the lower and less considerable part of Yünnan."—L. Richard, *Comprehensive geography of the Chinese empire and dependencies*, pp. 15-16.—See also ASIA: Influence of geography on the political problems; CANALS: Asiatic: China.

Climate.—"Speaking in general, it may be said that China enjoys two quite distinct seasons: (1°) That produced by the North winds. This becomes more rigorous as one advances Northwards. The weather is generally dry when dust-storms prevail over the plains of the North. It lasts from November to April. (2°) That resulting from the Southern winds. The chief features of this season are its excessive heat, which is moister and more unhealthy along the coasts, while in the interior, it is greater, but healthier and less depressing. Rain falls frequently during this season and rivers

limits of latitude. Szechw'an and the neighbouring regions: lower Yünnan, Kweichow, the South of Kansu and of Shensi are however exceptions, the climate of these Provinces being foggy and rainy. These features of the climate of China are especially due to its situation, on the South of the vast and lofty table-land of Mongolia. Hot air tends by its nature to ascend to the higher regions of the atmosphere, while cold air, on the contrary, tends to descend. In Winter, the high table-land of Mongolia, deprived of the warmth of the sun, pours its cold air upon the regions of China that are less elevated and whose air is warmer; there is then produced a current of air coming from the North. In Summer, on the contrary, the sands of Mongolia are heated by the sun. They are thus covered by a warmer layer of air than that of China, cooled by its rivers and the sea that bathes it. A current then sets in from

the South. As the sea changes its temperature more slowly than the land, the coasts of China undergo less variation in their climate than the interior. These two great movements bear also close relation to the variations of the atmospheric pressure, and belong in fact to the great phenomenon of the monsoons, to which the whole Asiatic continent is subject."—L. Richard, *Comprehensive geography of the Chinese empire and dependencies*, pp. 14-15.

Agriculture.—Natural resources.—Vast coal fields.—"China proper is eminently fitted by nature to be the home of a great civilization. For thousands of years its best sections have been subjected to nearly continuous farming, and, thanks partly to the skill of the cultivators and partly to its own original strength, it shows no signs of exhaustion. In the North is the loess, very fertile, in places hundreds of feet deep, and probably built up by the dust from the plains of Central Asia carried south and east by the winds of many millenniums. In the central and northeastern districts is the great alluvial plain formed of deposits laid down through the ages by the muddy waters of the Yangtze and Yellow rivers. In other sections there are numerous other plains and valleys. . . . Added to the fertility of the soil is a favorable climate. China lies almost entirely in the temperate zone, which with its marked seasonal changes seems to be favorable to the development of a vigorous race. . . . The heaviest rainfall comes as a rule in the late winter, spring and summer when it is of most use to the growing crops. Then China proper is well supplied with rivers. . . . These streams not only provide for irrigation where this is needed, but furnish easy and inexpensive means of transportation. . . . China is richly supplied with minerals. The precious metals are not plentiful, but the minerals used in industry are unusually abundant. Every-one of the eighteen provinces has workable deposits of coal, and in one province alone a German geologist has estimated that there is enough to last the entire world at the present rate of consumption for many centuries. There are extensive deposits of iron. Great fields of petroleum are known to exist. Antimony, tin and copper are found in quantities."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 2-5.—"Since the food-supply of the Chinese population has always been supplied from within the Empire, agriculture has rightly been accorded first place among all branches of labour from time immemorial. According to legend, the Emperor Shenung (2737-2697 B. C.) established agriculture as a science. He examined the various kinds of soils and gave directions as to what should be cultivated in each. He taught the people how to make ploughs, and instructed them in the best methods of husbandry. Immediate results were seen in the improved conditions of the people, and succeeding generations have amply testified their gratitude to him. Under the title of 'Prince of Cereals' he has long since been deified, and is worshipped throughout the length and breadth of the land. . . . The Chinese nation is to a very large extent vegetarian, flesh being eaten only in small quantities except on festival occasions. Pork, chickens, ducks, and fish comprise the meat-diet, and of these the Chinese are excessively fond, but to the great majority they are luxuries, only to be indulged in on rare occasions. Rice is to them what wheat is to us, only more so. . . . Next to rice the more important food-stuffs are wheat, maize, pulse, and cabbage. The Chinese fry most of their vegetables, and for this purpose a vegetable oil is nearly always used. The

oils expressed from the seeds of members of the Cabbage (*Brassica*) family, the Soy Bean (*Glycine hispida*), and Sesamé (*Sesamum indicum*) being most in request. Whilst the Chinese cultivate a great variety of vegetables the quality of one and all, judged from our standard, is wretchedly inferior. With the exception of maize and sweet potatoes, it is safe to say that not a single Chinese vegetable would command attention in this country [England]. . . . In the cultivation of rice, the patience, ingenuity, and incredible industry of the Chinese are particularly well exemplified. The terraced fields, necessary to ensure a flow of water, whether it be on a seemingly flat plain or on a steep hillside, meet the eye of the traveller on all sides. It is little short of marvellous when one reflects on the skilful way in which the entire rice-belt in China is terraced, and the enormous amount of time and labour involved in the undertaking indicate what a hard task-master necessity has been. In matters of irrigation the Chinese are past masters. They have not yet succeeded in making water run uphill, but with their various contrivances they lift it bodily from streams and ditches and convey it long distances to wherever it is needed. The number of devices for irrigation purposes is almost legion, and though simple in principle and efficacious in results they are intricate in detail. Some are operated by hand, others by the foot, and many are automatically worked by the current of the streams."—E. H. Wilson, *Naturalist in western China*, v. 2, pp. 49-51.—"In passing from Japan to China, we pass from a country that has experienced perhaps the maximum of its local development to one whose material bases for future growth are so vast that we may fairly expect industrial development of very remarkable extent. This development will not necessarily require cheap labor, though in its earliest phases it will have very cheap labor to aid it. But its real strength will lie in the possession of great and easily worked coals, of very high grade. As regards the question of tonnage, we may note that China is credited with containing high-grade coal reserves amounting to about 1,000,000 millions of tons. This quantity is about half the American tonnage; but it is five times as much as still remains to the German Republic, and six times as much as is left in the British Isles. For other comparisons, the Chinese total is one hundred and fifty times as great as that of Japan, and about eight or ten times as large as that of the Russian Empire at the time of its greatest extent. As regards grade of coal, we may further note that only high-grade coals are included in these estimates, and that almost half the Chinese tonnage is supposed to be anthracite. A few words on the geographic distribution of the Chinese coals may serve to throw light on current political disputes. There are many coal areas in China, but the bulk of the tonnage occurs in one or two very large fields. One of these, in north China, embraces most of the province of Shansi, with portions of Chihli and Honan; and is credited with some 750,000 million tons, or three-fourths of the Chinese total. The other large field, in south China, covers much of the provinces of Yunnan, Kueichou, Szechuan, with adjoining areas, and contains over 200,000 million tons. The province of Shantung, in an isolated field, contains about as much coal as all of Japan, and incidentally furnishes one of the best routes in to the great Shansi coalfield. It also yields at present about ten per cent. of the total coal output of China, which for the years immediately before the war had risen to almost twenty million tons. During

the later days of the Empire, a steel works was built at Hanyang, supposedly at government expense as a government enterprise. It seems to have passed later into foreign, nominally private, control. Its output of iron was approximately 250,000 tons annually, somewhat greater than the total reported output of Japan. There seems to be some reason to believe that the Hanyang works could even now, if they had any surplus for export, lay down finished steel products in San Francisco more cheaply than could any American steel works. Under these conditions as to fuel supply, and the known existing status of the Chinese labor market, there seems to be no necessity for arguing at length that Chinese competition with American and European mills would be possible. That is clear enough without discussion. The matter of real interest is not as to the fact, but as to the date of its arrival; and in this we can have little to guide us. What we do know now, however, is that industrial development can take place very rapidly indeed, if natural resources and labor are available and if capital is supplied. There is no reason to expect the growth of the Chinese steel and other industries to be very slow, provided they are undertaken at all. There would be no physical or technical obstacle, capital being supplied, that would prevent China attaining sixth or seventh place among the iron and steel producing countries of the world within ten years after the development was started; and to reach a higher rank soon after that. Building up a modern industry is very quickly done in these days, if there are the materials to work on and the money to start the work. So that if the impetus to Chinese industrial development comes, from any source, we may expect very rapid growth to follow in the steel industry. With regard to such as the textile industries, it is probable that the growth could be even more rapid, for they do not require the extensive and relatively slow mine development that is necessary as a basis for iron and steel manufactures. We may therefore take it for granted that the chief industrial features of the next two or three decades may easily be the growth of Chinese industrialism; and that in the form which this growth takes, and the markets it affects, may lie the future of peace or war for the world. In so far as Chinese manufactures are marketed in China itself, and aid in the development of that country, there will be involved merely a somewhat narrower market for European and American goods. But if industries are built up in China chiefly for the export trade—and this might readily occur in an industrial development fostered or controlled from the outside, the consequences would be far more serious. In their worst form they would bear most heavily on Europe, whose coal and other raw material supplies are not excessive; but at some stage of the development American industries would feel the weight of Chinese competition.”—E. C. Eckel, *Coal, iron and war*, pp. 343-345.

Languages and dialects of the country.—“We remember, some thirty years or so ago, trying to elicit from a lecturer on languages and literature his idea of the position held by the Chinese language amongst that of others. After considerable humming and hawing, he said that it held one of its own, outside of the general scheme of languages as elaborated by philologists. This position is practically the same that it holds to this day amongst many of those who delight to classify language. As the Chinese have been outside the comity of nations, so their language has been relegated to a position of its own with no certain relationship to the other speeches of mankind; and

as the exclusiveness of the nation is being slowly broken down, so it is to be hoped that, before long, in response to the toil of not a few scholars, the affinity of Chinese with that of other languages in the world will be more clearly established and the wall or partition separating it from the others be a thing of the past. Most divergent views have been held on the subject and clearly proved to the satisfaction of those who held and advanced them, but not to the equal satisfaction of their readers. . . . Some people go so far as to say that Chinese has no grammar. If grammar only consisted of declension and inflection, such a statement might be true; but the Chinese most cleverly use the relative position of words to express what we, to a great extent, and some continental nations to a greater, and the dead languages of Europe to the greatest extent, show by case, mood, tense, number, and person: position is everything in the construction of Chinese sentences, and does away with those troubles of schoolboys, carried to such an excess in the classical languages. In addition to position, the use of auxiliary characters is employed, and, in the written language especially, a general symmetry of construction, and use of words in sentences and clauses, which are either in antithesis or juxtaposition to each other, assists materially in the correct development of ideas. Chinese is one of the simplest, while at the same time one of the most difficult, languages in the world; most simple from the almost entire absence of these inflectional forms; most difficult from the combination of different languages under the one heading of Chinese; such for instance as the book language in its two or three different forms, the Colloquial or spoken language in its different vernaculars, and in its tones, the bugbear and ruin of most European readers and speakers of it. . . .

“The language of China may be divided as follows: (1) The ancient style in which the classics are written: sententious, concise, vague, and often unintelligible without explanation. (2) The literary style: more diffuse, and consequently more intelligible; it might be described as poetry written in prose on account of a ‘*rhythmus*,’ as it has been termed, in which it is written, the ancient language having less of this—both forms having a number of particles either difficult or impossible of translation into English. The essays written by candidates at the literary examinations are composed in this style. (3) The business style which is plain enough to be intelligible; it is prose without, or with but little of, the poetry element, and few, if any, of the troublesome particles. It is in general use for commercial purposes, legal documents, official and business correspondence, and governmental, statistical, and legal works are written in it. (4) The Colloquial, or the spoken languages. They are divided into numerous dialects . . . but unfortunately they are despised—there is scarcely even one book written in them in the South of China, and yet it is impossible to speak in any other language; and to the great majority of the lower classes, no other is intelligible in its entirety. When we learn to speak a Western language, we nearly always learn consequently to read it; but a knowledge of Chinese, as spoken, only places one on the threshold of the Chinese of books. This has not inaptly been compared to a man who knows French fluently, but who, if he wishes to read Latin, has, after his knowledge of French, to apply himself to Latin; the French in this instance being the colloquial, and the Latin the language of the book. Again, let us suppose the ancient language, as compared with the busi-



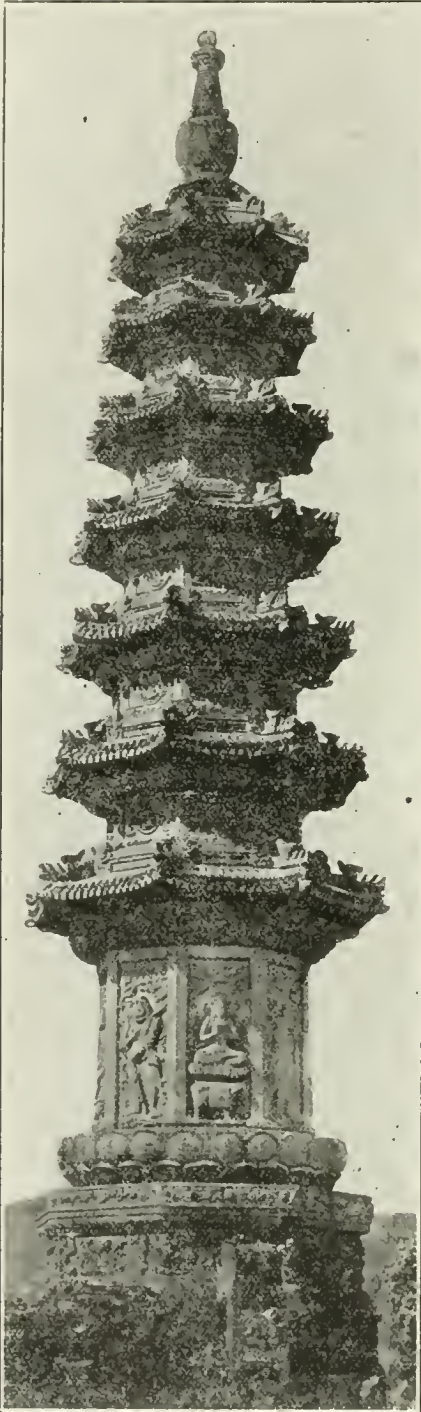
Maps prepared specially for the NEW LARNED
 under direction of the editors and publishers.

style, to be that of the English of Chaucer as compared with that of the modern writer. The difference between the book style and the colloquial might be likened perhaps to the difference between a common English book and some highly scientific or technical work so bristling with scientific terms, or technical expressions, or mathematical formulæ, that it would be entirely, or nearly entirely, incomprehensible, except to one who had been specially educated for years, making such a subject a speciality. This way of putting the matter may throw some light on what seems such a mysterious matter to English-speaking people, and show how difficult of comprehension the book language is to all except those who have received a special and sufficient training. Writers on the Chinese have differed as to the richness, or otherwise, of the language. Putting aside all prejudiced statements, it may fairly be affirmed that in some respects its vocabulary is very full, where some of our languages are poor, and *vice versa*. The Chinese have no difficulty in expressing themselves so as to be understood by their own countrymen and others, though Europeans and Americans have not sometimes the patience to make the good listeners which the want of mood, tense, and all inflections occasionally requires in order to get at the meaning. On the other hand, the statements are often more concisely expressed than is the case in the general run of European languages. What strikes a foreigner as strange in the language, is the ease with which a word does duty as a noun, or verb, an adjective, adverb, or preposition. Marshman says: 'A Chinese character may in general be considered as conveying an idea without reference to any part of speech; and its being used as a substantive, an adjective, or a verb depends on circumstances.'"—J. D. Ball, *Things Chinese*, pp. 367-369, 374, 375.—See also JAPANESE LITERATURE: 794-1868.—"The language of the Republic is Chinese, but it is subdivided into so many dialects with widely differing pronunciations, often only intelligible locally, that the country can hardly be said to be possessed of a common tongue. . . . The one language that can claim to be in any way common to the Republic is known as *Mandarin*, which in its three varieties, Northern, Southern (Nanking) and Western, is spoken by two-thirds of the population of China. The dialects that most resemble Mandarin are the *Cantonese*, with the allied *Hakka*, the *Ningpo*, *Shanghai*, *Wenchow*, *Amoy*, *Swatow* and *Foochow* dialects. These dialects, however, would not be understood by an ordinary Mandarin-speaking Chinese belonging to another province. Interpreters are by no means unknown in official Chinese conclaves in Peking. The various tribes to which reference has already been made have their own dialects, and a different script." Of the *Manchu* language L. Richard writes: "In Manchuria Chinese is the most widely spoken language of the country. The Manchus, when speaking among themselves, employ their own dialect, which is very different from the Chinese and Mongol languages. It is of Tungusic origin, sonorous and easily learned. It is composed of dissyllabic roots, the meaning of which is modified (especially in verbs) by agglutinative suffixes. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. The latest form has been borrowed, in the sixteenth century, from the Mongols. There are 6 to 8 vowels, 18 consonants and 10 diacritical marks. Like Chinese it is written in vertical columns, but from left to right." Of the *Mongol* language the same authority says: "The most widely diffused type of the Mongol language, spoken throughout the country, belongs to the

Ural-Altai family, as the Turkish and Manchu dialects. It abounds in dissyllabic roots, and is rich in words and forms. The alphabet is syllabic and of Syro-Uigur origin. It has 7 vowels, 17 consonants and 5 diphthongs. Gutturals and aspirates are largely used. The writing has undergone various transformations. Its latest form, which resembles knotted cords, dates from the thirteenth century. Mongol is written in vertical columns from top to bottom, but unlike Chinese, the lines proceed from left to right. The Mongol language has its conjugations and declinations. Sentences consist of a number of participial clauses with the principal verb at the end, and this gives them at times an indefinite length. In the spoken language the letter 'r' is frequent, but the consonant 'i' is non-existent."—*China year book*, 1910-1920, p. 38.—See also CHINESE LITERATURE: Origin of the language; JAPAN: Languages; PHILOLOGY: 7.—In 1918 phonetic writing was introduced into China. See below 1918 (November).

Religions of the people.—Primitive beliefs.—Ceremonial observances.—Ancestor worship.—Confucianism, Taoism, Buddhism.—"The religion of the old Chinese Empire, as it existed certainly from the twelfth century B. C., and probably at a much earlier period, is best described as a purified and organised worship of spirits, with a predominant fetishist tendency, combined into a system before it was possible for a regular mythology to develop out of it. [See MYTHOLOGY: Eastern Asia: Indian and Chinese influences.] The sole objects of worship are the spirits (*shin*), which are divided into heavenly, earthly, and human, and, as a rule, are still closely connected with the objects of nature. Heaven (*Thian*), who, when conceived as a personal being, is called the supreme emperor (*Shang-ti*), stands at the head, and in coöperation with the earth has produced everything. His will is fate, and he rewards and punishes. He is one; but he has five emperors beside him, and an innumerable multitude of spirits beneath him, among which those of the sun, moon, stars, and constellations are pre-eminent. The spirit of the earth (*Hou-thu*), though not sharply personified, is for the most part conceived as of female nature. The spirits of the mountains, streams, &c., belong to her realm. Besides these, the spirits are without number. They are perceived, but are neither heard nor seen, though they reside in visible objects, and for the most part assume the forms of animals. It may be regarded as a great advance that there is no mention of essentially evil spirits, that all spirits are exalted servants of Shang-ti, and in their intercourse with men esteem moral qualities above everything else. . . . The doctrine of continued existence after death among the Chinese entirely accords with that of the Nature-peoples. Man has two souls, one of which ascends after death to heaven, while the other descends into the earth, after vain attempts have been made to recall them both. Of the doctrine of retribution no certain traces are to be found, but we do find the idea that it is possible by sacrificing life to save a sick person. The souls of ancestors were worshipped with great pomp and earnestness, and were, it was supposed, present at the sacrifices. . . . The Chinese are remarkable for the complete absence of a priestly caste. Their worship, which was regulated down to its minute details, was entirely a civil function. It was placed under the control of one of the six ministers who directed all the officials connected with religion, including the musicians and dancers. To Thian, the spirit of heaven, only the emperor might sacrifice; to the

spirits of the earth and the fruits of the land, only the emperor and the feudal princes; to the five house spirits, only the high officials, and so on in



THE PORCELAIN PAGODA AT PEKING

strict order. Of the sacrifices, which originally included also human victims, that part was presented which was regarded as the seat of the soul or of life. The greater number of the temples

were consecrated to the dead, while the emperor himself performed his sacrifices under the open sky. Prayer, even when addressed to Thian, was permitted to all, but at the court, regular officials were appointed for the purpose. Even the magicians, soothsayers, and spirit-charmers, though numbered among the state functionaries, formed no priestly order. Great value, however, was attached to the oracles procured by their instrumentality, especially to those obtained by means of the plant *Shi*, and by the burning of furrows on a tortoiseshell (*pu*).”—C. P. Tiele, *Outlines of history of religion to spread of the universal religions*, pp. 27-30.

“The emperor was, until the establishment of the republic in 1912, the religious head of the nation. He could enlarge the pantheon by increasing the number of spirits that were to be venerated, or reduce its size. Upon the proper performance of his religious duties the prosperity of the whole empire was supposed to depend. It was his exclusive right to worship Heaven. The performance of such worship on the part of local governors was regarded as a declaration of rebellion. The local governors each in like manner worshiped the spirits of their respective provinces. The imperial sacrifices to Heaven were offered in the southern suburb of the capital; those to Earth, in the northern. The ceremonies varied in different dynasties. The *Li Ki* states that the offering to Heaven was made on the grand altar with a blazing fire of wood; that to Earth, by burying the victim in the great mound. In both cases the victim was red. By burying a sheep and a pig at the altar of Great Brightness they sacrificed to the seasons. With similar victims they sacrificed to the spirits of heat and cold, sun, moon, stars, winds, flood, rain, mountains, valleys, forests, streams, etc. The spirits worshiped were not all imaginary; many of them were ancestors of the sovereigns and princes. Thus according to the *Li Ki* kings and feudal princes erected temples to father, grandfather, great-grandfather, great-great-grandfather, and remote ancestors. Each temple had a raised altar surrounded by an open area. In all of these, sacrifices were offered every month. There were two other temples for more remote ancestors to which the tablets of the earlier princes of the line were gradually removed. At these only the seasonal sacrifices were offered.”—G. A. Barton, *Religions of the world*, pp. 206-207.—“The Chinese describe themselves as possessing three religions, or more accurately, three sects, namely Joo keaou, the sect of Scholars; Fue keaou, the sect of Buddha; and Taou keaou, the sect of Taou. Both as regards age and origin, the sect of Scholars, or, as it is generally called, Confucianism, represents pre-eminently the religion of China. It has its root in the worship of Shang-te, a deity which is associated with the earliest traditions of the Chinese race. Hwang-te (2607 B. C.) erected a temple to his honour, and succeeding emperors worshipped before his shrine. . . . During the troublous times which followed after the reign of the few first sovereigns of the Chow Dynasty, the belief in a personal deity grew indistinct and dim, until, when Confucius [born 551 B. C.] began his career, there appeared nothing strange in his atheistic doctrines. He never in any way denied the existence of Shang-te, but he ignored him. His concern was with man as a member of society, and the object of his teaching was to lead him into those paths of rectitude which might best contribute to his own happiness, and to the well-being of that community of which he formed part. Man, he held, was born good, and was endowed

with qualities which, when cultivated and improved by watchfulness and self-restraint, might enable him to acquire godlike wisdom and to become 'the equal of Heaven.' He divided mankind into four classes, viz., those who are born with the possession of knowledge; those who learn, and so readily get possession of knowledge; those who are dull and stupid, and yet succeed in learning; and, lastly, those who are dull and stupid, and yet do not learn. To all these, except those of the last class, the path to the climax reached by the 'Sage' is open. Man has only to watch, listen to, understand, and obey the moral sense implanted in him by Heaven, and the highest perfection is within

Eagerly he sought in the execution of his official duties to effect the regeneration of the empire, but beyond the circle of his personal disciples he found few followers, and as soon as princes and statesmen had satisfied their curiosity about him they turned their backs on his precepts and would have none of his reproofs. Succeeding ages, recognising the loftiness of his aims, eliminated all that was impracticable and unreal in his system, and held fast to that part of it that was true and good. They were content to accept the logic of events, and to throw overboard the ideal 'sage,' and to ignore the supposed potency of his influence; but they clung to the doctrines of filial



LAO-TSZE (Born 604 B.C.)

Chinese philosopher, founder of Táoism, contemporary of Confucius

his reach. . . . In this system there is no place for a personal God. The impersonal Heaven, according to Confucius, implants a pure nature in every being at his birth, but, having done this, there is no further supernatural interference with the thoughts and deeds of men. It is in the power of each one to perfect his nature, and there is no divine influence to restrain those who take the downward course. Man has his destiny in his own hands, to make or to mar. Neither had Confucius any inducement to offer to encourage men in the practice of virtue, except virtue's self. He was a matter-of-fact, unimaginative man, who was quite content to occupy himself with the study of his fellow-men, and was disinclined to grope into the future or to peer upwards. No wonder that his system, as he enunciated it, proved a failure.

piety, brotherly love, and virtuous living. It was admiration for the emphasis which he laid on these and other virtues which has drawn so many millions of men unto him; which has made his tomb at Keo-foo to be the Mecca of Confucianism, and has adorned every city of the empire with temples built in his honour. . . . Concurrently with the lapse of pure Confucianism, and the adoption of those principles which find their earliest expression in the pre-Confucian classics of China, there is observable a return to the worship of Shang-te. The most magnificent temple in the empire is the Temple of Heaven at Peking, where the highest object of Chinese worship is adored with the purest rites. . . . What is popularly known in Europe as Confucianism is, therefore, Confucianism with the distinctive opinions of Con-

fucius omitted. . . . But this worship of Shang-te is confined only to the emperor. The people have no lot or heritage in the sacred acts of worship at the Altar of Heaven. . . . Side by side with the revival of the Joo keaou, under the influence of Confucius, grew up a system of a totally different nature, and which, when divested of its esoteric doctrines, and reduced by the practically-minded Chinamen to a code of morals, was destined in future ages to become affiliated with the teachings of the Sage. This was Taoism, which was founded by Laou-tsze, who was a contemporary of Confucius. An air of mystery hangs over the history of Laou-tsze. Of his parentage we know nothing, and the historians, in their anxiety to conceal their ignorance of his earlier years, shelter themselves behind the legend that he was born an old man. . . . The primary meaning of Taou is 'The way,' 'The path,' but in Laou-tsze's philosophy it was more than the way, it was the way-goer as well. It was an eternal road; along it all beings and things walked; it was everything and nothing, and the cause and effect of all. All things originated from Taou, conformed to Taou, and to Taou at last returned. . . . 'If, then, we had to express the meaning of Taou, we should describe it as the Absolute; the totality of Being and Things; the phenomenal world and its order; and the ethical nature of the good man, and the principle of his action.' It was absorption into this 'Mother of all things' that Laou-tsze aimed at. And this end was to be attained to by self-emptiness, and by giving free scope to the uncontaminated nature which, like Confucius, he taught was given by Heaven to all men. . . . But these subtleties, like the more abstruse speculations of Confucius, were suited only to the taste of the schools. To the common people they were foolishness, and, before long, the philosophical doctrine of Laou-tsze of the identity of existence and non-existence, assumed in their eyes a warrant for the old Epicurean motto, 'Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die.' The pleasures of sense were substituted for the delights of virtue, and the next step was to desire prolongation of the time when those pleasures could be enjoyed. Legend said that Laou-tsze had secured to himself immunity from death by drinking the elixir of immortality, and to enjoy the same privilege became the all-absorbing object of his followers. The demand for elixirs and charms produced a supply, and Taoism quickly degenerated into a system of magic. . . . The teachings of Laou-tsze having familiarised the Chinese mind with philosophical doctrines, which, whatever were their direct source, bore a marked resemblance to the musings of Indian sages, served to prepare the way for the introduction of Buddhism. The exact date at which the Chinese first became acquainted with the doctrines of Buddha was, according to an author quoted in K'ang-he's Imperial Encyclopædia, the thirtieth year of the reign of She Hwanz-te, i. e., B. C. 216. The story this writer tells of the difficulties which the first missionaries encountered is curious, and singularly suggestive of the narrative of St. Peter's imprisonment."—R. K. Douglas, *China*, ch. 17.—"Buddhism . . . penetrated to China along the fixed route from India to that country, round the north-west corner of the Himalayas and across Eastern Turkestan. Already in the 2nd year B. C., an embassy, perhaps sent by Huvishka [who reigned in Kabul and Kashmere] took Buddhist books to the then Emperor of China, A-ili; and the Emperor Ming-ti, 62 A. D., guided by a dream, is said to have sent to Tartary and Central India

and brought Buddhist books to China. From this time Buddhism rapidly spread there. . . . In the fourth century Buddhism became the state religion."—T. W. Rhys Davids, *Buddhism*, ch. 9.

ALSO IN: J. Legge, *Religions of China*.—J. Edkins, *Religion in China*.—*Chinese Buddhism*.—S. Beals, *Buddhism in China*.—S. Johnson, *Oriental religions: China*.—R. K. Douglas, *Confucianism and Taoism*.—See also ASIA: Unity of Asiatic civilization; BUDDHISM; CONFUCIANISM; CONFUCIUS; PRIESTHOOD: In China and Japan; TAOISM.

Domestic relations.—"In the social organization the emphasis has been laid on the family rather than on the individual. The family means not only the father and mother and the children, but the larger circle of blood relationship. Large sections of the family frequently live together, and in some districts whole villages are made up of one clan group. The immediate ancestors are represented by tablets in the home and the remote ancestors by tablets in the ancestral hall of the family clan. The sons marry early, usually before they are able to support households of their own. They bring their wives to the paternal home and stay there even after the children come, so that one will often find several generations living together under the same roof tree. Great emphasis has been placed on family solidarity. Of the 'five relationships' familiar to every schoolboy, within which are supposed to be summed up the duties of man to his fellows, three have to do with the family. These are the relationship between husband and wife, between younger brother and older brother, and between father and son. The basis of much of the national ethics has been duty to parents rather than duty to God. If a man indulges in dissipation, he sins, not because he has defiled the temple of God, but because he has injured the body transmitted to him by his ancestors. He is to serve his parents during their life, and after their death to sacrifice to their spirits. Ancestral worship thus becomes a part of his mental background and of his daily life. No crime is considered greater than to die without leaving sons to perpetuate the name of the ancestors and to honor their spirits. The family has acted as a unit far more than in the West. It usually centers around the ancestral hall, which is often endowed. It frequently provides for the education of its children, especially of the more promising. It looks after its indigent members and its aged, and often after the family graves. The state recognized family solidarity by holding the theory of joint responsibility. The penalty for murder was inflicted not only on the individual culprit, but on his relatives as well, with a severity nicely adjusted to the degree of relationship. Even distant cousins might be punished if the offense of the culprit was particularly heinous. The morals of the entire family must be imperfect, it was argued, if one of its members was guilty of crime. Given the family system, this was not an altogether unjust deduction. This family solidarity has many points of strength. It is a preventive of a too hurried departure from the past. It furnishes a motive for and makes possible the preservation of excellent moral standards and restraints and is an aid to government. . . . On the other hand, this family system has had certain grave defects. It has hindered initiative. It has been extremely hard for the individual to break away from the dead hand of the past. All the pressure of the traditional moral code and of the family group has tended to subordinate the will of one to the will of all, to discourage

departure from the ways of the fathers. That is perhaps one reason why China has found it so difficult to discover leaders in recent years. . . . Since individual initiative has been so difficult and the tendency has been to honor the past, it follows that conservatism has been encouraged and progress discouraged. When individuals or the nation as a whole finally break away from the past, as has been the case in recent years, extremes of radicalism are apt to follow. Unaccustomed to progress, the natural tendency when the break comes is to go to extremes. Too rapid change results and chaos follows. . . . The position of woman in the old China was midway between that of the modern Occident and of the older Orient. She has been more honored than in India or in Mohammedan lands. At times she has been educated, and there have been a few notable instances in which empresses or empress dowagers have governed. In every age many homes have been dominated by vigorous mothers or grandmothers. The husband and wife are ideally to hold each other in mutual regard and both are to be honored by their children. But in many respects the position of woman has not been the equal of that of her sister in the West. Concubinage has been allowed. Divorce has been freely permitted, usually at the instance of the husband and on a number of grounds, some of them trivial. Women, while more frequently educated than in most Asiatic countries, have not been as frequently educated as men. The widespread custom of foot-binding, enforced by the sanction of long practice, has been a physical hindrance. The girl has not been as much valued as the boy and with the advent of poverty has been the first to be sold into slavery." —K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 131-137.—See also ETHICS: China.

Industrial development from the earliest period.—Guild system.—"Apparently, the Chinese were among the earliest peoples to discover the industrial advantages of a division of labor and of an exchange of products. In *The Chinese Classics*, edited by Confucius B. C. 551-478, the people are represented as divided into five classes: scholars, farmers, artisans, merchants, servants; and they ranked in honor in the order named. Soldiers were included under servants, and soldiers instead of servants are often named as the fifth, or lowest, class, though military conquerors as often in China as in other lands have reached the headship of the nation. Confucius refers this division of the people into classes to two thousand years before his time. . . . The five kinds of grain mentioned in *The Chinese Classics*, edited by Confucius, are referred to the mythological emperor, Shennung (2738-2698 B. C.). E. Bretschneider, M. D., says the grains designated were rice, wheat, barley, millet, and soy beans. Stuart says the grains were rice, wheat, two kinds of millet and soy beans—barley being identified with wheat. Undoubtedly, these five kinds of grain had been discovered and were in use long before the time of Confucius. The Pen-tsoo, or Chinese Herbal, says the use of tea was mentioned as early as B. C. 2700. Bretschneider says tea was used as a drink in the days of Confucius, but did not become the common beverage of the Chinese until the sixth and seventh centuries A. D. The first reference to the cultivation of the tea plant is found A. D. 350. Iron mines were opened in very early ages, iron was used for money and for tools, and the iron industry assumed a growing importance between B. C. 1122-221. Hand grain mills, and hand looms and hand embroidery, fishing with lines and nets, buckwheat for food

in addition to the grains already named, the use of indigo for dyeing and rearing of silk worms find early mention, while cows, sheep, swine, chickens, ducks, geese, and dogs were the domestic animals of the Chinese a thousand years before Christ. Spinning, weaving, dyeing, the rearing of silk worms and the wearing of silk are claimed by the Chinese as belonging to an even earlier date. Among industries mentioned in Confucius's edition of the Classics as existing long before his time are rope-making and carpentry. Among articles of diet in this early age, beef, mutton, dog, hare, fowls, grains, apricots and bamboo shoots are named. Fans, metal mirrors, flatirons, umbrellas, bamboo writing tablets, and hair pencils, the abacus for reckoning accounts, lamps, candles made from the oils of certain trees, chopsticks—all were in use a thousand years before the time of Christ. Between B. C. 221 and A. D. 221 porcelain, paper, some form of printing with an ink made of vermilion and oil, and a machine for sowing or planting grain, are mentioned; walls of buildings were constructed then, as now, by pounding clay between wooden frames. City and national walls were built by imperial levies of labor. Preexisting walls were joined together, thus forming one united Great Wall, by Shi-Hwang-Ti, B. C. 214-204, thought it was largely rebuilt in the fourteenth century; stone bridges, terraces and temples were erected; flails, forks, spades, sickles, needles and thread, beds, steamers for cooking food and stone rollers for leveling fields were in common use. Among foods, vermicelli, bean-curd, refined salt and condiments, sauces, vinegar, honey, sugar, and many fruits are mentioned. No slaves appear in the earliest recorded history of China: 'The elders employed the younger and the well-to-do the poor.' But the labor of all was at the disposal of the sovereign. No man could have an occupation different from his father, save by the order or consent of the sovereign. Trades were segregated in different streets. Men and horses and cattle—all were used in the earliest ages and all in some measure are yet used for drawing the plow. Slavery was introduced into China B. C. 204, through the sale of children, but we do not think it has been sufficiently general seriously to affect the industrial life of the people. It has consisted chiefly of the purchase of girls or women for domestic service and for concubines; its inevitable evils have appeared in the degradation of family life. For the past two thousand years there has been very little change in the articles of food, raiment [see COSTUME: India], or instruments of production, or in clothing, house-building or any other of the industrial arts, save that cotton-growing, introduced into China between A. D. 960 and A. D. 1280, caused a marked change in the clothing of the people. The fundamental human causes of production are physical vitality, industry, economy, intelligence, and power of combination. [See also ASIA: European influence on education, industry, medicine, etc.] . . . A careful study of the Chinese will show that there exists in their small 'hweis,' or unions, and in their guilds a far older and possibly a wiser method of coöperation than Western nations have reached through trusts and labor unions. Everyone in China is eager to organize a union, and every Chinese boy or girl aspires to enter such a union. A person wishing to provide for a marriage or to start in some simple business, may form a union. Each member agrees to furnish to the party forming the union a small sum of money to enable this person to provide for the opportunity or to enter upon the trade or industry contemplated. Often the money is ad

vanced without interest, the persons receiving the first advance of the money continuing in the union until each person in the union has received an equal benefit. Of course it is impossible to form such a union except among a group of persons who know and trust each other; and such unions in most cases are carried through in good faith. In this way not only is each one helped to enter upon some investment, impossible without the aid of others, but the resolution of each to deny himself and meet his engagements is greatly strengthened by the group spirit. These small voluntary unions are almost innumerable in China. Again, the laboring classes, whatever their employment, all band together on the slightest pretext. But a far larger and more important development of

official representative of the government, or, better still, a representative of the gild upon the one side and of the rights of the government upon the other—a striking illustration of the mediator of whom more will be said later. In almost all cases the secretary serves as the lawyers of the gild. Theoretically, all gild matters are brought before the whole body of discussion. Practically, a matter is usually brought before the leaders of the gild, discussed and modified, and if they think it has a reasonable prospect of passing, the measure is then presented to the entire body; otherwise it often dies in the committee stage. The democratic management of industrial and commercial affairs through the gilds, and the democratic origin of industrial and commercial law, furnish the



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THE GREAT WATER GATE AND THE CHIEN-MÊN GATE, SOUTHERN ENTRANCES
TO PEKING

the coöperative spirit is found in the Chinese gilds. All Chinese industries save farming are organized into gilds. There are the silk gild, the bankers' gild and the thieves' gild! In the United States the churches, schools, and courthouses are the most conspicuous buildings in town or city; in China the gild halls, thus showing that commerce and industry occupy the position of chief importance. Trading gilds were active B. C. 1122-221. Marco Polo's report about A. D. 1275 of the gilds of the city now called Hangchow shows that practically the entire population was organized into gilds, and probably members outside of the city were included, for the report shows over one and a half million members. Each gild has a president and an executive committee elected yearly and eligible to reelection, and a secretary who is a scholar with a degree from the government but without official government position. Hence he becomes a semi-

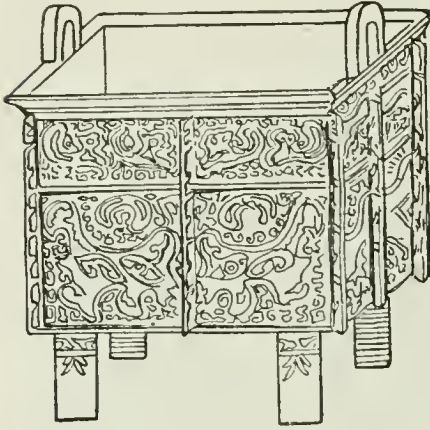
historic and economic basis for the democratic character of Chinese civilization. Indeed, so firmly is the authority of the gild established in settling commercial and industrial disputes that the government recognizes gild rules in all trials, giving them the rank of statute laws. Thus the gilds control not only the larger amount of industrial and commercial business in the nation, but shape and determine the commercial law of China; they settle quarrels between their members and usually controversies arising between themselves and neighboring gilds. In addition the gilds, in common, promulgate the dates for settling accounts, the rate of interest, the rate of exchange, etc. In some cities they have organized a fire department and a water service. In a word, in China the gilds or voluntary organizations, combined through their chief representatives, frequently discharge the functions of a Board of Trade, a City Council, a

Board of Charities, and a Board of Arbitration—all with the semi-official powers.”—J. W. Bashford, *China—an interpretation*, pp. 43-46; 63-66.—See also GULLDS, OR GILDS: Modern times.

Origin of the people and their early history.—“The best authorities are agreed that the ancient Chinese originally migrated from a point near the Caspian Sea across what is now arid desert to the upper reaches of the Yellow River. The date at which this exodus took place is so remote that all trace of it has been lost; and although the proofs of the Central Asian origin of the race are satisfying to scholars, they are of a nature which cannot be here adequately summarized. Excavations recently made in Honan province have, however, brought to light utensils and modellings in baked clay of the most primitive description, including Noah’s arks of almost Biblical exactitude. According to some experts, these are conclusive evidence not only of a settlement which may be counted at least six thousand years old, but point to a close cultural connection with very distant regions. It may be that systematic search will some day disclose new and remarkable facts concerning Chinese origins in the cradle of the human race. [See also BABYLONIA: Earliest inhabitants.] In any case it is quite certain that thirty centuries before the Christian era the Chinese had already occupied most of the territory comprised in the modern provinces of Kansu, Shensi, and Honan; that their route eastwards—toward the sea—was barred by forests may be assumed. It is interesting to record that their pictorial character for ‘East’ is a sun shining through trees, whilst the word ‘obstruction’ is compounded by placing the selfsame tree in a doorway. The remote ancestors of the race certainly cleared the land as they advanced, changing from a pastoral cultivator race, tilling the soil in small patches, into a purely agricultural nation at a time when classical Greece had not yet emerged out of the dim mists. The Chinese still venerate the name of the ruler who established tillage as the basic institution, and who rightly assumed that there is no increment so rich and so beneficial to mankind as the increment of the fields. Twenty-five hundred years ago, when Confucius and Laotzu flourished, China was already a very old country. Although the celebrated Stone Drums in the Confucian Temple in Peking, which are said to record the hunting adventures of an emperor of the Chou dynasty (B. C. 876), show the most ancient writing known, it is probable that the transition from tying knots on cords, as a means of conveying ideas, to cutting notches on wood and finally to writing pictorial and ideographic symbols, took place many centuries earlier. The conception of a central kingship was certainly well-fixed by the time of the first emperors of the Hsia dynasty (B. C. 2200); and Confucius, writing in the sixth century before Christ on the discontents of the age, constantly bewails the spacious days of the legendary rulers Yao and Shun, who ruled as shepherd kings anterior to the Hsia. Remembering how much older the human race is to-day admitted to be than was believed a generation ago, it is by no means improbable that the Chinese entered the Yellow River valley at least a hundred centuries ago. This ancient people of the pre-Christian era was a small, warring community of not more than a few million souls. Distributed along the [loess] soil of the broad, central valleys, their expansion during a very long period was hardly noticeable, wars and expeditions tending to monopolize their attention and breaking up the country into petty states in spite of the Imperial rule. The North China of to-day was then nothing

but an arid frontier-land, a glacia; and the present metropolitan province of Chihli as wild as much of Mongolia still is.”—B. L. P. Weale (B. L. Simpson), *Truth about China and Japan*, pp. 1-3.—“It would appear also that the Chinese came into China possessed of the resources of Western Asian culture. They brought with them a knowledge of writing and astronomy, as well as of the arts which primarily minister to the wants and comfort of mankind. The invention of these civilising influences is traditionally attributed to the Emperor Hwang-te, who is said to have reigned from B. C. 2697-2597. But the name of this sovereign leads us to suppose that he never sat on the throne in China. One of his names, we are told, was Nai, anciently Nak, and in the Chinese paleographical collection he is described by a character composed of a group of phonetics which read Nak-kon-ti. The resemblance between this name and that of Nak-hunte, who, according to the Susian texts, was the chief of the gods, is sufficiently striking, and many of the attributes belonging to him are such as to place him on an equality with the Susian deity. In exact accordance also with the system of Babylonian chronology he established a cycle of twelve years, and fixed the length of the year at 360 days composed of twelve months, with an intercalary month to balance the surplus time. He further, we are told, built a Ling tai, or observatory, reminding us of the Babylonian Zigguratu, or house of observation, ‘from which to watch the movements of the heavenly bodies.’ The primitive Chinese, like the Babylonians, recognised five planets besides the sun and moon, and, with one exception, knew them by the same names. . . . The various phases of these planets were carefully watched, and portents were derived from every real and imaginary change in their relative positions and colours. A comparison between the astrological tablets translated by Professor Sayce and the astrological chapter (27th) in the She ke, the earliest of the Dynastic Histories, shows a remarkable parallelism, not only in the general style of the forecasts, but in particular portents which are so contrary to Chinese prejudices, as a nation, and the train of thought of the people that they would be at once put down as of foreign origin, even if they were not found in the Babylonian records. . . . In the reign of Chwan Hu (2513-2435 B. C.), we find according to the Chinese records, that the year, as among the Chaldeans, began with the third month of the solar year, and a comparison between the ancient names of the months given in the *Urh ya*, the oldest Chinese dictionary, with the Accadian equivalents, shows, in some instances, an exact identity. . . . These parallelisms, together with a host of others which might be produced, all point to the existence of an early relationship between Chinese and Mesopotamian culture; and, armed with the advantages thus possessed, the Chinese entered into the empire over which they were ultimately to over-spread themselves. But they came among tribes who, though somewhat inferior to them in general civilisation, were by no means destitute of culture. . . . Among such people, and others of a lower civilisation, such as the Jungs of the west and the Teks, the ancestors of the Tekke Turcomans, in the north, the Chinese succeeded in establishing themselves. The Emperor Yaou (2356-2255 B. C.) divided his kingdom into twelve portions, presided over by as many Pastors, in exact imitation of the duodenary feudal system of Susa with their twelve Pastor Princes. To Yaou succeeded Shun, who carried on the work of his predecessor of consolidating the Chinese power with energy and

success. In his reign the first mention is made of religious worship. . . . In Shun's reign occurred the great flood which inundated most of the provinces of the existing empire. The waters, we are told, rose to so great a height, that the people had to betake themselves to the mountains to escape



OLD CHINESE BRONZE
(Shang Dynasty)

death. The disaster arose, as many similar disasters, though of a less magnitude, have since arisen, in consequence of the Yellow River bursting its bounds, and the 'Great Yu' was appointed to lead the waters back to their channel. With unremitting energy he set about his task, and in nine years succeeded in bringing the river under control. . . . [See also CONSERVATION OF NATURAL RESOURCES: China; B. C. 2207-A. D. 1915.] As a reward for the services he had rendered to the em-



BRONZE JAR
(Chou Dynasty)

pire, he was invested with the principality of Hea, and after having occupied the throne conjointly with Shun for some years, he succeeded that sovereign on his death, in 2208 B. C. With Yu began the dynasty of Hea, which gave place, in 1766 B. C., to the Shang Dynasty. The last sovereign

of the Hea line, Kieh kwei, is said to have been a monster of iniquity, and to have suffered the just punishment for his crimes at the hands of T'ang, the prince of the State of Shang, who took his throne from him. In like manner, 640 years later, Woo-wang, the prince of Chow, overthrew Chow Sin, the last of the Shang Dynasty, and established himself as the chief of the sovereign state of the empire. By empire it must not be supposed that the empire, as it exists at present, is meant. The China of the Chow Dynasty lay between the 33rd and 38th parallels of latitude, and the 106th and 110th of longitude only, and extended over no more than portions of the provinces of Pih chih-li, Shanse, Shense, Honan, Keang-se, and Shan-tung. This territory was rearranged by Woo-wang into the nine principalities established by Yu. . . . Woo is held up in Chinese history as one of the model monarchs of antiquity. . . . Under the next ruler, K'ang (B. C. 1078-1053), the empire was consolidated, and the feudal princes one and all acknowledged

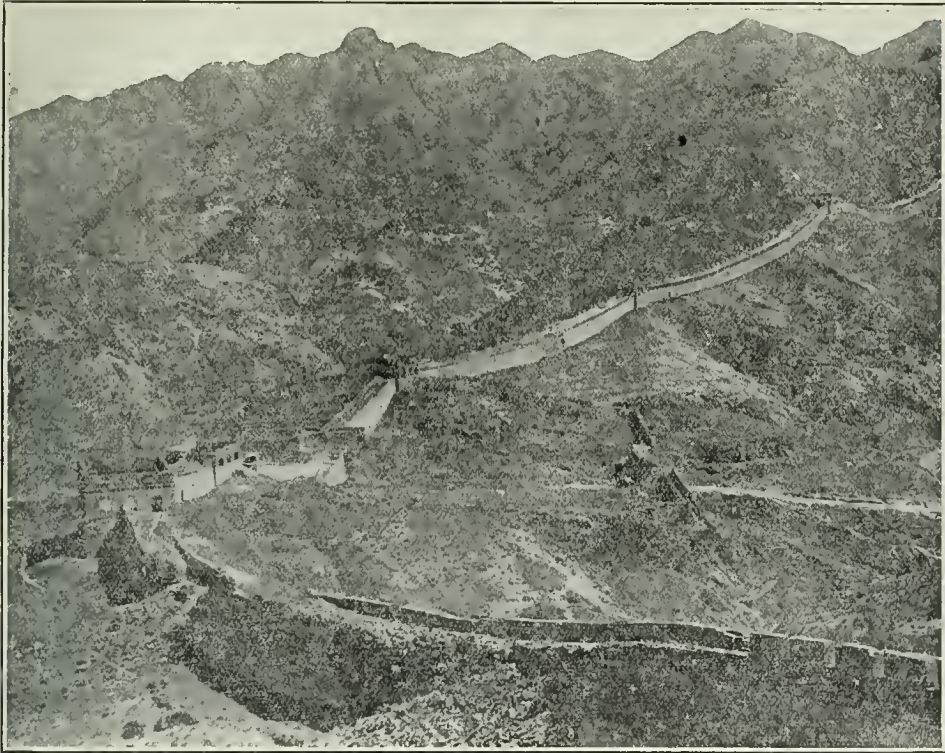


CHINESE VESSEL
(Shang Dynasty)

their allegiance to the ruling house of Chow. . . . From all accounts there speedily occurred a marked degeneracy in the characters of the Chow kings. . . . Already a spirit of lawlessness was spreading far and wide among the princes and nobles, and wars and rumours of wars were creating misery and unrest throughout the country. . . . The hand of every man was against his neighbour, and a constant state of internecine war succeeded the peace and prosperity which had existed under the rule of Woo-wang. . . . As time went on and the disorder increased, supernatural signs added their testimony to the impending crisis. The brazen vessels upon which Yu had engraved the nine divisions of the empire were observed to shake and totter as though foreshadowing the approaching change in the political position. Meanwhile Ts'in on the northwest, Ts'oo on the south, and Tsin on the north, having vanquished all the other states, engaged in the final struggle for the mastery over the confederate prin-

cialities. The ultimate victory rested with the state of Ts'in, and in 255 B. C., Chaou-seang Wang became the acknowledged ruler over the 'black-haired' people. Only four years were given him to reign supreme, and at the end of that time he was succeeded by his son, Heaou-wan Wang, who died almost immediately on ascending the throne. To him succeeded Chwang-seang Wang, who was followed in 246 B. C. by Che Hwang-te, the first Emperor of China. The abolition of feudalism, which was the first act of Che Hwang-te raised much discontent among those to whom the feudal system had brought power and emoluments, and the countenance which had been given to the system by Confucius and Mencius made it desirable—so thought the emperor—to demolish once for all

vision, and though every endeavor was made to hasten its completion he died (209) leaving it unfinished. His death was the signal for an outbreak among the dispossessed feudal princes, who, however, after some years of disorder, were again reduced to the rank of citizens by a successful leader, who adopted the title of Kaou-te, and named his dynasty that of Han (206). From that day to . . . [the establishment of a republic in 1912], with occasional interregnums, the empire has been ruled on the lines laid down by Che Hwang-te. Dynasty has succeeded dynasty, but the political tradition has remained unchanged, and though Mongols and Manchoos have at different times wrested the throne from its legitimate heirs, they have been engulfed in



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THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

their testimony in favour of that condition of affairs, which he had decreed should be among the things of the past. With this object he ordered that the whole existing literature, with the exception of books on medicine, agriculture, and divination, should be burned. The decree was obeyed as faithfully as was possible in the case of so sweeping an ordinance, and for many years a night of ignorance rested on the country. The construction of one gigantic work—the Great Wall of China—has made the name of this monarch as famous as the destruction of the books has made it infamous. Finding the Heung-nu Tartars were making dangerous inroads into the empire, he determined with characteristic thoroughness to build a huge barrier which should protect the northern frontier of the empire through all time. In 214 B. C. the work was begun under his personal super-

vision, and though every endeavor was made to hasten its completion he died (209) leaving it unfinished. His death was the signal for an outbreak among the dispossessed feudal princes, who, however, after some years of disorder, were again reduced to the rank of citizens by a successful leader, who adopted the title of Kaou-te, and named his dynasty that of Han (206). From that day to . . . [the establishment of a republic in 1912], with occasional interregnums, the empire has been ruled on the lines laid down by Che Hwang-te. Dynasty has succeeded dynasty, but the political tradition has remained unchanged, and though Mongols and Manchoos have at different times wrested the throne from its legitimate heirs, they have been engulfed in

—R. K. Douglas, *China*, ch. 1.

ALSO IN: D. C. Boulger, *History of China*, v. 1, 2.

B. C. 218.—Conquest of Hu-liang (Tonkin). See INDO-CHINA: B. C. 218—A. D. 1836.

B. C. 206.—Reformation of calendar. See CHRONOLOGY: Sexagenary cycle of the Chinese.

B. C. 206—A. D. 1280.—From the early Han dynasty to the Yuan dynasty of the Mongols.—“The Han dynasty was established B. C. 206 by Liu-pang, Prince of Han. It carried Chinese arms and civilisation south of the Yangtze (Kiangsi, Hunan, Kweichow, Kwangsi, and Kwangtung); following the lines through the Poyang and Tungting Lakes; and it also included Kansu in its dominion, and subjugated the northern part of

Korea. Through Kansu the Chinese thus came, by the trans-Asian trade routes, into communication with the West. This period is looked back to as the Golden Age of Chinese history; and 'Sons of Han' is the name given to themselves to this day by the Chinese, except the Cantonese, who call themselves 'Sons of Tang.' During this period, too, the incursions of the Tartar tribes became more troublesome, the most insistent being the Hiung-nu, to whom for many years the Han Emperors paid an annual subsidy of silks, rice, and wine. The Han dynasty came to an end A. D. 25, and a period of two centuries of confusion followed. In this were distinguished the three great traitors of Chinese history, Wang-mang, Tung-cho, and Tsao-tsao. This was followed by the romantic and chivalrous period of the 'Three Kingdoms' (A. D.

(557-589), and Sui (589-618)—each throne set up by a strong commander and lost by his degenerate successor. The Tang dynasty (618-907) is another glorious period of Chinese history. Its founder remodelled his army and was able to drive back the Tartar invaders, establishing his capital at Changan in Shensi; he reorganized the government and re-established order; he brought the Cantonese under more perfect control; and he encouraged the study of the Confucian classics, declaring that 'Confucian thought is to the Chinese what the water is to the fish.' The culminating point in this period was the domination of the Empress Wu-how, who first ruled jointly with her husband, the Emperor Kao-tsung (650-684) and then as Empress Dowager-Regent for her son Cbung-tsung, until in 705 she was forced by advancing age to abdi-



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ONE OF THE WATCH TOWERS OF THE GREAT WALL OF CHINA

221-265)—the kingdom of Wei, comprising the central and northern parts of the Han Empire; Wu, bordering the Yangtze and comprising Hunan, Hupeh, Kiangsi, Anhwei, Kiangsu, and Chekiang; and Shu, including Szechwan and adjacent territory. These kingdoms waged incessant war with each other; but finally the kingdom of Wei was victorious and, absorbing the others, its ruler established the Western Tsin dynasty (A. D. 265-317). During the whole of this time the country was subject to the incursions of the Tartars, who seemed to consider the Great Wall as only an incitement to invasion, and to regard with scorn the weak pretensions of the 'man behind the wall.' Finally the Chinese rulers were driven from their capital at Kaifeng and pushed south of the Yangtze, the Tartars holding the country to the north; and in that southern territory, with the capital at Nanking, there was a succession of weak and short-lived dynasties—Eastern Tsin (317-420), Sung (420-479), Tsi (479-502), Liang (502-557), Chen

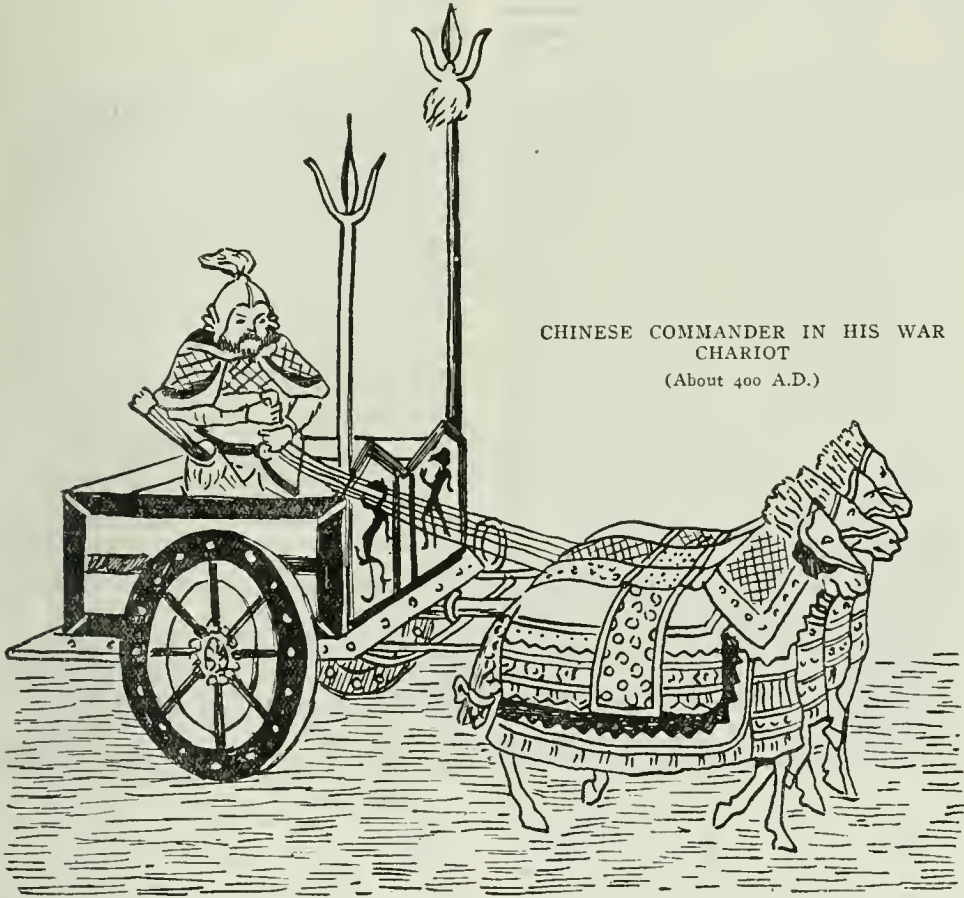
cate her power. Her ability has been recognised by the Chinese, but her memory has been execrated because of the impropriety of her conduct in presuming to govern the Empire. In fact, however, she was the last of the strong rulers of the dynasty, and for the remaining two centuries the throne was for the most part filled by men weak in character and of small capacity. Literature flourished and the arts advanced; but the country was disturbed by internal rebellions and Tartar incursions. Korea was fully conquered in 667 and reduced to a vassal state, remaining in that position until 1805; this secured the north-eastern frontier, but along the northern border for more than two centuries there was no peace. Nestorian priests, coming from Persia, brought the first teaching of Christianity into China during this period. They were favourably received; and by Imperial sanction a stone tablet recording the tenets of their Church was erected at Siangfu in Shensi. After the Tang dynasty followed the period of the Five

Dynasties (907-960)—Later Liang, Later Tang, Later Tsin, Later Han, and Later Chow—a period of military despotism. The Sung dynasty followed in 960. Peace was again restored and order established, and for a time one ruler governed the whole Empire. The incursions of the Tartar tribes were, however, soon resumed; and in 1125 the Kin or Nü-chen Tartars—'the Golden Horde'—gained the predominance and made serious inroads upon the Imperial domain. At an early date they seized the capital, Kaifeng, and required the Emperor to pay an annual tribute; and in no time they drove the Imperial forces south of the Yangtze, establishing their own dominion over the territory to

rope. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 7th-9th centuries.

600-1050 and after.—Influence in Japan. See JAPAN: 600-1853.

1205-1234.—Conquest by Jenghiz Khan and his son.—"The conquest of China was commenced by Chinghiz [or Jenghiz Khan], although it was not completed for several generations. Already in 1205 he had invaded Tangut, a kingdom occupying the extreme northwest of China, and extending beyond Chinese limits in the same direction, held by a dynasty of Tibetan race, which was or had been a vassal to the Kin. This invasion was repeated in succeeding years; and in 1211 his attacks



CHINESE COMMANDER IN HIS WAR
CHARIOT

(About 400 A.D.)

the north of the great river. The Chinese rulers of what is called in history the Southern Sung dynasty set up their capital at first at Nanking, and afterwards at Hangchow. Incessant war was waged between the North and the South, between the Chinese dynasty of the Southern Sung and the Golden dynasty of the Tartars, across the moat of the Yangtze, but neither side succeeded in gaining ground; and the Yangtze remained the frontier until the establishment of the Yuan dynasty of the Mongols in 1280."—H. B. Morse, *Trade and administration of the Chinese empire*, pp. 4-7.

A. D. 5th century.—Trade with Arabs. See COMMERCE: Medieval: 5th-8th centuries.

7th century.—Early discovery of writing material analogous to paper. See PRINTING AND THE PRESS: Before 14th century.

7th-9th centuries.—Trade with western Eu-

extended to the Empire of the Kin itself. In 1214 he ravaged their provinces to the Yellow River, and in the following year took Chungtu or Peking. In 1219 he turned his arms against Western Asia; . . . but a lieutenant whom he had left behind him in the East continued to prosecute the subjection of Northern China. Chinghiz himself on his return from his western conquests renewed his attack on Tangut, and died on that enterprise, 18th August. Okkodai, the son and successor of Chinghiz, followed up the subjugation of China, extinguished the Kin finally in 1234 and consolidated with his Empire all the provinces north of the Great Kiang. The Southern provinces remained for the present subject to the Chinese dynasty of the Sung, reigning now at Kingssé or Hangcheu. This kingdom was known to the Tartars as Nangkiass, and also by the quasi-Chinese title of Mangi

or Manzi, made so famous by Marco Polo and the travellers of the following age."—H. Yule, *Cathay and the way thither: Preliminary essay*, sect. 91-92.—See also MONGOLIA: 1153-1227; 1229-1294.

1259-1294.—Empire of Kublai Khan.—Kublai, or Khubilai Khan, one of the grandsons of Jenghiz Khan, who reigned as the great khan or supreme lord of the Mongols from 1259 until 1294, "was the sovereign of the largest empire that was ever controlled by one man. China, Corea, Thibet, Tung-King, Cochin China, a great portion of India beyond the Ganges, the Turkish and Siberian realms from the Eastern Sea to the Dnieper, obeyed his commands; and although the chief of the Hordes of Jagatai and Ogatai refused to acknowledge him, the Ilkhans of Persia . . . were his feudatories. . . . The Supreme Khan had immediate authority only in Mongolia and China. . . . The capital of the Khakan, after the accession of Khubilai, was a new city he built close to the ancient metropolis of the Liao and Kin dynasties."—H. H. Howorth, *History of the Mongols*, v. 1, pp. 216-282.—"Khan-Bâlig (Mong., 'The Khan's city'), the Cambalu of Marco, Peking . . . was captured by Chinghiz in 1215, and in 1264 Kublai made it his chief residence. In 1267 he built a new city, three 'li' to the north-east of the old one, to which was given the name of Ta-tu or 'Great Court,' called by the Mongols Daïdu, the Taydo of Odoric and Taidu of Polo, who gives a description of its dimensions, the number of its gates, etc., similar to that in the text. The Chinese accounts give only eleven gates. This city was abandoned as a royal residence on the expulsion of the Mongol dynasty in 1368, but re-occupied in 1421 by the third Ming Emperor, who built the walls as they now exist, reducing their extent and the number of the gates to nine. This is what is commonly called the 'Tartar city' of the present day (called also by the Chinese Lau-Chhing or 'Old Town'), which therefore represents the 'Taydo' of Odoric."—H. Yule, *Cathay and the way thither*, v. 1, p. 127, footnote.—See also MONGOLIA: 1206-1500; 1220-1294.

ALSO IN: Marco Polo, *Travels, with notes by Sir H. Yule*, bk. 2.

1294.—Beginning of Christian missionary work. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: China.

1294-1736.—Dissolution of the empire of Kublai Khan.—Ming dynasty and its fall.—Enthronement of the present Manchu Tatar dynasty, of the Tsings or Ch'ings.—Appearance of the Portuguese and the Jesuit missionaries.—"The immediate successors of Kublai, brought up in the luxuries of the imperial palace, the most gorgeous at that time in the world, relied upon the prestige with which the glory of the late emperor invested them, and never dreamed that change could touch a dominion so vast and so solid. Some devoted themselves to elegant literature and the improvement of the people; later princes to the mysteries of Buddhism, which became, in some degree, the state religion; and as the cycle went round, the dregs of the dynasty abandoned themselves, as usual, to priests, women, and eunuchs. . . . The distant provinces threw off their subjection; robbers ravaged the land, and pirates the sea; a minority and a famine came at the same moment; and in less than ninety years after its commencement, the fall of the dynasty was only illumined by some few flashes of dying heroism, and every armed Tartar, who could obtain a horse to aid his flight, spurred back to his native deserts. Some of them, of the royal race, turning to the west, took refuge with the Manchows, and

in process of time, marrying with the families of the chiefs, intermingled the blood of the two great tribes. The proximate cause of this catastrophe was a Chinese of low birth, who, in the midst of the troubles of the time, found means to raise himself by his genius from a servile station to the leadership of a body of the malcontents, and thence to step into the imperial throne. The new dynasty [the Ming] began their reign with great brilliance. The emperor carried the Tartar war into their own country, and at home made unrelenting war upon the abuses of his palace. He committed the mistake, however, of granting separate principalities to the members of his house, which in the next reign caused a civil war and the usurpation of the throne by an uncle of the then emperor. The usurper found it necessary to transfer the capital to Peking, as a post of defence against the eastern Tartars, who now made their appearance again on this eventful stage. He was successful, however, in his wars in the desert, and he added Tonquin and Cochin China to the Chinese dominions. After him the fortunes of the dynasty began to wane. The government became weaker, the Tartars stronger, some princes attached themselves to literature, some to Buddhism or Taoism; Cochin China revolted, and was lost to the empire, Japan ravaged the coasts with her privateers; famine came to add to the horrors of misrule."—L. Ritchie, *History of the Oriental nations*, v. 2, bk. 1, ch. 1.—"Never was there such marine activity in China as during the early reigns of the Ming dynasty (1368-1424). Chinese junks, under the command of a very distinguished eunuch, amply supplied with funds, ammunition, and fighting men, went as far as the Arabian and African coasts; the Red Sea was first vaguely heard of, and tribute was for some time regularly sent from Arabia, Ma'abar or Malabar, Ceylon, Sumatra, the Malay states, Siam, Java, Sulu, Loochoo, and Borneo, besides innumerable other petty island rulers too insignificant to enumerate here. Towards the end of the sixteenth century the armies of the great Japanese Napoleon, Hideyoshi, overran Corea, his ultimate aim being to conquer China. The Ming dynasty, though already decrepit, rendered signal aid to Corea in driving the Japanese out. During the two preceding centuries the Japanese pirates had actively harassed the Chinese coasts, and in 1600 they temporarily carried off China's tributary, the King of Loochoo. . . . Luzon (Manila) is first mentioned in 1410 as sending tribute to China [see PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: Previous to 1525]; but nothing more is heard of the place until 1576, when the sea-borne Franks (Fulangki) begin to attract serious attention. [See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1574.] At first this term was applied indifferently to the Portuguese, Spaniards, and French; but the Dutch (Ho-lan), and afterwards the English, were specially known as 'Red-hairs.' Chinese influence had almost disappeared from the South Seas before Europeans put in an appearance, and after the settlement of Malacca by the Portuguese, the whole political field was practically abandoned; the Chinese traders there willingly submitted to the government of natives and Europeans without attempting to secure the protection of either the Ming or the Manchu power—in fact, the latter was always disposed to view trading emigrants in the light of pirates or traitors. . . . The Ming dynasty waged a long war with Burma and the Shan states under the latter's protection; on the whole successfully. It also maintained a preponderating influence in Annam, Siam, Ciampa, and Cambodia. Tribute was

occasionally sent from Arabia, Samarcand, the Pamir states, and various parts of Turkestan; but in the main Chinese influence in Tibet and all places west of it and of the Yellow River was fitful and feeble. In spite of the vigour of the founder of the Ming dynasty and of his warlike son, who in 1421 finally transferred the capital from Nanking to his own appanage, Peking, on the whole no impression of affection or respect has been left upon the Chinese mind by this ruling house, the emperors of which soon dropped into the hands of eunuchs and favourites; and it perhaps ended as pitifully and contemptibly as any Chinese dynasty ever did."—E. H. Parker, *China*, pp. 35-37.—See also MONGOLIA: 1206-1500.—"From without, the Mings were constantly harassed by the encroachments of the Tartars; from within, the ceaseless intriguing of the eunuchs

long list. . . . The overthrow of the Mings [1644] was brought about by a combination of events, of the utmost importance to those who would understand the present position of the Tartars as rulers of China. A sudden rebellion had resulted in the capture of Peking by the insurgents, and in the suicide of the Emperor who was fated to be the last of his line. The Imperial Commander-in-chief, Wu San-kuei, at that time away on the frontiers of Manchuria, engaged in resisting the incursions of the Manchu Tartars, now for a long time in a state of ferment, immediately hurried back to the capital, but was totally defeated by the insurgent leader, and once more made his way, this time as a fugitive and a suppliant, towards the Tartar camp. Here he obtained promises of assistance, chiefly on condition that he would shave his head and grow a tail in



DINNER PARTY AT A MANDARIN'S HOUSE

(Period, Ming Dynasty)

(resulting in one case in the temporary deposition of an Emperor) was a fertile cause of trouble. Towards the close of the 16th century the Portuguese appeared upon the scene, and from their 'concession' at Macao, for some time the residence of Camoens, opened commercial relations between China and the West. They brought the Chinese, among other things, opium, which had previously been imported overland from India. They possibly taught them how to make gunpowder, to the invention of which the Chinese do not seem, upon striking a balance of evidence, to possess an independent claim. About the same time [1580] Rome contributed the first instalment of those wonderful Jesuit fathers, whose names may truly be said to have filled the empire 'with sounds that echo still,' the memory of their scientific labours and the benefits they thus conferred upon China having long survived. . . . Of all these Jesuit missionaries, the name of Matteo Ricci [who died in 1610] stands by common consent first upon the

accordance with Manchu custom, and again set off with his new auxiliaries towards Peking, being reinforced on the way by a body of Mongol volunteers. As things turned out Wu San-kuei arrived at Peking in advance of these allies, and actually succeeded, with the remnant of his own scattered forces, in routing the troops of the rebel leader before the Tartars and the Mongols came up. He then started in pursuit of the flying foe. Meanwhile the Tartar contingent arrived; and on entering the capital, the young Manchu prince in command was invited by the people of Peking to ascend the vacant throne. So that by the time Wu San-kuei re-appeared he found a new dynasty [the Ta Ching Ch'ao dynasty, which fell in 1612] established, and his late Manchu ally at the head of affairs. His first intention had doubtless been to continue the Ming line of Emperors; but he seems to have readily fallen in with the arrangement already made, and to have tendered his formal allegiance on the four following conditions:

—(1.) That no Chinese woman should be taken into the Imperial seraglio. (2.) That the first place at the great triennial examination for the highest literary degrees should never be given to a Tartar. (3.) That the people should adopt the national costume of the Tartars in their everyday life; but that they should be allowed to bury their corpses in the dress of the late dynasty. (4.) That this condition of costume should not apply to the women of China, who were not to be compelled either to wear the hair in a tail before marriage (as the Tartar girls do) or to abandon the custom of compressing their feet. The great Ming dynasty was now at an end, though not destined wholly to pass away. A large part of it may be said to remain in the literary monuments which were executed during its three centuries of existence. . . . Under the third Manchu Emperor, Yung Cheng [1723-1736], began that violent persecution of the Catholics which has continued almost to the present day. The various sects—Jesuits, Dominicans, Franciscans—had been unable to agree about the Chinese equivalent for God, and the matter had been finally referred to the Pope. Another difficulty had arisen as to the toleration of ancestral worship by Chinese converts professing the Catholic faith. . . . As the Pope refused to permit the embodiment of this ancient custom with the ceremonies of the Catholic church, the new religion ceased to advance, and by-and-by fell into disrepute.”—H. A. Giles, *Historic China*, ch. 5-6.

ALSO IN: S. W. Williams, *Middle kingdom*, v. 2, ch. 17 and 19-20.—C. Gutzlaff, *Sketch of Chinese history*, v. 1, ch. 16, v. 2.—J. Ross, *Manchus*.—Abbé Huc, *Christianity in China*, v. 2-3.

1330.—Extent of dominions. See MONGOLIA: Map of Mongolian empires.

1600-1663.—Attempted invasion of Philippines by Koxinga. See PHILIPPINE ISLANDS: 1600-1663, 1616-1691.—Rule of Mongolia. See MONGOLIA: 1616-1691.

1637.—Treaty with Korea. See KOREA: Early history.

1659.—Emperor Sun-chi and poor relief. See CHARITIES: China.

1662-1838.—Manchu rule.—Early strength and later deterioration.—Imperial political system.—Early European and American relations with China.—“The first century and a half of Manchu rule was marked by vigor and efficiency. The period was nearly covered by two reigns, those of K'ang Hsi (1662-1723) and Ch'ien Lung (1736-1796), one sixty-one and the other sixty years in length. These two monarchs were among the strongest that the nation has had. During their time China was one of the best-governed lands on the earth and was second to none in population and to but two in area. These two men gave an impetus to the dynasty that was to carry it over the reigns of weaker rulers down into the twentieth century. . . . The period was marked by a vigorous home policy. Rebellions were put down with a heavy hand. The most serious of these broke out during the earlier years of K'ang Hsi, headed by the Chinese general, Wu San Kwei, who had allied himself with the Manchus when they had first marched on Peking and who greatly facilitated if not indeed made possible their success. This king-maker had been rewarded with the governorship of extensive domains in the Southwest, an almost semi-independent satrapy. From that vantage-point he declined the emperor's invitation to come to Peking, sent him apparently with the desire to curtail his dangerous power, and raised the standard of revolt. The rebellion

was subdued only after the greatest exertions. . . . Other rebellions were put down with an equally vigorous hand. Remnants of non-Chinese peoples still exist within the borders of the Eighteen Provinces, principally in the South and Southwest. These have to a large extent preserved their own tribal form of government and their own language. Their territories have been encroached upon by the Chinese only slowly. During this early Manchu period these native tribes were more firmly reduced to submission and were made to keep the peace. They were placed as far as possible under the direct rule of the central government, but complete amalgamation with the Chinese has never yet been effected. Both the great emperors were intelligent patrons of Chinese culture. Confucius had never been more generously honored than by these Manchus. The Sung dynasty philosophers—especially Chu Hsi—were revered and their commentaries on the Classics made the official interpretation of these ancient documents. Chinese scholarship was encouraged and thus bound by ties of loyalty to the foreign ruling house. Both K'ang Hsi and Ch'ien Lung were themselves authors of no mean ability and were masters of Chinese literature. Under imperial direction scholars compiled books on all the branches of learning known to the nation. Ancient works were sought out and were issued in imperial revised editions. Great encyclopedias were prepared, and a dictionary that still remains standard. It was not a period of creative genius. No important new schools of thought arose. It was, however, a time of great interest in all branches of culture. Art was encouraged, especially work in porcelain, in brass, and in lacquer. The china of these years is noteworthy and is still eagerly sought by collectors. . . . The period was marked as well by a vigorous foreign policy. The boundaries of the empire were carried farther than ever before. . . . Manchuria, as the home of the dynasty, was already a part of their domain. To the west of Manchuria lies the great semi-arid region known as Mongolia. The tribes of Inner Mongolia, the section contiguous to China, had nearly submitted to Manchu domination. [See MONGOLIA: 1206-1500.] Partly through voluntary submission, partly by an extensive war of conquest, Chinese rule was expanded into the section to the north, Outer Mongolia. The reduction of Mongolia brought China into conflict with Tibet. In the seventh century this region had been converted to a sect of Buddhism, and its priests had in the course of centuries become the temporal as well as the spiritual rulers of the land. In the fifteenth century this Buddhist sect was reformed by a vigorous character who made the priesthood celibate and established its rule over the country more firmly than ever, in a form that has endured until the present. The head of this Tibetan Buddhist Church is known as the Dalai Lama. He is held to be the incarnation of one of the Buddhist saints (or Bodhisattvas), and at the death of one Dalai Lama the spirit is believed to be immediately reincarnated in another, so that the succession is perpetual. Now the inhabitants of Mongolia were at this time adherents of this Lama sect of Buddhism, and although ruled directly by their own spiritual chief, the Dalai Lama was so closely connected with them that the subjugation of Tibet became a necessity if peace in Mongolia was to be assured. K'ang Hsi soon found in a disputed succession an opportunity for interfering in the internal affairs of Tibet, and in the interests of his candidate invaded the country, put him into power at Lhasa, and maintained him by a gar-

ri-son. Tibet thus became tributary to China and has remained so ever since. Probably as much from the dictates of state policy as from conviction K'ang Hsi and his successors became patrons of Lamaistic Buddhism and showed it great favors. Most of Mongolia and Tibet were now part of the Manchu Empire. [See MONGOLIA: 1697-1724.] It became necessary, however, to round out the frontier to its natural boundaries, the great divide that separates what is now the Chinese Empire from the Russian dominions in Western and Northern Asia. The principal territory still un-

occupy the northern borders of India. So thoroughly were they awed that they sent tribute to the court of Peking until brought under the growing British authority in India. In the south-west, where the mountain passes are low and invite intercourse, troubles arose with Burma. To settle them Burma was invaded and reduced to submission. In witness of Chinese suzerainty it sent tribute to Peking every ten years, a practice which continued until 1836, when it was ended by the new masters of Burma, the British. Annam was invaded, and that country, which had been



THRONE OF THE EMPEROR KIEN-LUNG (1736-1795)

It is of carved red lacquer, 4 feet high and 4 feet wide, and was made at a time when Chinese art was at its height.

occupied was that along the ancient overland caravan routes to the West, the section known to Western geographers as Chinese Turkestan and some districts north of it, Ili and Dzungaria. Trouble arose in Mongolia over the presence of independent, restless tribes on its boundaries, and the disturbance became at once the excuse and the occasion for the reduction of these territories. By a series of campaigns, largely under Ch'ien Lung, they were conquered and annexed, and were organized into the so-called 'New Territory' (Sin Kinagn). Except on the north the Chinese boundaries now stretched without interruption to the continental divide. Invasions into Tibet by the peoples of the Himalaya region led to the reduction of some of the hardy mountaineers that

part of the Ming domains, was compelled still further to recognize Chinese overlordship. These vigorous Manchu emperors, then, had not only ruled China proper well and with justice, but they had extended Chinese territory to its natural boundaries. . . . After Ch'ien Lung inferior men came to the throne. The Manchu race began to suffer from too many years of success, and its vigor declined. Outwardly the empire was as brilliant as ever, but inwardly unrest began to show itself. Secret political organizations were constituted in opposition to the dynasty. Rebellions sprang up, some of them difficult to reduce, and disorder arose on the distant frontiers. The Manchu power was manifestly waning. During this period began a more extensive growth of

European trade. European impact on the empire increased. The irresistible growth of the pressure of Western nations on China and the weakness and ignorance of the Chinese authorities led to a series of momentous events, some of which are still in progress."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 71-83.

As to political system: "The political organization of China was highly developed. No other surviving one can show a so nearly continuous history stretching over so many centuries. In ideal it was primarily for the people. It existed to secure and to further their welfare. Its objects were primarily the well-being of the entire nation. The ruler existed for the people, not the people for the ruler. The military was supposedly used merely for defensive policing purposes. Although the army has always played an important part in Chinese history and although dynasties have invariably owed their foundation to successful generals, the soldier has not been exalted as highly as in Japan and the Occident. He has been regarded as a destroyer of life and property and has been ranked among the lowest classes of society. The producer and the creative thinker, the scholar, were ranked above him. The practical turn of the Chinese mind, with its emphasis upon physical well-being, is clearly seen throughout the political constitution. At the head was the emperor. One of his titles was 'Son of Heaven.' The theory, however, was far removed from that of the divine right of kings of Western absolutists. The decree of Heaven was supposed to be given primarily with the good of the people in mind, and if the emperor failed to rule them justly or if he neglected their prosperity and gave himself to selfish luxury, the theory regarded with complacency rebellion and the foundation of a new dynasty. It justified that succession of royal houses which is so characteristic of Chinese history. The authority of the emperor was absolute. He was the fountain of law, of justice, and of administration, and his word was final. The institution was paternalistic, and the emperor took in theory, and if an able ruler, in practice, an interest in every detail of national life. The emperor ruled, however, by means of a bureaucracy. One man could not hope, of course, to attend to all the details of government and his power was delegated to subordinates in a carefully worked-out, descending scale. At the top were the court officials; there was the council of state; there were central boards in charge of military affairs, the judiciary, public works, and various other branches of administrative, judicial, and legislative activity; there was a board of censors, charged to speak fearlessly its criticisms of the government; there were official historiographers whose duty it was to record impartially public events and the acts of the emperor. Below these central bodies the system ramified through the empire. There were viceroys, usually at the head of two provinces. In the province the central power was shared by the governor, the treasurer, the salt commissioner, the commissioner of education, and the provincial judge. These acted as checks on one another and so make sedition difficult. Underneath the provincial authorities were the officials of another series of divisions and sub-divisions, heads of circuits, of counties, of districts. All of these were appointed from the capital, and under the Manchus no official could hold office in his own province. Rebellion and the growth of independence and decentralization, always the danger of so large a state, were thus guarded against. This immense official class was recruited by a series of civil service examinations,

to which all but members of a few despised occupations were eligible, regardless of birth or station. In theory the emperor was to govern with the aid of the wisest and the ablest of the realm. Was not the government for the benefit of all, and should not the wisest and ablest be searched out to aid in it? These examinations, then, with their three successive grades and degrees, were for the purpose of selecting the best men in the empire. They were based primarily on the ancient Classics and had mostly to do with ethics, history, and statecraft. Too frequently they were stereotyped and encouraged literary style and memory at the expense of independent creative thinking. Too often corruption crept in, and literary degrees were sold to meet the necessities of the state and of dishonest officials. On the whole, however, they were fairly efficient and surprisingly democratic. They brought into competition for government positions and into official service most of the highly trained minds of the nation. Sons of the humblest might rise to the highest positions. On even rude farmhouses in out-of-the-way districts one might see displayed characters indicating that some relative of the occupant had won a degree. Thanks to this system China was largely freed from a ruling caste that owed its power to hereditary right. No other part of the constitution so contributed to the continuance and the efficiency of the government. Underneath the bureaucracy were the village elders and the heads of families, a humble but a no less important part of the government. The village was in many respects self-governing, and family control was universal and strong. Guilds exercised many of the powers of regulation over trade and industry which in most other countries have fallen to the government. The central government was a policing and tax-gathering agency. It gave coherence to the country and provided for the common defense, but in local, and especially in rural and village, administration, the nation was largely self-governing with a strong tendency to democracy. There was a carefully organized code of laws, reissued and amended by each dynasty, but representing the growth of ages of experience and legislation. Justice was too frequently bought and sold, many of the punishments seem to us inhuman, and torture, though illegal, was all too frequent. The theory of justice was there, however, and long-established precedent for reliance on and respect for law."—*Ibid.*, pp. 97-102.

As to trade: "In 1784 the Stars and Stripes floating from the *Empress of China*, an American trading vessel, first appeared in the Orient at Canton, the only Chinese port at which foreigners were permitted to trade. In 1786, President Washington, in the interests of a rapidly growing trade, appointed Samuel Shaw as consul at that port. It was over a half-century later that China first consented to make treaties regulating and extending commercial intercourse, and providing for the protection of the lives and property of American citizens on Chinese territory. From 1786 to 1844 the American consuls at Canton were merely merchants. During that time, however, our trade with China suffered only one temporary interruption—in 1821, when Terranora, a sailor on board of the American ship *Emily*, was judicially murdered by the Chinese magistrate, Pwany, and the American merchants at Whampoa protested without effect. For many years the powers of Western Europe had been able to secure a restricted trade. As early as 1537 the Portuguese temporarily established a trade at Macao. They were soon followed by the Spanish, who had established a

colony at Manila in 1543. In 1622 the Dutch attacked the Portuguese settlements at Macao and occupied the Pescadore (Pang-hu) Islands, and in 1625 they were induced to move to Formosa by Chinese promises of freedom of trade, but were driven to Java, a generation later, by the fleet of Koshinga, the pirate. In 1637 Captain Weddel, with an English squadron, anchored off Macao and compelled the opening of trade with the English. Soon after 1689 Russian caravans were permitted to go to Peking to trade. All attempts to secure commercial treaties or regular diplomatic intercourse, however, had ended in failure. Most ambassadors refused to make the nine prostrations required by the emperor as a preliminary to negotiation. In 1699 the English East India Company obtained permission to establish a factory and a consulate at Canton, where they desired to trade in tea, but trade was often interrupted by heavy duties and extortions. The Dutch finally secured the same privilege. No other port was open to commerce. For half a century after 1720 all business of Europeans was transacted through a single company of Chinese hong merchants, which was responsible to the Chinese Government for the customs and duties, and responsible to no one for its enormous profits. Though the co-hong was dissolved in 1771, the hong merchants, by making presents to the Canton magistrates, still contrived to maintain their monopoly and continued their exorbitant and extortionate prices, and in some cases refused to pay their debts. Suspecting that their complaints were never allowed to reach Peking, the British, in 1792, sent to the imperial city an ambassador (Lord Macartney) who secured the dismissal of the Canton viceroy who had encouraged the frauds. In 1816, they again complained of the manner of the Canton trade and asked for new ports more convenient to the principal tea district, but Lord Amherst, who was sent at the head of an embassy, was not received by the Chinese sovereign."—J. M. Callahan, *American relations in the Pacific and the Far East*, pp. 84-86. —See also ASIA: 1500-1900.

18th century.—Poor relief.—Infanticide condemned. See CHARITIES: China.

1760.—Control of Kashgar or Chinese Turkestan. See YAKUB BEG, DOMINION OF.

19th century.—Educational reforms.—Modern learning introduced by Viceroy Chang Chih Tung. See EDUCATION: Modern: 19th century: China.

1839-1842.—Advance in Asia. See also ASIA: 1500-1900.

1839-1842.—Opium War with England.—Treaty of Nanking.—Opening of the five ports.—"The first Chinese war [of England] was in one sense directly attributable to the altered position of the East India Company after 1833. [See INDIA: 1823-1833.] Up to that year trade between England and China had been conducted in both countries on principles of strict monopoly. The Chinese trade was secured to the East India Company, and the English trade was confined to a company of merchants specially nominated for the purpose by the Emperor. The change of thought which produced the destruction of monopolies in England did not penetrate to the conservative atmosphere of the Celestial Empire, and, while the trade in one country was thrown open to everyone, trade in the other was still exclusively confined to the merchants nominated by the Chinese Government. These merchants, hong merchants as they were called, traded separately, but were mutually liable for the dues to the Chinese Government and for their debts to the foreigners.

Such conditions neither promoted the growth of trade nor the solvency of the traders; and, out of the thirteen hong merchants in 1837, three or four were avowedly insolvent. (State Papers, v. 27, p. 1310.) Such were the general conditions on which the trade was conducted. The most important article of trade was opium. The importation of opium into China had, indeed, been illegal since 1796. But the Chinese Government had made no stringent efforts to prohibit the trade, and a Select Committee of the House of Commons had declared that it was inadvisable to abandon an important source of revenue to the East India Company. (State Papers, v. 29, p. 1020.) The opium trade consequently thrived, and grew from 4,100 chests in 1796 to 30,000 chests in 1837, and the Chinese connived at or ignored the growing trade. (Ibid., p. 1010)."—S. Walpole, *History of England from 1815*, note, v. 5, p. 287.—"The Emperor Taokwang took the opium question much to heart. The restriction on its import had in no way diminished the quantity; the ships under all the foreign flags (excepting only the ships of the English East India Company) continued to bring it, but, instead of coming into port, they remained outside port limits and delivered it there to Chinese buyers; and the officials continued to levy their tax on it, but it was for their own profit and not for the public fisc. In 1836, in order to combat the evils of a clandestine trade, the question was seriously debated at Peking whether it was not better to legalise the trade, but it was decided in the negative. In this decision the Emperor had against him practically all the tax-collecting mandarins, but in Lin Tse-sü he found a man after his own heart, prepared to over-ride all obstacles and so extirpate the curse. He was appointed High Commissioner for this purpose in 1839; and, on his arrival at Canton, put an embargo on the foreign trade, and placed the English Superintendent and the foreign merchants of all nationalities in close confinement in their houses, deprived of food, fuel, water, and servants, and demanded that the opium then in the 'outside waters' be brought in and surrendered to him. With the foreign residents held as hostages for the execution of this command, the English Superintendent, to secure their release, ordered all opium then in Chinese waters to be surrendered to him on behalf of the British Government, and he in turn surrendered it, to the amount of 20,291 chests, to the Chinese authorities, who destroyed it to the last ounce. Commissioner Lin then demanded that each foreign resident should sign a bond undertaking, for himself, his Government, and all foreign merchants, that there should be no more trade in opium. They were willing, in their state of duress, to sign for themselves individually; and, when the High Commissioner found he could obtain no more, he released the imprisoned foreigners and allowed them to take refuge on board their ships at Hongkong. In the war which followed the Chinese were uniformly beaten; Canton, Amoy, Ningpo, Chapu, Shanghai, and Chinkiang were taken by the British plenipotentiary, Sir Henry Pottinger, with Admiral Sir William Parker in command of the fleet; and on August 29th, 1842, was signed the treaty of Nanking, by which the Chinese conceded all that was demanded. To the Chinese opium appeared to have been the sole cause of the war, and they honestly could not understand that any other cause existed. To their expressed surprise, the opium question was not included in the English demands formulated at Nanking, and they were informed that they could regulate the trade according to their own laws, on condition that, in doing so, they

did not injuriously affect the persons or the other property of foreign merchants. The treaty settled the equal status of nations, and guaranteed security to the persons of their representatives and merchants; abolished the monopoly of trade, and permitted foreign representatives to communicate direct with the Chinese officials; designated five ports (Canton, Amoy, Foochow, Ningpo, and Shanghai) at which foreign merchants might erect residences and warehouses and conduct trade; provided for a uniform and published tariff of customs duties, in lieu of the previous exactions, unknown in amount and uncertain in their incidence; and exacted an indemnity of six million dollars for the expenses of the expedition and as compensation for the opium surrendered to obtain the release of the persons illegally detained. The provisions of this treaty, imposed at the cannon's

sent to the Senate and the House a message, prepared by Webster, referring to the importance of the Sandwich Islands and the China trade, and urging an appropriation for sending an official representative to China. A bill for a mission was called up by the Senate at midnight on the last day of the session of 1842-43. It met with much opposition. Benton, on the ground that we already had trade and could never have closer relations than that with a people so distant and peculiar, said there was no necessity for a treaty. The appropriation was voted, however, and Edward Everett was selected (March 3) as the first envoy. When the latter declined, Caleb Cushing was appointed. His instructions, signed by Webster, were designed to dispel the Chinese delusion that other nations were dependents, and their representatives tribute bearers. He was directed to announce to



TAO-KWANG REVIEWING GUARDS AT THE PALACE, PEKING

mouth, indicate clearly enough what were the motives which led the British Government to take up arms."—H. B. Morse, *Trade and administration of the Chinese empire*, pp. 18-20.—See also ASIA: European influence on education, industry, medicine, etc.; OPIUM PROBLEM: 1840; MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25.

ALSO IN: S. W. Williams, *Middle kingdom*, ch. 22-23.—D. C. Boulger, *History of China*, v. 3, ch. 5.—E. H. Parker, *Chinese account of the Opium War*.

1839-1844.—Relations with the United States.—First mission and treaty.—"The United States was not slow to take advantage of the Chinese reformed methods of intercourse. In September, 1839, when the Chinese suspected that Americans were coöperating with the British, P. W. Snow, the American consul at Canton, had declined to conform to the troublesome Chinese literary conventionalities which the authorities asked him to insert in his reply to the edicts of the imperial commissioner. In December, 1842, President Tyler

the Chinese that the United States 'pays tribute to none and expects tribute from none,' but desires friendship and the protection of rights. Arriving at Macao on the *Brandywine* in February, 1844, he soon opened correspondence with the authorities near Canton, who kept him in diplomatic contention until the middle of May. Failing to induce the Oriental mind to allow him to go to Peking, he was finally persuaded to abandon that part of his plan. Pen and ink prevailed over thoughts of cannon and ammunition. On the arrival of an imperial commissioner, Cushing decided that it was best 'to dispose of all the commercial questions by treaty before venturing on Peking,' where the Chinese ceremonial required ambassadors to undergo a series of prostrations and bumping of the head on the ground before the footstool of the Chinese 'Son of Heaven.' On July 3, at Wang Hiya, near Macao, he concluded with Keying a treaty of peace, amity and commerce, opening the five ports to American commerce, establishing port regulations, allowing American citizens the privi-

leges of residence, cemeteries and hospitals, conceding the right of foreigners to be tried before their consuls; granting to the United States the privilege of direct correspondence with the Imperial Government (to be transmitted by designated port officers), and promising all the privileges and advantages which China might grant to other nations. The United States, by her peaceful but firm policy, with no desire for Chinese territory, secured greater prestige and concession than the British."—J. M. Callahan, *American relations in the Pacific and the Far East*, pp. 86-88.

ALSO IN: K. S. Latourette, *History of early relations between the United States and China (Transactions of the Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences, Aug., 1917)*.

1850-1864.—Taiping rebellion.—"The phrase 'Taiping Rebellion' is wholly of foreign manufacture; at Peking and everywhere among those loyal to the government the insurgents were styled, 'Chang-mao tseh,' or 'Long-haired rebels,' while on their side, by a whimsical resemblance to English slang, the imperialists were dubbed 'imps.' When the chiefs assumed to be aiming at independence in 1850, in order to identify their followers with their cause they took the term 'Ping Chao,' or 'Peace Dynasty,' as the style of their sway, to distinguish it from the 'Tsing Chao,' or 'Pure Dynasty' of the Manchus. Each of them prefixed the adjective 'Ta' (or 'Tai,' in Cantonese), 'Great,' as is the Chinese custom with regard to dynasties and nations: thus the name Tai-ping became known to foreigners."—S. W. Williams, *Middle kingdom*, v. 2, ch. 24.—"This remarkable movement, which at one time excited much interest in Western lands, originated with a man named Hung Sew-tseun [or Hung Siutseun], son of a humble peasant residing in a village near Canton. On the occasion of one of his visits to the provincial city, probably in the year 1833, he appears to have seen a foreign Protestant missionary addressing the populace in the streets, assisted by a native interpreter. Either then or on the following day he received from some tract-distributor a book entitled 'Good Words for Exhorting the Age,' which consisted of essays and sermons by Leang A-fah, a well-known convert and evangelist. Taking the volume home with him, he looked it over with some interest, but carelessly laid it aside in his book-case. A few years afterward he attended for the second time the competitive literary examination with high hopes of honor and distinction, having already passed with much credit the lower examination in the district city. His ambitious venture, however, met with severe disappointment, and he returned to his friends sick in mind and body. During this state of mental depression and physical infirmity, which continued for some forty days, he had certain strange visions, in which he received commands from heaven to destroy the idols. These fancied revelations seem to have produced a deep impression on his mind, and led to a certain gravity of demeanor after his recovery and return to his quiet occupation as a student and village schoolmaster. When the English war broke out, and foreigners swept up Canton River with their wonderful fire-ships, . . . it is not surprising that Hung should have had his attention again attracted to the Christian publication which had lain so long neglected in his library. . . . The writings of Leang A-fah contained chapters from the Old and New Testament Scriptures, which he found to correspond in a striking manner with the preternatural sights and voices of that memorable period in his history [during his sickness, six years before]; and this

strange coincidence convinced him of their truth, and of his being divinely appointed to restore the world, that is China, to the worship of the true God. Hung Sew-tseun accepted his mission and began the work of propagating the faith he had espoused. Among his first converts was one Fung Yun-san, who became a most ardent missionary and disinterested preacher. These two leaders of the movement traveled far and near through the country, teaching the people of all classes and forming a society of God-worshippers. All the converts renounced idolatry and gave up the worship of Confucius. Hung, at this time apparently a sincere and earnest seeker after truth, went to Canton and placed himself under the instructions of the Rev. Mr. Roberts, an American missionary, who for some cause fearing that his novitiate might be inspired by mercenary motives, denied him the rite of baptism. But, without being offended at this cold and suspicious treatment, he went home and taught his converts how to baptize themselves. The God-worshippers rapidly increased in numbers, and were known and feared as zealous iconoclasts. . . . For a year after Hung Sew-tseun had rejoined the God-worshippers that society retained its exclusively religious nature, but in the autumn of 1850 it was brought into direct collision with the civil magistrates, when the movement assumed a political character of the highest aims." It was soon a movement of declared rebellion, and allied with a rebel army of bandits and pirates which had taken arms against the government in south-eastern China."—L. N. Wheeler, *Foreigner in China*, ch. 13.—"The Hakka schoolmaster proclaimed his 'mission' in 1850. A vast horde gathered to him. He nominated five 'Wangs' or soldier sub-kings from out of his clan, and commenced his northward movement from Wooswen in January, 1851. Through the rich prosperous provinces his desultory march, interspersed with frequent halts, spread destruction and desolation. The peaceful fled shudderingly before this wave of fierce, stalwart ruffianhood, with its tattered malian tawdriness, its flaunting banners, its rusty naked weapons. Everywhere it gathered in the local scoundrelism. The pirates came from the coast; the robbers from the interior mountains rallied to an enterprise that promised so well for their trade. In the perturbed state of the Chinese population the horde grew like an avalanche as it rolled along. The Heavenly King [as Hung now styled himself] met with no opposition to speak of, and in 1853 his promenade ended under the shadow of the Porcelain Tower, in the city of Nanking, the second metropolis of the Chinese Empire, where, till the rebellion and his life ended simultaneously, he lived a life of licentiousness, darkened further by the grossest cruelties. The rebellion had lasted nearly ten years when the fates brought it into collision with the armed civilization of the West. The Imperialist forces had made sluggishly some head against it. Nanking had been invested after a fashion for years on end. 'The prospects of the Tai-pings,' says Commander Brine, 'in the early spring of 1860, had become very gloomy. The Imperialist generals had hemmed Tai-pingdom within certain limits in the lower valley of the Yantsze, and the movement languished further from its destructive and exhausting nature, which for continued vitality constantly required new districts of country to exhaust and destroy.' But in 1850 China and the West came into collision. . . . The rebellion had opportunity to recover lost ground. For the sixth time the 'Faithful King' relieved Nanking. The Imperialist generals fell back, and then the Tai-

pings took the offensive, and as the result of sundry victories, the rebellion regained an active and flourishing condition. . . . Shanghai, one of the treaty ports, was threatened."—A. Forbes, *Chinese Gordon*, ch. 2.—"Europe . . . has known evil days under the hands of fierce conquerors, plundering and destroying in religion's name; but its annals may be ransacked in vain, without finding any parallel to the miseries endured in those provinces of China over which 'The Heavenly King,' the Taiping prophet, extended his fell sway for ten sad years. Hung Sew-tsuen (better known in China by his assumed title, Tien Wang) . . . had read Christian tracts, had learnt from a Christian missionary; and when he announced publicly three years afterwards that part of his mission was to destroy the temples and images, and showed in the jargon of his pretended visions some traces of his New Testament study, the conclusion was instantly seized by the sanguine minds of a section set upon evangelizing the East, that their efforts had produced a true prophet, fit for the work. Wedded to this fancy, they rejected as the inventions of the enemies of missions the tales of Taiping cruelty which soon reached Europe: and long after the details of the impostor's life at Nankin, with its medley of visions, executions, edicts, and harem indulgence, became notorious to the world, prayers were offered for his success by devotees in Great Britain as bigoted to his cause as the bloodiest commander, or 'Wang,' whom he had raised from the ranks of his followers to carry out his 'exterminating decrees.' The Taiping cause was lost in China before it was wholly abandoned by these fanatics in England, and their belief in its excellence so powerfully reacted on our policy, that it might have preserved us from active intervention down to the present time, had not certain Imperialist successes elsewhere, the diminishing means of their wasted possessions, and the rashness of their own chiefs, brought the Taiping arms into direct collision with us. And with the occasion there was happily raised up the man whose prowess was to scatter their blood-cemented empire to pieces far more speedily than it had been built up."—C. C. Chesney, *Essays in military biography*, ch. 10.—"The Taiping rebellion was of so barbarous a nature that its suppression had become necessary in the interests of civilization. A force raised at the expense of the Shanghai merchants, and supported by the Chinese government, had been for some years struggling against its progress. This force, known as the 'Ever Victorious Army,' was commanded at first by Ward, an American, and, on his death, by Burevine, also an American, who was summarily dismissed; for a short time the command was held by Holland, an English marine officer, but he was defeated at Taitan, 22 Feb., 1863. Li Hung Chang, governor-general of the Kiang provinces, then applied to the British commander-in-chief for the services of an English officer, and Gordon [Charles George, subsequently known as 'Chinese Gordon'] was authorised to accept the command. He arrived at Sung-Kiong and entered on his new duties as a mandarin and lieutenant-colonel in the Chinese service on 24 March, 1863. His force was composed of some three to four thousand Chinese, officered by 150 Europeans of almost every nationality and often of doubtful character. By the indomitable will of its commander this heterogeneous body was moulded into a little army whose high-sounding title of 'ever-victorious' became a reality, and in less than two years, after 33 engagements, the power of the Taipings was completely broken, and

the rebellion stamped out. The theatre of operations was the district of Kiangsoo, lying between the Yang-tze-Kiang river in the north and the bay of Hang-chow in the south." Before the summer of 1863 was over, Gordon had raised the rebel siege of Chanzu, and taken from the Taipings the towns of Fushan, Taitan, Quinsan, Kahpoo, Wokong, Patachiaow, Leeku, Wanti, and Fusaiquan. Finally, in December, the great city of Soo-chow was surrendered to him. Gordon was always in front of all his storming parties, "carrying no other weapon than a little cane. His men called it his 'magic wand,' regarding it as a charm that protected his life and led them on to victory. When Soo-chow fell Gordon had stipulated with the Governor-general Li for the lives of the Wangs (rebel leaders). They were treacherously murdered by Li's orders. Indignant at this perfidy, Gordon refused to serve any longer with Governor Li, and when on 1 Jan. 1864 money and rewards were heaped upon him by the Emperor, declined them all. . . . After some [two] months of inaction it became evident that if Gordon did not again take the field the Taipings would regain the rescued country," and he was prevailed upon to resume his campaign, which, although badly wounded in one of the battles, he brought to an end in the following April (1864), by the capture of Chan-chu-fu. "This victory not only ended the campaign but completely destroyed the rebellion, and the Chinese regular forces were enabled to occupy Nankin in the July following. The large money present offered to Gordon by the emperor was again declined, although he had spent his pay in promoting the efficiency of his force, so that he wrote home: 'I shall leave China as poor as when I entered it.'"—Col. R. H. Veitch, *Charles George Gordon (Dictionary of National Biography)*.

ALSO IN: A. E. Hake, *Story of Chinese Gordon*, ch. 3-8.—W. F. Butler, *Charles George Gordon*, ch. 2.—S. Mossman, *General Gordon in China*.—*Private diary of Gen. Gordon in China*.—J. M. Callery and M. Yuan, *History of the insurrection in China*.—H. A. Giles, *China and the Manchus*, pp. 81-91.

1856-1860.—War with England and France.—Bombardment and capture of Canton.—Allies in Peking.—Destruction of the Summer Palace.—Terms of peace.—The speech from the throne at the opening of the English Parliament, on February 3, 1857, "stated that acts of violence, insults to the British flag, and infractions of treaty rights, committed by the local authorities at Canton, and a pertinacious refusal of redress, had rendered it necessary for her Majesty's officers in China to have recourse to measures of force to obtain satisfaction. The alleged offences of the Chinese authorities at Canton had for their single victim the lorcha *Arrow*. The lorcha *Arrow* was a small boat built on the European model. The word 'Lorcha' is taken from the Portuguese settlement at Macao, at the mouth of the Canton river. It often occurs in treaties with the Chinese authorities. On October 8, 1856, a party of Chinese in charge of an officer boarded the *Arrow*, in the Canton river. They took off twelve men on a charge of piracy, leaving two men in charge of the lorcha. The *Arrow* was declared by its owners to be a British vessel. Our consul at Canton, Mr. Parkes, demanded from Yeh, the Chinese Governor of Canton, the return of the men, basing his demand upon the Treaty of 1843, supplemental to the Treaty of 1842. This treaty did not give the Chinese authorities any right to seize Chinese offenders, or supposed offenders, on board an English vessel. It

merely gave them a right to require the surrender of the offenders at the hands of the English. The Chinese Governor, Yeh, contended, however, that the lorch was a Chinese pirate vessel, which had no right whatever to hoist the flag of England. It may be plainly stated at once that the *Arrow* was not an English vessel, but only a Chinese vessel which had obtained by false pretences the temporary possession of a British flag. Mr. Consul Parkes, however, was fussy, and he demanded the instant restoration of the captured men, and he sent off to our Plenipotentiary at Hong Kong Sir John Bowring, for authority and assistance in the business. Sir John Bowring . . . ordered the Chinese authorities to surrender all the men taken from the *Arrow*, and he insisted that an apology should be offered for their arrest, and a formal pledge given that no such act should ever be committed again. If this were not done within forty-eight hours, naval operations were to be begun against the Chinese. The Chinese Governor, Yeh, sent back all the men, and undertook to promise that for the future great care should be taken that no British ships should be visited improperly by Chinese officers. But he could not offer an apology for the particular case of the *Arrow*, for he still maintained, as was indeed the fact, that the *Arrow* was a Chinese vessel, and that the English had nothing to do with her. Accordingly Sir John Bowring carried out his threat, and had Canton bombarded by the fleet which Admiral Sir Michael Seymour commanded. From October 23 to November 13 naval and military operations were kept up continuously. Commissioner Yeh retaliated by foolishly offering a reward for the head of every Englishman. This news from China created a considerable sensation in England. On February 24, 1857, Lord Derby brought forward in the House of Lords a motion, comprehensively condemning the whole of the proceedings of the British authorities in China. The debate would have been memorable if only for the powerful speech in which the venerable Lord Lyndhurst supported the motion, and exposed the utter illegality of the course pursued by Sir John Bowring. The House of Lords rejected the motion of Lord Derby by a majority of 146 to 110. On February 26 Mr. Cobden brought forward a similar motion in the House of Commons. . . . Mr. Cobden had probably never dreamed of the amount or the nature of the support his motion was destined to receive. The vote of censure was carried by 263 votes against 247—a majority of 16. Lord Palmerston announced two or three days after that the Government had resolved on a dissolution and an appeal to the country. Lord Palmerston understood his countrymen." In the ensuing elections his victory was complete. "Cobden, Bright, Milner Gibson, W. J. Fox, Layard, and many other leading opponents of the Chinese policy, were left without seats. Lord Palmerston came back to power with renewed and redoubled strength." He "had the satisfaction before he left office [in 1858] of being able to announce the capture of Canton. The operations against China had been virtually suspended . . . when the Indian Mutiny broke out. England had now got the co-operation of France. France had a complaint of long standing against China on account of the murder of some missionaries, for which redress had been asked in vain. There was, therefore, an allied attack made upon Canton [December, 1857], and of course the city was easily captured. Commissioner Yeh himself was taken prisoner, not until he had been sought for and hunted out in most ignominious fashion. He was found at last hidden

away in some obscure part of a house. He was known by his enormous fatness. . . . He was put on board an English man-of-war, and afterwards sent to Calcutta, where he died early in the following year. Unless report greatly belied him he had been exceptionally cruel, even for a Chinese official. The English and French Envoys, Lord Elgin and Baron Gros, succeeded in making a treaty with China. By the conditions of the treaty, England and France were to have ministers at the Chinese Court, on certain special occasions at least, and China was to be represented in London and Paris; there was to be toleration of Christianity in China, and a certain freedom of access to Chinese rivers for English and French mercantile vessels, and to the interior of China for English and French subjects. China was to pay the expenses of the war. It was further agreed that the term 'barbarian' was no longer to be applied to Europeans in China. There was great congratulation in England over this treaty, and the prospect it afforded of a lasting peace with China. The peace thus procured lasted in fact exactly a year. . . . The treaty of Tientsin, which had been arranged by Lord Elgin and Baron Gros, contained a clause providing for the exchange of the ratifications at Peking within a year from the date of the signature, which took place in June 1858. Lord Elgin returned to England, and his brother, Mr. Frederick Bruce, was appointed in March 1859 Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to China. Mr. Bruce was directed to proceed by way of the Peiho to Tientsin and thence to Peking to exchange the ratifications of the treaty. Lord Malmesbury, who was then Foreign Secretary . . . impressed upon Mr. Bruce that he was not to be put off from going to the capital. Instructions were sent out from England at the same time to Admiral Hope, the Naval Commander-in-Chief in China, to provide a sufficient force to accompany Mr. Bruce to the mouth of the Peiho. The Peiho river flows from the highlands on the west into the Gulf of Pecheli, at the north-east corner of the Chinese dominions. The capital of the Empire is about 100 miles inland from the mouth of the Peiho. It does not stand on that river, which flows past it at some distance westward, but it is connected with the river by means of a canal. The town of Tientsin stands on the Peiho near its junction with one of the many rivers that flow into it, and about forty miles from the mouth. The entrance to the Peiho was defended by the Taku forts. On June 20, 1859, Mr. Bruce and the French Envoy reached the mouth of the Peiho with Admiral Hope's fleet, some nineteen vessels in all, to escort them. They found the forts defended; some negotiations and inter-communications took place, and a Chinese official from Tientsin came to Mr. Bruce and endeavoured to obtain some delay or compromise. Mr. Bruce became convinced that the condition of things predicted by Lord Malmesbury was coming about, and that the Chinese authorities were only trying to defeat his purpose. He called on Admiral Hope to clear a passage for the vessels. When the Admiral brought up his gunboats the forts opened fire. The Chinese artillerymen showed unexpected skill and precision. Four of the gunboats were almost immediately disabled. All the attacking vessels got aground. Admiral Hope attempted to storm the forts. The attempt was a complete failure. Admiral Hope himself was wounded; so was the commander of the French vessel which had contributed a contingent to the storming party. The attempt to force a passage of the river was given

up and the mission to Peking was over for the present. It seems only fair to say that the Chinese at the mouth of the Peiho cannot be accused of perfidy. They had mounted the forts and barricaded the river openly and even ostentatiously. . . . It will be easily imagined that the news created a deep sensation in England. People in general made up their minds at once that the matter could not be allowed to rest there, and that the mission to Peking must be enforced. . . . Before the whole question came to be discussed in Parliament the Conservatives had gone out and the Liberals had come in. The English and French Governments determined that the men who had made the treaty of Tien-tsin—Lord Elgin and Baron Gros—should be sent back to insist on its reinforcement. Sir Hope Grant was appointed to the military command of our land forces, and General Cousin de Montauban, afterwards Count Palikao, commanded the soldiers of France. The Chinese to do them justice, fought very bravely, but of course they had no chance whatever against such forces as those commanded by the English and French generals. The allies captured the Taku forts [August, 1860], occupied Tien-tsin, and marched on Peking. The Chinese Government endeavoured to negotiate for peace, and to interpose any manner of delay, diplomatic or otherwise, between the allies and their progress to the capital. Lord Elgin consented at last to enter into negotiations at Tungchow, a walled town ten or twelve miles nearer than Peking. Before the negotiations took place, Lord Elgin's secretaries, Mr. Parkes and Mr. Loch, some English officers, Mr. Bowlby, the correspondent of the *Times*, and some members of the staff of Baron Gros, were treacherously seized by the Chinese while under a flag of truce and dragged off to various prisons. Mr. Parkes and Mr. Loch, with eleven of their companions, were afterwards released, after having been treated with much cruelty and indignity, but thirteen of the prisoners died of the horrible ill-treatment they received. Lord Elgin refused to negotiate until the prisoners had been returned, and the allied armies were actually at one of the great gates of Peking, and had their guns in position to blow the gate in, when the Chinese acceded to their terms. The gate was surrendered, the allies entered the city, and the English and French flags were hoisted side by side on the walls of Peking. It was only after entering the city that Lord Elgin learned of the murder of the captives. He then determined that the Summer Palace should be burnt down as a means of impressing the mind of the Chinese authorities generally with some sense of the danger of treachery and foul play. Two days were occupied in the destruction of the palace. It covered an area of many miles. Gardens, temples, small lodges, and pagodas, groves, grottoes, lakes, bridges, terraces, artificial hills, diversified the vast space. All the artistic treasures, all the curiosities, archaeological and other, that Chinese wealth and Chinese taste, such as it was, could bring together, had been accumulated in this magnificent pleasure. The surrounding scenery was beautiful. The high mountains of Tartary ramparted one side of the enclosure. The buildings were set on fire; the whole place was given over to destruction. A monument was raised with an inscription in Chinese, setting forth that such was the reward of perfidy and cruelty. Very different opinions were held in England as to the destruction of the Imperial palace. To many it seemed an act of unintelligible and unpardonable vandalism. Lord Elgin explained, that if he did not demand the

surrender of the actual perpetrators, it was because he knew full well that no difficulty would have been made about giving him a seeming satisfaction. The Chinese Government would have selected for vicarious punishment, in all probability, a crowd of mean and unfortunate wretches who had nothing to do with the murders. . . . It is somewhat singular that so many persons should have been roused to indignation by the destruction of a building who took with perfect composure the unjust invasion of a country. The allied powers now of course had it all their own way. England established her right to have an envoy in Peking, whether the Chinese liked it or not. China had to pay a war indemnity, and a large sum of money as compensation to the families of the murdered prisoners and to those who had suffered injuries, and to make an apology for the attack by the garrison of the Taku forts. Perhaps the most important gain to Europe from the war was the knowledge that Peking was not by any means so large a city as we had all imagined it to be, and that it was on the whole rather a crumbling and tumbledown sort of place."—J. McCarthy, *Short history of our own time*, ch. 12, 15, 17 (v. 3, ch. 30 and 42, of larger work).

ALSO IN: L. Oliphant, *Narrative of the Earl of Elgin's mission*, v. 1.—H. B. Loch, *Personal narrative*.—S. W. Williams, *Middle kingdom*, v. 2, ch. 25.—W. F. Butler, *Charles George Gordon*, ch. 3.

1857-1868.—Treaty with the United States.—Burlingame embassy and the Burlingame treaties.—“The government of the United States viewed with anxiety the new breaking out of hostilities between Great Britain, supported by France as an ally, and China, in the year 1856. President Buchanan sent thither the Hon. William B. Reed to watch the course of events, and to act the part of a mediator and peacemaker when opportunity should offer. In this he was sustained by the influence of Russia. Mr. Reed arrived in Hong-Kong, on the fine war steamer *Minnesota*, November 7, 1857. He at once set himself to remove the difficulties between the English and Chinese, and save if possible the future effusion of blood. He endeavored in vain to persuade the proud and obstinate governor Yeh to yield, and save Canton from bombardment. He proceeded to the north, and made on behalf of his government a treaty of peace with China which was signed June 18. The first article of the treaty contains a significant reference to the posture of the United States in relation to the war then in progress, as well as to any which might thereafter arise. The article says: ‘There shall be, as there have always been, peace and friendship between the United States of America and the Ta-Tsing Empire, and between their people respectively. They shall not insult or oppress each other for any trifling cause, so as to produce an estrangement between them; and if any other nation should act unjustly or oppressively, the United States will exert their good offices, on being informed of the case, to bring about an amicable arrangement of the question, thus showing their friendly feelings.’ A subsequent article of this treaty is to be interpreted by keeping in view the bitter root of the difficulties between Great Britain and China which led to the previous war of 1839 to ’42, and to this war. After stating the ports where Americans shall be permitted to reside and their vessels to trade, it continues in the following language: ‘But said vessels shall not carry on a clandestine and fraudulent trade at other ports of China not declared to be legal, or

along the coasts thereof; and any vessel under the American flag violating this provision shall, with her cargo, be subject to confiscation to the Chinese government; and any citizen of the United States who shall trade in any contraband article of merchandise shall be subject to be dealt with by the Chinese government, without being entitled to any countenance or protection from that of the United States; and the United States will take measures to prevent their flag from being abused by the subjects of other nations as a cover for the violation of the laws of the empire.' . . . The development of the foreign trade with China during the brief time which has passed [1870] since the last war has been very great. . . . The American government has been represented most of the time by the Hon. Anson Burlingame, who has taken the lead, with remarkable ability and success, in establishing the policy of peaceful co-operation between the chief treaty-powers, in encouraging the Chinese to adopt a more wise and progressive policy in their intercourse with foreign nations and in the introduction of the improvements of the age. . . . Mr. Burlingame, who had been in China six years, determined [in 1867] to resign his post and return to America. The news of it excited much regret among both Chinese and foreign diplomatists. The former endeavored in vain to dissuade him from his purpose. Failing to accomplish this, he was invited by Prince Kung to a farewell entertainment, at which were present many of the leading officers of the government. During it they expressed to him their gratitude for his offices to them as an intelligent and disinterested counselor and friend. And they seem to have conceived at this time the thought of putting the relations of the empire with foreign countries upon a more just and equal basis, by sending to them an imperial embassy of which he should be the head. They promptly consulted some of their more reliable friends among the foreign gentlemen at the capital, and in two days after they tendered to Mr. Burlingame, much to his surprise, the appointment of minister plenipotentiary of China to the Western powers. . . . Mr. Burlingame left the Chinese capital on the 25th of November, 1867. The embassy consisted, besides the principal, of Chih-kang and Sun Chia-ku, a Manchu and a Chinese officer, each wearing the red ball on his cap which indicates an official of a rank next to the highest in the empire; J. McLeary Brown, formerly of the British legation, and M. Deschamps, as secretaries; Teh Ming and Fung I as Chinese attachés, and several other persons in subordinate positions. . . . It went to Shanghai, thence to San Francisco, where it was most cordially welcomed by both the American and Chinese mercantile communities. It reached Washington in May, 1868. The embassy was treated with much distinction at the American capital. No American statesman was so capable and disposed to enter cordially into its objects as the Secretary of State at that time, the Hon. William H. Seward, whose mind had long apprehended the great features of the policy which American and foreign nations should pursue in relation to the Chinese empire. On the 16th of July the Senate of the United States ratified a treaty which he had made in behalf of this country with the representative of the Chinese government. The treaty defines and fixes the principles of the intercourse of Western nations with China. . . . It secures the territorial integrity of the empire, and concedes to China the rights which the civilized nations of the world accord to each other as to eminent domain over land and waters, and jurisdiction over

persons and property therein. It takes the first step toward the appointment of Chinese consuls in our seaports—a measure promotive of both Chinese and American interests. It secures exemption from all disability or persecution on account of religious faith in either country. It recognizes the right of voluntary emigration and makes penal the wrongs of the coolie traffic. [See RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.] It pledges privileges as to travel or residence in either country such as are enjoyed by the most favored nation. It grants to the Chinese permission to attend our schools and colleges, and allows us to freely establish and maintain schools in China. And while it acknowledges the right of the Chinese government to control its own whole interior arrangements, as to railroads, telegraphs and other internal improvements, it suggests the willingness of our government to afford aid toward their construction by designating and authorizing suitable engineers to perform the work, at the expense of the Chinese government. The treaty expressly leaves the question of naturalization in either country an open one. . . . It is not necessary to follow in detail the progress of this first imperial Chinese embassy. In England it was received at first very coldly, and it was some months before proper attention could be secured from the government to its objects. At length, however, on November 20, it was presented to the queen at Windsor Castle."—W. Speer, *Oldest and the newest empire*, ch. 14.

ALSO IN: *Treaties and conventions between the U. S. and other powers* (1889), pp. 159, 179.

1862-1913.—Emigration to United States.—Anti-Chinese agitation.—Legislation. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: United States: 1862-1913; RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.

1876.—First railway building. See RAILROADS: 1876-1921.

1884-1889.—War with France. See FRANCE: 1875-1889.

1894.—Bubonic plague. See PLAGUE: Pestilence: Epidemics: Bubonic.

1894-1895.—War with Japan.—Peace treaty of Shimonoseki.—Recognition of Korean independence.—Cession to Japan of Formosa and the Pescadores and other territory.—Protest by the powers and relinquishment by Japan of Port Arthur and Liao-tung peninsula.—Causes and effects of China's defeat.—"The ostensible starting-point of the trouble that resulted in hostilities was a local insurrection which broke out in May in one of the southern provinces of Corea. The cause of the insurrection was primarily the misrule of the authorities, with possibly some influence by the quarreling court factions at the capital. The Corean king applied at once to China as his suzerain for assistance in subduing the insurgents, and a Chinese force was sent. Japan, thereupon, claiming that Corea was an independent state and that China had no exclusive right to interfere, promptly began to pour large forces into Corea, to protect Japanese interests. By the middle of June a whole Japanese army corps was at Seoul, the Corean capital, and the Japanese minister soon formulated a radical scheme of administrative reforms which he demanded as indispensable to the permanent maintenance of order in the country. This scheme was rejected by the conservative faction which was in power at court, whereupon, on July 23, the Japanese forces attacked the palace, captured the king and held him as hostage for the carrying out of the reforms. The Chinese were meanwhile putting forth great efforts to make up for the advantage that their rivals had gained in the race for control of Corea, and to strengthen

their forces in that kingdom. On the 25th a Chinese fleet carrying troops to Corea became engaged in hostilities with some Japanese war vessels, and one of the transports was sunk. On August 1, the Emperor of Japan made a formal declaration of war on China, basing his action on the false claim of the latter to suzerainty over Corea, and on the course of China in opposing and thwarting the plan of reforms which were necessary to the progress of Corea and to the security of Japanese interests there. The counter-proclamation of the Chinese Emperor denounced the Japanese as wanton invaders of China's tributary state, and as aiming at the enslaving of Corea. On August 26 a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance against China was made between Japan and Corea. . . . A severe engagement at Ping-Yang, September 16, resulted in the rout of the Chinese and the loss of their last stronghold in Corea. A few days later the hostile fleets had a pitched battle off the mouth of the Yalu River, with the result that the Japanese were left in full control of the adjacent waters. On the 26th of October the Japanese land forces brushed aside with slight resistance the Chinese on the Yalu, which is the boundary between Corea and China, and began their advance through the Chinese province of Manchuria, apparently aiming at Peking."—(*Political Science Quarterly*, Dec., 1894).—On November 3, Port Arthur being then invested by the Japanese land and naval forces, while Marshal Yamagata, the Japanese commander, continued his victorious advance through Manchuria, Prince Kung made a formal appeal to the representatives of all the powers for their intervention, acknowledging the inability of China to cope with the Japanese. On November 21, Port Arthur, called the strongest fortress in China, was taken, after hard fighting from noon of the previous day. In retaliation for the murder and mutilation of some prisoners by the Chinese, the Japanese gave no quarter, and are accused of great atrocities. To the advance of the Japanese armies in the field, the Chinese opposed comparatively slight resistance, in several engagements of a minor character, until December 10, when a battle of decided obstinacy was fought at Kungwasai, near Hai-tcheng. The Japanese were again the victors. Overtures for peace made by the Chinese government proved unavailing; the Japanese authorities declined to receive the envoys sent, for the reason that they were not commissioned with adequate powers. Nothing came of an earlier proffer of the good offices of the government of the United States. In the first month of the new year the successes of the Japanese were renewed. Kaiphing was taken on January 10; a vigorous Chinese attack was repulsed, near Niuchuang, on January 16; a landing of 25,000 troops on the Shantung peninsula was effected on the 20th, and a combined attack by army and navy on the strong forts which protected the important harbor of Wei-hai-wei, and the Chinese fleet sheltered in it, was begun on the 30th of the month. The attack was ended on February 13, when the Chinese admiral Ting-Juchang gave up the remnant of his fleet and then killed himself. The Chinese general, Tai, had committed suicide in despair on the third night of the fighting. There was further fighting around Niuchuang and Yingkow during February and part of March, while overtures for peace were being made by the Chinese government [see also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25]. At length the famous viceroys, Li Hung-chang, was sent to Japan with full powers to conclude a treaty. Negotiations were interrupted at the outset by a foul attack

on the Chinese ambassador by a Japanese ruffian, who shot and seriously wounded him in the cheek. But the mikado ordered an armistice, and the Treaty of Shimonoseki was concluded and signed on April 17, 1895.

"The terms of the treaty come under three heads: the surrender of territory, the payment of an indemnity, and the concession of commercial facilities and rights, while the first article of all provided for the full and complete independence and autonomy of Corea. The surrender of territory was to comprise the islands of Formosa and the Pescadores and the southern part of the province of Shingking [Feng-tien], including the Leaoutung or Regent's Sword Peninsula and the important naval harbour and fortress of Port Arthur. As indemnity, China was to pay 200 million Kuping taels in eight instalments with interest at the rate of 5 per cent. on the unpaid instalments. The commercial concessions included the admission of ships under the Japanese flag to the different rivers and lakes of China, and the appointment of consuls. The terms of peace imposed on China were certainly onerous, but considering the completeness of the Japanese triumph they could not be termed excessive. If they had not seriously disturbed the balance of power in the Far East they would no doubt have been allowed to stand, as no Government was disposed to take up the cause of China from disinterested motives. The British Government, with the largest commercial stake in the question, was by no means inclined to fetter the Japanese when they placed freedom of trade at the head of their programme. It wished China to be opened to external and beneficial influences, and that was exactly what the Japanese proposed to do. Moreover, Japan had shown throughout the war every wish to consider British views, and to respect their interests. Shanghai, in the first place, and the Yangtse Valley afterwards, were ruled outside the sphere of military operations. The identity of interests between England and Japan was clear to the most ordinary intelligence, and certainly the British Government was not the one that would seek to fetter the legitimate and beneficial expansion of the bold islanders of the Far East. But other Powers did not regard the matter from the same point of view, and Russia saw in the appearance of the Japanese on the Pacific freeboard a spectre for the future. The Russian Government could not tolerate the presence of the Japanese on the mainland, and especially in a position which enabled them to command Peking. They therefore resorted to a diplomatic move unprecedented in the East, and which furnished evidence of how closely European affairs were reacting on Asia. The then unwritten alliance between France and Russia was turned into a formal arrangement for the achievement of definite ends, and the powerful co-operation of Germany was secured for the attainment of the same object, viz., the arrest of Japan in her hour of triumph. This movement was destined to produce the most pregnant consequences, some of which are not yet revealed, but for the moment it signified that a Triple Alliance had superseded Great Britain in the leading rôle she had filled in the Far East since the Treaty of Nankin. The ink was scarcely dry on the Treaty of Shimonoseki when Japan found herself confronted by the Three Powers, with a demand couched in polite language to waive that part of the Treaty which provided for the surrender of Port Arthur and the Leaoutung peninsula. The demand was clearly one that could not be rejected without war, and Japan could have no possible chance in coping with

an alliance so formidable on land and sea. Japan gave way with a good grace, and negotiations followed which resulted in the resignation of her claim to the Leaoutung peninsula in return for an increase in the indemnity by the sum of six millions sterling. Wei-Hai-Wei was to be retained as bail, pending the payment of the indemnity; and the final payment in May, 1898 . . . released all Chinese territory on the mainland from the hands of the victors in the war of 1894-5."—D. C. Boulger, *History of China*, v. 2, pp. 532-534. —For the text of the Treaty of Shimonoseki, see SHIMONOSEKI, TREATY OF.—"Of all China's foreign wars, the one with Japan had the most disastrous effect. It swept away her equipment as a military power; reduced her prestige to the lowest ebb; revealed her weakness to the world; and burdened her for the first time with a foreign debt of £50,000,000. When Admiral Ito wrote to Admiral Ting asking him to capitulate he was able to say, 'it is not the fault of one man.' Again he remarked in the same letter: 'The blame must rest upon the errors of a government that has long administered affairs. She selects her servants by competitive examination and literary attainments are the test. The result is that the officials through whom the government is administered are all literati, and literature is honored above everything.' Indeed, one might go a step further and say that the blame also rested upon the system of philosophy which taught every Chinese to love his family instead of his nation. For this teaching China has but the Sung philosophers and their adherents to blame."—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, pp. 591-592.

ALSO IN: S. W. Williams, *History of China*, pp. 437-462.

1894-1895 (March-July).—Cession of Kiang-Hung to France a violation of treaty agreement with Great Britain.—In March, 1894, the government of China entered into a treaty with that of Great Britain, for the settlement of boundaries of Burma, in which it agreed to make no cession of the district of Kiang-Hung, or any part of it, to any other power. Notwithstanding this agreement, the eastern part of Kiang-Hung was ceded to France in July, 1895; for which proceeding the British government promptly called China to account. See below 1897 (May-June).

1895.—Treaty with Russia, giving railway privileges and other rights in Manchuria.—"Apparently it is necessary to conclude that, in 1895, Germany adopted the programme of purchasing Russia's good will in the Occident by abetting her aggressions in the Orient; a not unnatural policy, since charity begins at home, but assuredly a policy somewhat disagreeable to contemplate from an Oriental point of view. However, having done China the apparently weighty service of rescuing southern Manchuria from the jaws of Japan, Russia was generally expected to claim a reward, as is her wont; and that general expectation crystallized, eighteen months later, into assured statements that a secret convention had been concluded in Peking, making various remarkable concessions on behalf of the Great Northern Power. This 'Cassini Convention,' as it was called—Count Cassini having been its alleged negotiator—may or may not have been a reality. It contained internal evidences which defied the most willing credulity; and perhaps all that can be said of it is, that it cleverly embodied the wishes which Russia might be supposed to entertain at that particular time. For it allowed her, in the first place, to carry her trans-Asian Railway across the north of Manchuria—which meant that the line would follow the

chord of an arc through flat country instead of creeping round the periphery of the arc through mountains; it allowed her, in the second place, to construct a branch from this main road due south through Manchuria to the Liaotung Peninsula; it allowed her, in the third place, to post troops for the protection of these roads—an arrangement virtually amounting to military occupation of Manchuria; and it allowed her, in the fourth place, to hold as military bases, in case of necessity, two ports in the Liaotung Peninsula (Port Arthur and Talian), and one port in the Shantung Peninsula (Kiaochow). Rumors of this Convention and the comments it evoked from foreign journals helped greatly to disturb the mind of the Chinese nation."—F. Brinkley, *China: its history, arts and literature*, v. 12, pp. 188-189.

1895 (August).—Massacre of missionaries at Hua Sang.—In the fall of 1894 the English and American missionaries at Ku Cheng, in the Chinese province of Fu Kien, of which Foochow is the capital, began to be threatened by a sect or party called the "Vegetarians" (Siah Chai), who were violently hostile to foreigners, and said to be revolutionary in their aims. The hostile demonstrations were repeated in the following April, and the missionary party started upon a retreat to Foochow, but were stopped on the way by news that the mandarin at Ku Cheng had pacified the Vegetarians and that they might safely return. They did so and were apparently secure for some months. In July they retired from the city to a mountain sanatorium, named Hua Sang, twelve miles from Ku Cheng, and there, on August 1, without warning, they were surrounded by a Vegetarian band of some eighty savage men, armed with swords and spears, who performed a rapid work of murder, killing eleven persons, including six women and two children, and then disappeared. "These men did not belong either to Hua Sang or Ku Cheng, but came from some villages at a considerable distance. . . . The city authorities at Ku Cheng had no hand in the outrage. It was evidently the work of a band of marauders, and the district magistrate seems to have done all that could be done under the circumstances."—D. M. Berry, *Sister martyrs of Ku Cheng*.—The British and American governments joined in sending a consular commission to investigate the crime, and with difficulty compelled the Chinese government to execute twenty of the ringleaders of the attack. At Fatshan, near Canton, there had been mob attacks on the missionary station, with destruction of buildings but no murders, during the same month in which the massacre at Hua Sang occurred.

1896.—Tour of Li Hung-chang in Europe and America.—"Li Hung Chang, the Chinese statesman, left Shanghai with a numerous suite, March 28, on board a French mail steamer for Europe, to represent the Emperor of China at the coronation of the Czar of Russia, and afterwards to visit other countries. He declared that his object was to see Europe for himself, in order to report to the Emperor as to feasible reforms for China. A great reception was offered to him at Hongkong, but he refused to land by the advice of the European physician of the embassy, who feared lest any member of the suite, by catching the plague, would render the party liable to quarantine elsewhere. Proceeding to Singapore, via Saigon, he visited the Governor of the Straits Settlements. At Colombo he was received on landing by a guard of honour. After the Russian coronation he visited Germany, Holland, Belgium and France, and arrived in London early in August.

Wherever he went he was lionised, and he lost no opportunity of asking questions and informing himself concerning the manufactures and armaments of the several countries he visited. He returned to China via New York and the Canadian Pacific Railway, sailing from Vancouver (September 14) for Yokohama and Tien-tsin, where he arrived October 3. Thence he proceeded to Peking (October 20), where he was received by the Emperor, and appointed a member of the Tsung-li-Yamen. At the same time for presuming to enter the precincts of the ruined Summer Palace while visiting the Empress Dowager, after his return home, his enemies took occasion of the slight trespass to insult him, and proposed that he should be stripped of all his titles and honours, with the exception of the earldom, which is confirmed to the Li family for twenty-nine generations. The case was referred to the Board of Civil Appointments, and the Controller-General, Chang-chih-wan, decided that 'according to precedent' the ex-Viceroy should be cashiered, but on account of his life-long and distinguished services to the imperial dynasty he should be recommended to the clemency of the Throne, which took the form of a loss of one year's salary. He took over his seals of office in the Tsung-li-Yamen on November 1, but none of his colleagues were present to welcome him."—*Annual Register*, 1896, pp. 349-50.

1897.—Chinese-Eastern Railway started. See TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

1897 (May-June).—Cessions and concessions to England and France.—In May, the Chinese government sanctioned an extension of the British settlement at Tien-tsin from sixty-five acres to about 300. In the next month, it satisfied the complaints of Great Britain concerning the cession of Kiang-Hung to France (see above 1894-1895, MARCH-JULY), by ceding to that power the Shan district of Kokang, about 400 square miles in extent, and leasing to Great Britain in perpetuity a considerable tract at the south of the Namwan river. The same treaty opened new routes to trade across the frontier between Burma and China, and admitted British consuls and merchants to two new ports. At about the same time France secured mining privileges on the Tonquin frontier and rights for the extension of a railway into Chinese territory.

1897 (November).—Germany opened attack of European Powers on the integrity of the Chinese empire.—Seizure of the port of Kiao-Chau.—Concessions obtained as reparation for murder of German missionaries.—"Among the recent events that have attracted especial attention to China is the lease to foreign nations of important strategic or commercial ports on the coast of the Empire. While the Portuguese have controlled the island of Macao, near Canton, since 1537, and the English became owners of the island of Hongkong, in the same vicinity, by the treaty of 1842, no other nation had possessions on or near the coast of China until within a comparatively recent date. One result of the war between China and Japan was that Japan obtained the island of Formosa, lying 90 miles off the coast of central China. By this treaty Japan was also to have certain territory on the peninsula of Liaotung, which commands from the north the entrance to the Gulf of Pechili, the gateway to the capital of China; but on the urgent protest of Russia, France, and Germany this was abandoned, and the mainland of China up to that time thus remained intact. On November 4, 1897, however, the German Government seized the port of Kiao-

Chau, on the northeastern coast of China, asserting as the cause of its action the desire to obtain satisfaction for the murder of [two] German missionaries by Chinese on November 1 of that year. This port was held by a German war ship until the announcement of a treaty with China by which the port of Kiao-Chau and adjacent territory were leased to Germany for a term of ninety-nine years, the German Government being given the right to land troops, construct fortifications, and establish a coaling and naval station, while German subjects were to have the right to construct railways, open mines, and transact business in the rich mineral and agricultural province of Shantung, in which Kiao-Chau is located, Chinese vessels, however, to have the same privileges in the port of Kiao-Chau that the German Government might decide to give to other nations."—*U. S. Bureau of Statistics, Monthly summary of commerce and statistics, Mar., 1899*.—See also GERMANY: 1897 (November-December); U. S. A.: 1897.

In the treaty ceding Kiao-Chau "the Chinese Government undertake not to frame any Regulations within a zone of 50 kilometers round the bay without the consent of the German Government, and, in particular, to offer no resistance to any measures necessary for regulating the course of the rivers. The Chinese Government also grant to German troops the right of passage across the zone above described. With the object of avoiding every possibility of collision, the Chinese Government will exercise no rights of sovereignty within the leased territory during the period of the lease, but they cede these rights as well as those over the entire water-surface of the Bay of Kiao-Chau to the German Government. The German Government will erect sea-marks on the islands and shallows at the entrance to the bay. . . . In the event of the territory leased not proving to be adapted to the requirements of the German Government, the Government of China will cede to Germany a more suitable district, and will take back the Bay of Kiao-Chau, paying compensation for any improvements or constructions the Germans may have made there. . . . A more accurate delimitation of the boundaries of the district leased will take place in accordance with the local conditions, and will be carried out by Commissioners from both Governments." Early in 1898 the Chinese government was in need of money for the final payment of indemnity to Japan, and opened negotiations with the British government for the guarantee of a loan. Her majesty's ministers were quite ready to give the needed financial aid, for a consideration, requiring, in return, that Ta-lien-wan should be opened to trade as a treaty port. But Russia was then scheming to secure possession of Ta-lien-wan, and interfered with the British negotiation so vigorously that the Chinese were frightened into breaking it off, even after they had practically accepted the offered loan. Not daring, however, to take from Russia the financial guarantee which they rejected at British hands, they thought to balance themselves between these jealous rivals by borrowing without help from either. Both the powers were thus offended, England especially showing stern resentment on account of the slight with which she had been treated.—*Great Britain, Papers by command: China, No. 1, 1899, pp. 13-18*.

1898.—Exclusion from Hawaiian Islands. See HAWAIIAN ISLANDS: Discovery and early history.

1898 (February-December).—Battle of Concessions for railway building and mining.—By summer-time in 1898 the scramble among the

powers for footholds of territory on the Chinese coast seemed to be giving way to what Lord Salisbury described as "the battle of concessions," for the building of railways and the opening of mines. This newer battle gave his lordship much anxiety. On July 13 he cabled to Sir Claude MacDonald: "It does not seem that the battle of Concessions is going well for us, and that the mass of Chinese railways, if they are ever built, will be in foreign hands is a possibility that we must face. One evil of this is, that no orders for materials will come to this country. That we cannot help. The other evil is, that by differential rates and privileges the Managers of the railways may strangle our trade. This we ought to be able to prevent, by pressing that proper provisions for equal treatment be inserted in every Concession."

The British minister at Peking, in reply, dissented warmly from Lord Salisbury's opinion. "The battle of Concessions is not, in my opinion," he cabled on July 23, "going against us. . . . Up to the present, any concessions granted to other nationalities are far out-balanced in financial value by the Shansi and Honan mining and railway concession, with its possible extensions. I have consistently informed the Chinese government that, as to differential rates and privileges, we want none ourselves, and cannot admit that other nationalities have a claim to them." The outcome of the grand "battle" was communicated by Sir Claude MacDonald to Lord Charles Beresford, on November 23, in a full list of the concessions then granted to British subjects, compared with the grants to other nationalities. "We do not seem," wrote Sir Claude, with pardonable complacency, "to have come out second best. . . . Not a single bona fide or approximately practical scheme which has been brought to this Legation has failed to be put through." The summarized result in railway concessions was nine British (2,800 miles); three Russian (1,530 miles); two German (720 miles); three French (420 miles); one Belgian (650 miles); one American (300 miles).

1898 (March-July).—Russian acquisition of Port Arthur and Talienwan.—Ineffectual British opposition.—Consequent British demand for Wei-hai-Wei.—Its lease by China.—While the British minister at Peking was securing these assurances from the Tsung-li Yamèn, concerning the non-alienation of the Yang-tszé region and the opening of inland waters to steam navigation, the Russian minister was equally busy, extorting a cession or lease of Port Arthur and Talienwan, with privileges of railway construction through neighboring territory which gave immense value to those acquisitions. The probability of his success was soon known to the British authorities, who made no serious objection to the leasing of Talienwan, but were strongly opposed to a Russian occupation of Port Arthur. On March 29 the completion of the transaction by which China transferred Port Arthur and Talienwan to Russia was officially announced at St. Petersburg (Petrograd).

On April 3, Sir Claude MacDonald was able to announce by cable to Lord Salisbury: "Yamèn agreed yesterday to the following arrangement: China will lease Wei-hai-Wei to Great Britain on the same terms as Port Arthur has been leased to Russia, but Great Britain agrees not to take possession of the place until it has been given up by Japan. The lease will continue until Russia ceases to occupy Liaotung Peninsula. Details are left for subsequent adjustment." Negotiations relative to the terms of the lease of Wei-hai-Wei were protracted until the first of July, when the conven-

tion determining them was signed at Peking.—See also WEI-HAI-WEI.

1898 (April-July).—Charges of corruption against Li Hung-chang and the Tsung-li Yamèn.—"One of the censors of highest rank memorialised the Emperor early in April, accusing the whole Tsung-li Yamèn of being in Russian pay, and alleging that the sum of 10,000,000 taels was paid to them. He also stated that Li Hung-chang had secured from Russia 1,500,000 taels, and he prayed for a full inquiry and for the decapitation of Li Hung-chang if the accusation were proved, or if he were found guiltless, he himself should be decapitated. Li Hung-chang was dismissed on September 6, but afterwards in November was appointed an imperial commissioner to report on the inundations of the Yellow River, an unwelcome post. . . . A Black Flag rebellion in the southern province of Kwang-si, in which the secret society called The Triads was said to be concerned, was giving the Peking Government great anxiety in July. The rebels, numbering about 40,000, were for a time victorious and seemed determined to overthrow the dynasty."—*Annual Register*, 1898, pp. 333-4.

1898 (April-August).—France in the field with demands.—New demands from Great Britain.—France had now come forward to seize a place in the attacking line, preparatory to what seemed to be the impending partition of China. On April 12, Sir Claude MacDonald cabled to Lord Salisbury the following dispatch: "I had an interview with the Yamèn yesterday, at which they informed me that China had acceded to the following demands on the part of France:—1. Kwang-chow Wan [in the Lei-chau peninsula, on the southern coast, near Tonquin] to be leased as a coaling-station to France. 2. The right to construct a railway to Yünnan-fu from the Tonquin frontier. 3. The promise not to alienate any territory in the three provinces of Kwangtung, Kwangsi, and Yünnan, which border on the French frontier. 4. The Chinese Government agree that if ever they constitute a Postal Department independent of the maritime customs, and if a European is to be appointed as Director thereof, France shall have an equal right with that of other Powers to nominate a candidate for the post of Director. The Chinese Government are willing—1. To lease us as much additional territory on Kowloon promontory [opposite Hong Kong], exclusive of Kowloon city, as is required for military and naval purposes. 2. The Yamèn state that China is quite willing to allow the extension into Yünnan of the Burmah Railway."

On April 13, Mr. Balfour, in the absence of Lord Salisbury, cabled from London in reply: "Inform Yamèn that, although they have not followed our advice, we are anxious to maintain, as far as possible, integrity of China, and will, therefore, not make new territorial demands upon them. It is, however, absolutely necessary, if we are to pursue this policy, that they, on their side, should first immediately conclude negotiations—(a) for giving us all the land required for military defences of Hong Kong; (b) to fulfil their promise to make Nan-ning a Treaty port; (c) to give some railway concession; (d) an agreement as to the non-alienation of Kuangtung and Yünnan. In connection with condition (d), it is in the interests of the integrity of China, and is justified by the proximity of Yünnan to Burmah, and by our commercial preponderance in Kuangtung."

On the same day (April 13) the British minister at Paris telegraphed to the foreign office, London: "It is stated in to-night's papers that, at

the Cabinet Council held this morning, M. Hanotaux was able to announce to his colleagues that the French demands on China had been satisfactorily met. They are stated in the semi-official 'Temps' to be:—1. Concession of a lease of a bay on the south coast of China. 2. Concession of a railway connecting Tonquin with Yunnan-fu by the Red River. 3. Engagement on the part of China never to alienate the territories of the provinces contiguous to Tonquin. 4. Engagement never to cede to any other Power the Island of Hainan. 5. Arrangement in regard to the constitution of the postal service."

Thus, for the time being, France was satisfied, and England would be, before she gave rest to the Tsung-li Yamèn. Her present demands, as above specified by Mr. Balfour, were pressed without ceasing by the pertinacious Sir Claude. On June 9 he obtained from the Yamèn a lease for the British government of about 200 square miles of territory on the mainland opposite its island crown colony of Hong Kong, and surrounding the Chinese city of Kowloon, the latter, however, to remain under Chinese jurisdiction. The term of the lease was ninety-nine years. With regard to the opening of Nan-ning as a treaty port, he received an assurance from the Yamèn in August that it should be done so soon as the Kwang-si rebellion was crushed. On the other points he had equal success.—*Great Britain, Papers by command: China, No. 1, 1899, pp. 12, 19, 98-9, 178.*

1898 (May).—How the murder of a missionary was made the ground of French demands for a railway concession.—Extraterritoriality.—On May 17, 1898, the British minister at Peking cabled to Lord Salisbury: "Murder of missionary in Kuang-si. French demands for compensation. . . . The Yamèn . . . said they were not certain that the murdered missionary was not a Chinaman, and that the demands made by the French for compensation comprise a Concession for a railway to some point on the sea-coast not specified, a chapel to be built, and a pecuniary indemnity of 100,000 fr. to be paid. Up to the present they had refused all these demands." Later, the following particulars of the murder were received from the British consul at Canton: "The occurrence happened about a fortnight ago at Yun-gan-chou, in the P'ing-lo Prefecture. While walking through the streets the missionary noticed a placard directed against the Christian religion. Having discovered the author of the placard, the missionary, with two converts, proceeded to his house and attempted to arrest him. Out of this a disturbance arose in which the passers-by took part, and in the end the missionary and the two converts lost their lives."

On May 21, Sir Claude MacDonald reported to Lord Salisbury from Peking: "I am very reliably informed that the demands made at an interview with the Yamèn yesterday by M. Pichon, the French Minister, in connection with this case were:—1. A Concession to construct a railway from Pakhoi to Nan-ning; 2. Construction of a chapel at Pakhoi; 3. A pecuniary indemnity of 100,000 fr.; and 4. The responsible officials to be punished. In response to these demands, the Yamèn suggested that the Railway Concession should be granted in a document by itself, apart from the granting of the other demands, and that the chapel should be built at Yung-an-chou, the scene of the murder, instead of at Pakhoi, and the French Minister undertook to refer these modifications to his Government for their favourable consideration."—*Great Britain, Papers by command: China, No. 1, 1899, pp. 91, 146, 159.*—Alluding to this incident,

and to that which the German government made its pretext for seizing Kiao-Chau (see above 1897—November), a German writer has remarked: "Never before, perhaps, has so much material value been attached to ministers of the Gospel in foreign lands, and the manner in which, after their death, they are used to spread civilization is somewhat foreign to our older ideas of the functions of the bearers of spiritual blessings."

"From the standpoint of international law and diplomacy, the situation in China is complicated in the extreme. Probably nowhere else in the world is there such a mixture of territorial rights with foreign privileges and understandings, of purely political engagements with economic and financial concessions, of foreign interests conflicting with one another and with those of the nominally sovereign State. When a national government is wholly untrammelled with regard to the management of its own domestic affairs and has within its own hands the enforcement of law within its own territorial borders, its international rights and responsibilities are easily determined by a resort to well-established principles of public law. But when, as in the case of China, we have a Power which permits the exercise within its limits of all kinds of extraterritorial rights or privileges; when there exist within its territory spheres of interest, 'special interests,' war zones, leased territories, treaty ports, concessions, settlements, and legation quarters; when there are in force a multitude of special engagements to foreign Powers with reference to commercial and industrial rights, railways and mines, loans and currency; when two of its chief revenue services—the maritime customs and the salt tax—are under foreign overhead administrative control or direction; when the proceeds of these and other revenues are definitely pledged to meet fixed charges on foreign indebtedness; when, at various points within its borders, there are stationed considerable bodies of foreign troops under foreign command—when we have these and other phenomena all carrying with them limitations upon the free exercise by the central government of its ordinary administrative powers or its discretionary right to deal as it deems best with the individual nations with which it maintains treaty relations, we then have a condition of affairs which furnishes abundant material not only for theoretical or academic discussions by students of international jurisprudence, but for serious conflict and disputes between the nations concerned. Under any circumstances, it is practically impossible to make a complete statement of the engagements which have been entered into by China with foreign Powers or with their nationals. In the first place, there is the difficulty that presents itself when dealing with the diplomacy and international relations of any country, that none of the Foreign Offices of the world have been willing to publish in full the correspondence between themselves and their diplomatic representatives stationed abroad, and that even the portions of such correspondence as finally are made public often appear only years after the dates they bear. And, even as to the treaties themselves, as is well known, many agreements exist that are known only to the parties signatory to them or to their allies. Perhaps the time will come when all covenants will be open and openly arrived at, but as yet that era has not arrived. But in the case of China's international relations the peculiar difficulty confronts the student that there are many instances in which China has committed herself, in writings or even conversations of a most informal character, which have not been

recorded or made public, and which are only presented when the party claiming under them a beneficial interest deems the time opportune for doing so. Still further, that in many, if not most of these cases, the State of China has been held bound by promises which have been made, or are alleged to have been made, by individual Chinese officials upon their own personal responsibility. . . . Applying the principles stated in the extra-territorial provisions of the treaties which have been quoted, it is found that the situation is as follows: (1) As regards the controversies in which no foreigners are involved, the jurisdiction is wholly in the hands of the Chinese authorities, and the suits are adjudicated according to Chinese law and procedure. (2) As regards controversies between two or more nationals of the same Treaty Power, the jurisdiction is exclusively in the consular or other courts which that Power is permitted by China to establish and operate in China, and the law applied is that of the Power concerned. Chinese police officials may make arrests, in criminal cases, but the offenders must be brought as speedily as possible and without undue hardship before, and surrendered into the custody of, the authorities of the State of which the offenders are nationals. (3) Over controversies between nationals of different Treaty Powers, the Chinese authorities exercise no jurisdiction: they are determined by the authorities and the laws of the States concerned according to agreements thereunto appertaining entered into between these States. (4) As regards actions brought by nationals of non-treaty Powers against nationals of the Treaty Powers the jurisdiction is in the authorities of the Treaty Powers. As regards suits, civil or criminal, in which the non-Treaty Power nationals are defendants, jurisdiction is in the Chinese courts. As regards controversies to which all the parties are non-treaty power nationals, or in which they appear as plaintiffs or complainants against Chinese defendants, the jurisdiction is in the Chinese tribunals and the law applied is that of China. The Treaty Powers sometimes exercise their 'good offices' in behalf of non-treaty power nationals in such suits, but there does not exist in China the system, found [formerly] in Turkey and other countries of the Levant, according to which a Treaty Power is permitted to take under its protection and authority, as protégés, the nationals of other powers."—W. W. Willoughby, *Foreign rights and interests in China*, pp. 1-3, 23-24.

1898 (June-September).—Attempted reforms by the emperor.—Overthrow of the reformers and surrender of power to the empress-dowager.—"The agitations in the Empire had hitherto been largely in the hands of the secret societies and had had for their object little beyond the vague program, 'Destroy the Ts'ing; restore the Ming.' From this time onwards a new spirit was abroad in the land. It was the result of many co-operating causes. The success of Japan had been clearly due to the fact that the Island Empire had adopted Occidental methods. The infiltration of Western learning, through the labors of missionaries and others, was beginning to tell. Most effective of all, there were personalities at work with a very definite end in view. One of the most influential of these was the great viceroy of Hu peh, Chang Chih tung, whose book, known by its English title, '*China's Only Hope*,' is said by a competent authority to have 'made more history in a shorter time than any other modern piece of literature.' Advertised throughout China on yellow posters, introduced with a rescript from the Emperor him-

self, it 'astonished a kingdom, convulsed an empire and brought on a war.' It was by no means the work of a radical. Chang Chih tung was no advocate of Parliaments. 'There were too many fools,' he said naïvely. Nor was he too favorable to the introduction of foreign instructors. They seemed to him too lazy, and inclined to dribble out their knowledge to students in order to make their engagement last longer. But he was in some respects thoroughgoing. With regard to opium he said: 'Cast out the poison.' With regard to education: 'Abolish the eight-legged essay,' whilst he recommended that the temples of the two religions in which he did not believe should be turned into schools. Above all he urged loyalty to the throne, to the race and to Confucianism. . . . A character harder to estimate aright is that of 'China's modern sage,' Kang Yu wei, a Cantonese, whose studies on the restoration in Japan, the decadence of Turkey, the constitutional changes in England, and the life of Peter the Great, penetrated in 1897 into the royal palace. Kang Yu wei's friends have declared he was by no means so precipitate as the Emperor's later actions would imply and his friendship with Chang Chih tung would argue for a certain measure of conservatism. His influence, however, is unmistakable. As Secretary of the Tsungli Yamèn and as publisher of a periodical entitled *News for the Times* he had ample opportunity to reach and influence others. Almost before the argus-eyed Dowager was aware of what was going on in the palace precincts the Emperor was surrounded by persons and influences recommended by Kang Yu wei. For three months 'the modern Confucius' reigned supreme in the Emperor's counsels; then came the deluge. The result of such influences as have been described, aided by the natural intelligence of the Emperor and his interest in western toys and scientific experiments, was soon apparent in his acts. 'We do not lack,' he said, 'either men of intellect or brilliant talents, capable of learning and doing anything they please; but their movements have hitherto been hampered by old prejudices.' Kwang hsu was at least resolved that this should no longer be true of himself. In the early part of 1898 he is said to have bought a hundred and twenty-nine foreign books, a Bible, maps, globes and charts. Moreover, he was determined to make things move outside the palace and there is something pathetic in the eagerness with which he launched, one after another, those twenty-seven ill-fated Edicts of July, 1898. They provided, with the bewildering haste, and with little or no attention to the means for carrying them into execution, for every reform which his somewhat visionary instructors had suggested to his enthusiasm. There was to be a new university at Peking, universal reform in education, extensions of railways, developments of art, science and agriculture, together with the immediate abolition of all that had hitherto retarded the advance of the Empire. It was a beautiful dream, but the dreamer was destined to a very sudden and rude awakening. The Empress Dowager was, as we have seen, no novice at a *coup d'état*. It had become manifestly a case for instant action if she were to save herself and her friends from the consequences of the new movement. We may also give her credit for the sincere belief that the new craze for western materialism was likely to play into the hands of the greedy European powers ever on the alert for the partitioning of China. It is no reflection on her patriotism that she believed drastic measures were necessary for the Empire's salvation. Yuan Shih Kai has been blamed by some for warning the Empress

of what was taking place in the Royal Palace. He too may be credited with the belief that hot-headed, inexperienced young enthusiasts were not the real leaders the time necessitated. So the blow fell; Kang Yu wei escaped with difficulty to live henceforth with a price upon his head. Most of his associates were ruthlessly beheaded; the poor young Emperor was from this time forth practically deposed and a prisoner; and a new era was inaugurated by an Edict which commences as follows: 'Her Imperial Majesty the Empress Dowager, Tsz hsi, since the first years of the reign of the late Emperor Tung Chih down to our present reign, has twice ably filled the regency of the Empire, and never did her Majesty fail in happily bringing to a successful issue even the most difficult problems of government. In all things we have ever placed the interests of our Empire before those of others and looking back at her Majesty's successful handiwork, we are now led to beseech, for a third time, for the assistance from her Imperial Majesty, so that we may benefit from her wise and kindly advice in all matters of State. Having now obtained her Majesty's gracious consent, we truly consider this to be a great boon to ourselves as well as to the people of our Empire.'—H. H. Gowen, *Outline history of China*, pp. 158-163.

Also 18: A. H. Smith, *China in convulsion*, pp. 130-151.

1898 (October-November).—Outbreaks of popular hostility to foreigners.—The palace revolution which overthrew the reforming party was followed quickly by outbreaks of popular hostility to foreigners.

1898-1899.—Rioting in Shanghai consequent on French desecration of a cemetery.—French demand for extension of settlement ground in Shanghai.—English and American protests.—On July 18, 1898, the following was reported by the British consul-general at Shanghai: "Serious rioting took place in the French settlement on the 16th and the morning of 17th instant, in the course of which some fifteen natives lost their lives. The disturbance was due to an attempt of the French authorities to take possession of certain temple land known as the Ningpo Joss-house Cemetery. The ground is full of graves, and it is also used for depositing coffins until a favourable opportunity presents itself for removing them to the native districts of the deceased. The cemetery is within the limits of the French Settlement; originally it was far removed from the inhabited portion of the Settlement, but by degrees new streets have been laid out, and houses have been built, until the cemetery is surrounded by dwellings." On August 23 it was announced by telegram from Shanghai that "the dispute arising out of the Ningpo Joss-house is about to be settled by French withdrawing their claims to remove the buildings in consideration for an extension of their concession as far as Si-ca Wei, an addition of 20 square miles." This raised protests from Great Britain and the United States, many of whose citizens owned property within the area thus proposed to be placed under French jurisdiction; and the distracted Tsung-li Yamèn was threatened and pulled about between the contending parties for months. The final outcome was an extension of the general foreign settlement at Shanghai (principally British and American) and a limited extension of that especially controlled by the French. The adjustment of the question was not reached until near the end of 1899.—*Great Britain, Papers by command: China*, No. 1, 1899, and No. 1, 1900.

1899.—Anti-missionary outbreaks, increasing

piracy, and other signs of growing disorder.—During 1899 there was a notable relaxation of the hard and ceaseless pressure upon China which governments, capitalists and speculators had been keeping up of late, in demands more or less peremptory for harbor leases, settlement grounds, railway franchises, mining privileges, and naval, military and commercial advantages of every possible sort. But the irritation of the country under the bullying and "nagging" of the treatment it had received from the European nations revealed itself in increasing outbreaks of popular hostility to foreigners; and these called out threats and demands, for indemnity and punishment, which were made, as a rule, in the truculent tone that had become habitual to western diplomacy in dealing with the people of the East. It was a tone which the Chinese provoked, by the childish evasions and treacherous deceptions with which their officials tried to baffle the demands made on them; but it gave no less offense, and is no less plainly to be counted among the causes of what afterwards occurred. On February 18 the British minister complained energetically to the Tsung-li Yamèn of the rapid increase in piracy on the Canton river. "Since November, 1898," he wrote, "that is in three months, no less than forty-seven cases of piracy in the Canton waters have been reported in the papers. In several of these cases life was taken, and it may almost be said that a reign of terror exists on the waterways of the Two Kuang. Cargo boats are afraid to travel at night, or to move about except in company, and trade is becoming to a certain extent paralysed. The Viceroy is always ailing, and it is difficult to obtain an interview with him. Her Majesty's Consul has repeatedly addressed him on the subject of these piracies in the strongest terms, but can only obtain the stereotyped reply that stringent instructions have been sent to the officials concerned."

On February 28 von Bülow, the German imperial secretary of state for foreign affairs, announced in the Reichstag, at Berlin, the reception of a telegram from Tientsin, reporting that several Germans had been attacked and insulted in that town on the 24th, and had been compelled to take refuge in the side streets and narrow alleys. The imperial government, he said, had been already aware for some weeks past that a considerable feeling of irritation had manifested itself against foreigners in China, especially in the southern portion of the province of Shantung. The Chinese government was thereupon warned of the necessity of maintaining order and securing public safety, and, upon the receipt of the telegram above referred to, the German minister at Peking was instructed to impress upon the Chinese government that, if such incidents were permitted to recur, or the perpetrators allowed to escape unpunished, the consequences for China would be very serious. In June there was an anti-missionary riot at Kienning, in the neighborhood of Foochow, excited by the murder of a boy, popular rumor ascribing the murder to foreigners. The missionaries succeeded in escaping from the mob; but one native convert was killed, and the mission hospital and other premises were looted. A settlement of the Kienning case was arranged locally between the British consul at Foochow, Mr. Playfair, and the viceroy of the province. In November the German government made public the substance of an official telegram received from Peking, reporting a serious state of disturbance in the German missionary districts of Shantung: "It appears from this communication that the followers

of the sects of the 'Red Fist' and the 'Great Knife' are in a state of revolt against the Administration and the people in that province, and are engaged in plunder and rapine in many places. The native Christians suffer no less than the rest of the population by this revolt. Money was usually extorted from them, and their dwellings were pillaged or destroyed. The Italian Mission, situated in the adjoining district, were faring no better, and their chapel had just been burned down. Owing, however, to the unremitting representations of the German Minister, the Chinese Government have caused several of the agitators to be arrested by the local authorities, and they are taking further steps in this direction, with the result that order is gradually being restored. At several places the native Christians, with their non-Christian fellow-countrymen, repulsed the rebels by force of arms. The Provincial Governor has promised the authorities of the Mission a full indemnity for the losses suffered by them and by the other Christians, and several payments have already been made." On December 4, the following despatch was sent to London from the British legation at Peking: "During the delimitation of French leased territory at Kwang-chou-wan on the 13th November, Chinese villagers seized two French officers and decapitated them. The execution of a dignitary—the Prefect concerned in the murder—has been demanded by the French Minister, as well as the dismissal of the Canton Viceroy, who is also implicated. The Chinese Commissioner engaged in the delimitation and the gunboat in which he travelled are held by the French as hostages."

1899 (March-April).—**Agreement between England and Russia concerning their railway interests in China.**—On April 28, 1899, the governments of Great Britain and Russia exchanged notes, embodying an agreement (practically arrived at in the previous month) concerning their respective railway interests in China, in the following terms: "Russia and Great Britain, animated by the sincere desire to avoid in China all cause of conflict on questions where their interests meet, and taking into consideration the economic and geographical gravitation of certain parts of that Empire, have agreed as follows: (1) Russia engages not to seek for her own account, or on behalf of Russian subjects or of others, any railway concessions in the basin of the Yang-tsze, and not to obstruct, directly or indirectly, applications for railway concessions in that region supported by the British Government. (2) Great Britain, on her part, engages not to seek for her own account, or on behalf of British subjects or of others, any railway concessions to the north of the Great Wall of China, and not to obstruct, directly or indirectly, applications for railway concessions in that region supported by the Russian Government. The two contracting parties, having nowise in view to infringe in any way the sovereign rights of China or of existing treaties, will not fail to communicate to the Chinese Government the present arrangement, which, by averting all cause of complication between them, is of a nature to consolidate peace in the far East, and to serve the primordial interests of China herself." *Second Note.* "In order to complete the notes exchanged this day respecting the partition of spheres for concessions for the construction and working of railways in China, it has been agreed to record in the present additional note the arrangement arrived at with regard to the line Shan-hai-kuan-Newchwang, for the construction of which a loan has been already contracted by the Chinese

Government with the Shanghai-Hongkong Bank, acting on behalf of the British and Chinese corporation. The general arrangement established by the above-mentioned notes is not to infringe in any way the rights acquired under the said loan contract, and the Chinese Government may appoint both an English engineer and a European accountant to supervise the construction of the line in question, and the expenditure of the money appropriated to it. But it remains understood that this fact can not be taken as constituting a right of property or foreign control, and that the line in question is to remain a Chinese line under the control of the Chinese Government, and can not be mortgaged or alienated to a non-Chinese company. As regards the branch line from Siaoheichan to Sinminting, in addition to the aforesaid restrictions, it has been agreed that it is to be constructed by China herself, which may permit European—not necessarily British—engineers to periodically inspect it, and to verify and certify that the work is being properly executed. The present special agreement is naturally not to interfere in any way with the right of the Russian Government to support, if it thinks fit, applications of Russian subjects or establishments for concessions for railways, which, starting from the main Manchurian line in a southwesterly direction, would traverse the region in which the Chinese line terminating at Sinminting and Newchwang is to be constructed."—*Great Britain, Papers by command, Treaty series, No. 11, 1899.*

1899 (May-July).—**Representation in the Peace Conference at The Hague.** See HAGUE CONFERENCE: 1899: Constitution.

1899 (August).—**Talienwan declared a free port.**—"The Emperor of Russia in a quaintly worded Imperial Order issued on Sunday last [August 13] and addressed to the Minister of Finance, has declared that after the completion of the railway Talienwan shall be a free port during the whole duration of the lease from China. In the course of the Order the Emperor says: 'Thanks to the wise decision of the Chinese Government, we shall through the railway lines in course of construction be united with China,—a result which gives to all nations the immeasurable gain of easy communication and lightens the operations of the world's trade.' The Emperor also speaks of 'a rapprochement between the peoples of the West and East' (brought about apparently by obtaining an outlet for the great Siberian railway) as 'our historic aim.'"—*Spectator, London, Aug. 19, 1899.*

1899 (December).—**Li Hung-chang appointed acting viceroy at Canton.**—On December 20 it was announced that the viceroy at Canton had been ordered to Peking and that Li Hung-chang had been appointed acting viceroy of Kwangtung and Kwangsi—the provinces of which Canton is the viceregal seat.

1899-1900 (September-February).—**Pledges of an "open-door" commercial policy in China obtained by the government of the United States from the governments of Great Britain, Russia, France, Germany, Italy and Japan.**—"In September and November, 1899, Secretary Hay sent to the diplomatic representatives of the United States at London, Paris, Berlin, St. Petersburg, Tokyo, and Rome, instructions to advise the governments to which they were respectively accredited of the hope that they would make 'formal declaration of an open door policy in the territories held by them in China.' An assurance was sought from each power that: first, it would 'in no way interfere with any treaty port or any

vested interest within any so-called "sphere of interest" or "leased territory" which it might have in China"; second, "the Chinese treaty tariff of the time being shall apply to all merchandise landed or shipped to all such ports as are within said 'sphere of interest' (unless they be free ports), no matter to what nationality it may belong, and . . . duties so leviable shall be collected by the Chinese government"; and, third, "it will levy no higher harbor dues on vessels of another nationality frequenting any port in such "sphere" than shall be levied on vessels of its own nationality, and no higher railroad charges over lines built, controlled, or operated within its "sphere" on merchandise belonging to citizens or subjects of other nationalities transported through such "sphere" than shall be levied on similar merchandise belonging to its own nationals transported over like distances." In due course favorable replies had been received from all the governments addressed, though one of the notes was decidedly equivocal in its wording, while several not unnaturally made the reservation that assent was given upon the condition that the proposals were accepted by all the other powers concerned. Having in hand and having compared the replies, Secretary Hay on March 20, 1900, sent instructions to each of the above-mentioned representatives to inform the government to which he was accredited that, inasmuch as it had accepted the declaration suggested by the United States and as like action had been taken by all the various powers concerned, the condition of common acceptance having been complied with, the United States government would consider the assent given as final and definite. In other words, Secretary Hay declared that in his opinion each of these six powers had entered into an agreement with the United States which amounted to a mutual pledge to preserve the commercial *status quo* and to refrain, each in what might be its sphere of interest, from measures calculated to destroy equality of opportunity."—S. K. Hornbeck, *Contemporary politics in the Far East*, pp. 233-235.—See also BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR."

1900 (January).—Imperial decree relative to the succession to the throne.—The following is a translation of an imperial decree, "by the emperor's own pen," which appeared in the *Peking Gazette*, January 24, 1900: "When at a tender age we entered into the succession to the throne, Her Majesty the Empress-Dowager graciously undertook the rule of the country as Regent, taught and guided us with diligence, and managed all things, great and small, with unremitting care, until we ourselves assumed the government. Thereafter the times again became critical. We bent all our thoughts and energies to the task of ruling rightly, striving to requite Her Majesty's loving kindness, that so we might fulfil the weighty duties entrusted to us by the late Emperor Mu Tsung Yi (T'ung Chih). But since last year we have suffered from ill-health, affairs of State have increased in magnitude and perplexity, and we have lived in constant dread of going wrong. Reflecting on the supreme importance of the worship of our ancestors and of the spirits of the land, we therefore implored the Empress-Dowager to advise us in the government. This was more than a year ago, but we have never been restored to health, and we have not the strength to perform in person the great sacrifices at the altar of Heaven and in the temples of the spirits of the land. And now the times are full of difficulties. We see Her Gracious Majesty's anxious toil by day and by night, never laid aside for rest or leisure, and with

troubled mind we examine ourself, taking no comfort in sleep or food, but ever dwelling in thought on the labours of our ancestors in founding the dynasty, and ever fearful lest our strength be not equal to our task. Moreover, we call to mind how, when we first succeeded to the throne, we reverently received the Empress-Dowager's Decree that as soon as a Prince should be born to us he should become the heir by adoption to the late Emperor Mu Tsung Yi (T'ung Chih). This is known to all the officials and people throughout the Empire. But we suffer from an incurable disease, and it is impossible for us to beget a son, so that the Emperor Mu Tsung Yi has no posterity, and the consequences to the lines of succession are of the utmost gravity. Sorrowfully thinking on this, and feeling that there is no place to hide ourself for shame, how can we look forward to recovery from all our ailments? We have therefore humbly implored Her Sacred Majesty carefully to select from among the near branches of our family a good and worthy member, who should found a line of posterity for the Emperor Mu Tsung Yi (T'ung Chih), and to whom the Throne should revert hereafter. After repeated entreaties, Her Majesty has now deigned to grant her consent that P'u Chün, son of Tsai Yi, Prince Tuan, should be adopted as the son of the late Emperor Mu Tsung Yi (T'ung Chih). We have received Her Majesty's Decree with unspeakable joy, and in reverent obedience to her gracious instruction we appoint P'u Chün, son of Tsai Yi, as Prince Imperial, to carry on the dynastic succession. Let this Decree be made known to all men."—*Great Britain, Parliamentary publications (Papers by command: China, No. 3, 1900, pp. 15-16)*.

1900.—Origin of the Boxers.—Missionary interference in civil affairs.—Boxer outbreak.—Massacres of foreign and native Christians.—Siege of the legations.—Rescue by Allied troops.—Suppression of the movement.—Looting.—Terms of peace.—"Chinese state papers show that a society under the name of I Ho Ch'uan had existed in China since the days of Chia Ch'ing. Like other secret societies it had existed under the ban of the law; and, like most of them it had the province of Shantung for its cradle. Its members had to undergo an initiation which was supposed to make them invulnerable. At any rate, after the required period of initiation, they were little better than madmen; and, singing incantations as they made their attacks, were absolutely regardless of danger. It was their wont to perform their experiments before admiring and credulous crowds; and when any of their number failed to make good his claims to invulnerability, the usual excuse was that the man in question had been deserted by the spirits. They indulged in dances and prostrations to evoke this divine protection; and worshipped a variety of gods of Buddhist or Taoist origin. For weapons they used knives and spears. . . . Missionaries as a body suffered more than any other class of foreigners during the Boxer trouble; but even they were not entirely free from blame. Their principal fault lay in the fact that some of them assisted Chinese in their lawsuits in order to secure new converts. This was especially true of the Catholic priests. They had official rank conferred on them by the Emperor, and were permitted to communicate with the local officials either in person or by writing. A priest would often tell the officials that the converts could have done no wrong because they were Christians, or because he had investigated the case and knew

what he was talking about. He would then dictate to them what action to take; and, in case of refusal to comply, a threat to report them to their superior officials for their failure to protect Christians from persecution usually had the desired effect. The result was that the outside people in going to law with a 'convert' often got anything but justice; and murderers, thieves, and other criminals flocked into the church. After the Boxer trouble the British minister had more than one occasion to insist that American citizens had no treaty right to deal directly with Chinese officials. These facts alone are sufficient to show that the Protestant missionaries had also indulged in this illegal and harmful practice, although to a much less extent than the Roman Catholics. China owes much to missionaries for new ideas and knowledge; she also owes much to them for the Boxer Uprising. There were 2,218 missionaries in China at the time the uprising took place."—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, pp. 600, 613.—"Throughout the year 1899 sporadic outbreaks and outrages indicated the existence of widespread disturbance in Chihli and its two neighbouring provinces, Shantung and Shansi. Some of the troubles were connected with Catholic missions, some with Protestant, and some with causes independent of either. The most careful diagnosis could not get beyond the fact that the air was full of unrest. By and by, however, salient features began to detach themselves from the confusion. It was perceived that there existed, here and there, the elements of an organisation, called in some quarters the 'Fists of Public Harmony' (*I-ho-Chuan*), in others the 'Big Sword Society' (*Ta-tao-hui*). Under either name the associates were understood to be inspired by hostility to foreigners. Many analyses of this phenomenon have been published. All, with one exception, discuss the manifestations rather than the motives. That exception is Sir Robert Hart's account. Sir Robert says that the 'Boxers'—by which name the 'Fists of Public Harmony' ultimately came to be known, and will be forever known in Occidental history—were the outcome of a conviction which had forced itself on the mind of the Chinese Government that the only economical and effective method of protecting the empire against foreign aggression was to organise volunteer associations all over the country, which, in any moment of crisis, would rise and unite their strength to beat back the tide of invasion. The idea seemed to receive immediate confirmation from without in the stand a handful of burghers were making in the Transvaal; hence the Boxer Association, patriotic in origin, justifiable in its fundamental idea, and, in point of fact, the outcome of either foreign advice or the study of foreign methods. (Here follows a recapitulation of the factors of irritation caused by the operation of the treaties; by the fruits of missionary propagandism; by the privilege which the French Government demanded and obtained for Roman Catholic priests in 1899, the privilege of adopting the equipages and paraphernalia of secular rank and receiving the treatment due to high officials; by the Kiaochow affair, and by the cessions of territory at Port Arthur, Wei-hai-wei and Kwangchow Bay.) These doings, followed by the successful stand made against the Italian demand for a port on the coast of Chekiang, helped to force the Chinese Government to see that concession had gone far enough and that opposition to foreign encroachment might now and henceforth be the key-note of its policy. Li Ping-Hêng (cashiered in obedience to Germany's de-

mand) had taken up his private residence in the southeastern corner of Chihli, close to the Shantung frontier; and the Boxer movement, already started in a tentative way in the latter province, now received an immense impetus from the occurrences alluded to, and was carefully matured and fostered by that cashiered official—more respected than ever by his countrymen. Other high officials were known to be in sympathy with the new departure and to give it their strongest approval and support, such as Hsü Tung, Kang Yi, and men of the same stamp and standing; and their advice to the throne was to try conclusions with foreigners and yield no more to their demands. However mistaken may have been their reading of foreigners, and however wrong their manner of action, these men—eminent in their own country for their learning and services—were animated by patriotism, were enraged at foreign dictation, and had the courage of their convictions. Ranged on the same side was General Tung Fuh-hsiang, with his troops, a numerous body of soldiers raised in the north-western province of Kansu, and supposed to be at once fierce fighters and radically anti-foreign; while at the head of the whole organisation stood Prince Tuan, father of the now heir apparent. It will be observed that Sir Robert Hart's account attributes the origin of the Boxers solely to anti-foreign sentiment. But Chinese observers affirm that the organisation was directed also against the reform movement which Kang Yu-wei and his enlightened associates had done so much to foster. In short, the Boxers were intended to intimidate domestic reformers as much as to check foreign aggression. But, in the sequel, they threw their whole strength into a movement for the expulsion of foreigners from Chinese soil, and upon that rock they shattered themselves. What, then, was the immediate cause of this extraordinary attempt, which virtually amounted to throwing the gauntlet in the face of the world? Only one authority has attempted to explain the mad outbreak, and that is Wen Ching, author of 'The Chinese Crisis from Within.' Briefly stated, his analysis may be summed up thus:—At the head of all anti-foreign officials stood Kang Yi, Assistant Grand Secretary, a semi-educated, superstitious Manchu, around whom the alarmed members of the Manchu clique had rallied when the thunderbolts of the reforming Emperor were beginning to strike them from the seats of power. Allied with him, but less violent and more of an opportunist, was Yung Lu, Commander-in-chief of the Manchu army. These two men, conscious that their influence demanded the support and association of a member of the Imperial clan, gradually approached Prince Tuan, who stood next to the Emperor in the order of succession to the Throne. Ultimately a plan for the deposition of the Emperor and the nomination of Prince Tuan's son, Pu Chun, to be heir apparent, received the approval of the Empress Dowager. On January 24, 1900, an edict was issued, declaring that the Emperor had requested the Empress Dowager to appoint Pu Chun as his successor. This act, being considered preliminary to the Emperor's dethronement, threw China into a convulsion of excitement. Memorials reached the Throne from all quarters protesting against the deposition of the Emperor; and since it became evident that to persist in the project would dangerously alienate the Chinese section of the nation, the Empress Dowager and Yung Lu drew back. But Prince Tuan, a violent, headstrong man, could not brook the notion that, in deference to remonstrances from the subject

race, the publicly recognised claim of his son should be even temporarily set aside. He therefore espoused the cause of the Boxers more strenuously than ever, and took into his confidence General Tung Fuh-hsiang, already spoken of. The Boxers practised various religious rites which were supposed to render them invulnerable; and Prince Tuan, a thoroughly superstitious man, believed firmly in the efficacy of these rites. The Boxers, then, would constitute an instrument for punishing all the insolent Chinese who had shown their sympathy with the reforming Emperor as well as for checking foreign aggression. At this stage Prince Tuan, to placate his offended pride, was appointed a member of the *Tsung-li Yamên*. He immediately learned that the news of his appointment had excited the strongest possible condemnation in the Foreign Legations; and he determined to let loose the Boxer inundation, directing it against these contumacious foreigners, whose insolence and aggressions had roused him and others of his countrymen to fiery anger. Of the bloody traces left by the Boxer wave as it swept through the provinces towards Peking, a terribly graphic record may be found in a volume called 'The Martyred Missionaries of the China Inland Mission, and Perils and Sufferings of Some who Survived.' That Mission alone lost 33 ladies, 25 men, and 21 children; and the number of martyrs among eleven missionary societies represented in the four provinces which were the scene of the disaster—Shansi, Chihli, Chekiang, and Shantung—totalled 188, of whom 53 were children. Of Roman Catholics there fell 35 priests and 9 nuns in Manchuria, Shansi, Mongolia, Chihli, and Hunan. As to the number of native Christians done to death, records do not exist. There is no evidence that the crime of assassination was supplemented by any of the horrors commonly perpetrated when women fall into the hands of a mob. The mercy of a speedy death was accorded. . . . On the 13th of June the Boxers entered Peking. By that time the foreign community had assembled at the Legations with the exception of some Roman Catholic priests and their native converts who had taken refuge within the Peh-tang (Northern Cathedral). In the Legations were some six hundred Europeans and Americans—more than half of them fighting men—and three thousand Chinese, the latter consisting chiefly of native converts. A mixed force, under Vice Admiral Seymour of the British Navy, left Tientsin on the 10th of June for Peking; and had it reached the city, all the subsequent trouble would have been prevented. But the force spent too much time endeavouring to restore the line of communication by repairing the railway, instead of moving on at once to the capital, and thus the opportunity was lost. The Boxers made at first no attempt to attack the Legations. They confined themselves to killing native Christians, burning churches, and destroying everything that savoured of Occidental fashions, as well as much that had no such distinction. The city was almost completely given over to pillage and rapine, for many of the soldiers co-operated with the Boxers in this work. But the Legations did not appear to be in any serious danger. One of the occupations of the inmates was marching out to rescue native Christians from Cathedrals to which the torch had been applied, or from the swords of Boxers. Had not any extraneous influence been imported into the situation, there is no valid reason to conclude that the Legations would ever have been attacked by Chinese troops; though, on the other hand, it is equally impos-

sible to affirm that the party of Prince Tuan, Kang Yi, and General Tung would not have given effect to their policy of violence in spite of the more prudent views of the Empress Dowager and Yung Lu. Up to the evening of the 17th of June, Ministers of the *Tsung-li Yamên* called personally at the Legations. But in the meanwhile the officers commanding the allied fleets off the mouth of the Peiho had arrived at the conclusion that their communications with Peking were in danger and that the Chinese garrison of the Taku Forts contemplated laying torpedoes in the river. Meeting in council under the presidency of a Russian Admiral, they decided to demand the surrender of the forts within twelve hours. Of course that meant war. There could be no other issue. For the wires having been cut by the Boxers, who tore down telegraphs, tore up railways, and burned churches with equal diligence, the officer at the forts could not consult his senior within the given time, and it was obviously out of the question that he could surrender on his own discretion. He refused; and at daybreak on the following morning (17th June) the ships took up convenient positions, bombarded the Forts and then landed a party which carried them by escalade. This singular performance astonished the world. Evidently no alternative had been left to the Chinese. If it was not intended to force a fight, the natural course would have been to make war contingent on some specific act; to declare, for example, that any attempt to lay torpedoes or any attempt to re-enforce the garrison of the Forts would be regarded as hostile. But no such choice was given. What made the thing stranger was that Tientsin, forty miles distant, was thus left for at least two days at the mercy of large forces of Chinese troops then posted in its vicinity; that Admiral Seymour's relief expedition, harassed by Boxers between Tientsin and Peking, was placed in deadly peril, and that Peking was completely isolated. So patent to onlookers were all these dangerous consequences that the officer chiefly responsible for the attack fell under suspicion of having precipitated hostilities in the selfish interests of the only country that stood to gain anything by war. News of the capture of the Taku Forts having reached Peking on the 10th of July, the *Tsung-li Yamên* sent a note to the Foreign Ministers, requesting them to leave the city within twenty-four hours, as their security could not be guaranteed any longer. It is tolerably certain that this note represented the result of a compromise between the war party and the peace party. The former had agreed to give the Ministers a chance of escaping, their neglect of it to be the signal for attack. It was an illusory chance. If Admiral Seymour with a thousand men, all combatants, had not been able to make his way from Tientsin to Peking in nine days, before war had broken out, what hope offered that three hundred and fifty marines should safely escort over three thousand non-combatants from Peking to Tientsin after hostilities had commenced?"—F. Brinkley, *China: Its history, arts and literature*, v. 12, pp. 108-207.

"In the meantime affairs in the capital were in a most critical state. The Boxers burned and looted at will, and obtained complete control of the city. On June 11th, Mr. Sugiyama, Chancellor of the Japanese Legation, was killed in a barbarous manner. On June 20th, Baron von Ketteler, the German Ambassador, while making his way to the *Tsung-li Yamên*, was shot dead in the streets. After the attack on the Taku Forts

the ultimatum already referred to had been issued for the withdrawal of the foreign ministers within twenty-four hours. The Ambassadors refused to obey this order, as they feared that they would be instantly massacred should they attempt to pass through the streets of the city. Upon their refusal, the Imperialist troops immediately joined with the Boxers in an attack on the Legations, and all the foreign residents in Peking were forced to retreat to the British, American, and adjoining Legations for safety. A constant bombardment was kept up against these legations, and the foreigners were in imminent danger of being annihilated. There seemed, however, to be divided counsel among those directing the attack, and this probably alone saved the entire foreign community from extermination. Many of the Chinese officials foresaw what would be the consequence of such an outrage. Others perhaps waited until they could see what the fate of Tientsin was to be. If the Foreign Settlement of Tientsin had been taken by the Boxers, then probably the full fury of the mobs in Peking would have been turned against the Legations, and even those officials who still wished to avert the massacre would have been unable to do so. In the desire to take the Legations by storm, numerous buildings just outside the Legation walls were successively fired for the purpose of burning out the foreigners. In this way the celebrated Hanlin Academy, with its valuable collection of Chinese books, was destroyed. The American marines, by securing a portion of the wall around the Tartar city on one side of the American Legation, rendered the position of the besieged more tenable, and the holding of this was a great advantage throughout the siege. In the beginning of August the Allied force, consisting of 15,000 men, began the advance on Peking. It was composed principally of British, Japanese, Russian, American, and German troops. The British Commander was General Gaselee, and the American, General Chaffee. On the way some opposition was encountered at Peitsang and Yang-tsun. The expedition finally reached Peking on August 14th, and the city was taken on the following day. The Emperor and Empress Dowager fled from the city as the Allies entered, and, after suffering much hardship on the way, finally established the Court at Si-nan-fu in Shansi. Thus ended one of the most remarkable sieges in history, exceeding in importance the famous sieges of Lucknow and Cawnpore. On the part of the Chinese the greatest political blunder imaginable had been committed, and China had rendered herself liable to chastisement at the hands of the whole Western world. While in the North this desperate attempt was being made to throw off the yoke of foreign aggression, a large part of China remained peaceful and took no part in the outbreak. This was effected by the viceroys of the Eastern and Southern Provinces refusing to obey the secret edict calling upon them to rise and drive out the foreigners. They realized the rashness of such an attempt, knowing that China was not strong enough to throw down the gauntlet to all the Western Powers. An agreement was made by Chang Chih-tung, the Viceroy of Honan and Hupeh, Liu K'un-i, the Viceroy of Kiangsu, Anhui, and Kiangsi, Yüan Shih-kai, the Governor of Shantung, and Li Hung-chang, the viceroy of Kuangtung and Kuangsi, with the foreign consuls of the different Western Powers, by which the former promised to preserve peace in their jurisdictions provided that the foreign troops confined their military operations to the North. This

agreement was faithfully carried out on both sides, and was the means of saving China from universal anarchy. It showed very clearly that the history of the past had not been entirely without effect, and that some of the most influential officials realized that foreign intercourse need not necessarily harm their country, but might be the means of leading her to internal reform. After the taking of Peking it was occupied by the foreign forces. The capital and the adjoining country were completely under the control of the Allied army. Peking was looted in a way that threw much discredit upon Western civilization. The Russian and French troops treated the people with cruelty and barbarity, and the German forces, inspired with the spirit of revenge for the murder of their Ambassador, went about the country dispersing bands of Boxers, and working much needless devastation. Count von Waldersee was sent out from Germany, and was recognized as Commander-in-Chief by all the forces except the American."—F. L. H. Pott, *Sketch of Chinese history*, pp. 200-203.—"An unhappy incident of the relief of the Legations was the wanton and savage destruction with which the foreign troops avenged the savagery of their foes. It is useless now to bandy reproaches among the various nationalities concerned, but it may be said that order was first restored among the Japanese, then among Americans and British. Many Chinese, perfectly innocent of complicity with Boxerdom, had occasion to rue the entrance of the foreign forces into Peking and the object lesson which it was designed to give was to a large extent spoiled. Captain Brinkley writes: 'It sends a thrill of horror through every white man's bosom to learn that forty missionary women and twenty-five little children were butchered by the Boxers. But in Tung-chow alone, a city where the Chinese made no resistance and where there was no fighting, five hundred and seventy-three Chinese women of the upper classes committed suicide rather than survive the indignities they had suffered.' After this the looting of the treasures of *Yamens* and private houses and the carrying off by the Germans of the beautiful astronomical instruments given by Louis XIV to Kang hsi seem insignificant. Our civilization of which we boast so much is still something of a veneer."—H. H. Gowen, *Outline history of China*, p. 170.—"At first there were no Chinese Officials with whom terms of peace could be discussed, but after a time Li Hung-chang came up from the South, having received the appointment of Viceroy of Chihli, and he and Prince Ching were appointed Plenipotentiaries for negotiating terms of peace. After long conferences the following peace protocol was agreed to by the Chinese Peace Plenipotentiaries and the Ministers of Peace Commissioners of the Western Powers. (1) China was to erect a monument to the memory of Baron von Kettler on the site where he was murdered, and to send an Imperial Prince to Germany to convey the Emperor's apology for the sad occurrence. (2) China was to inflict the death penalty upon eleven princes and officials named by the foreign negotiators. (3) The provincial examinations were to be suspended for five years in the places where the outrages had occurred. (4) In future all officials who failed to prevent anti-foreign outrages within their jurisdictions were to be dismissed and punished. (5) An indemnity was to be paid to the states, corporations, and individuals who had suffered from the disturbance, and the Chinese Government was to be allowed to raise the tariff on imports to an effective five per cent. (6) The

Tsung-li Yamên was to be abolished, and its functions vested in a ministry of Foreign Affairs (Wai-wu-pu) which was to take rank before the other six ministries of state. (7) Rational intercourse was to be permitted with the Emperor as in other civilized nations. (8) The forts at Taku and the other forts on the coast of Chihli were to be razed to the ground, and the importation of arms and war material was to be prohibited. (9) Permanent guards of foreign soldiers were to be maintained in the Capital, and also at various stations in order to keep open the communication between Peking and the sea. (10) For two years, Imperial proclamations were to be posted throughout the Empire ordering the suppression of Boxers. (11) The indemnity was to include compensation for Chinese who suffered for being in the employ of the foreigners, but no compensation money was to be given to the native Christians. These terms were severe, but they were far better than many of the Chinese had expected, inasmuch as the integrity of China was preserved, and no further demands were made for portions of her territory. Most of the terms of the peace protocol have already been carried out. Prince Chun has accomplished a mission of apology to Germany, and the amount of the indemnity to be paid has been settled. China has to pay the large sum of 450 million taels, to be paid off in annual installments extending over 40 years."—F. L. H. Pott, *Sketch of Chinese history*, pp. 203-204.—See also **BOXER RISING AND THE "OPEN DOOR."**

ALSO IN: W. A. P. Martin, *Siege of Peking*.—A. H. Smith, *China in convulsion*.

1900-1908.—Awakening of China.—Rise of the reform movement.—"The Boxer Rebellion was the last protest of China against the inevitable, and, in the completeness of its failure, was the final lesson necessary in that series of international events ever since 1840 to teach China that, however excellent her civilization may be in some respects, it was inadequate when judged by the spirit and achievements of the XXth century. Through the agency of unparalleled national disasters, it was finally brought home to the intelligent classes and in a lesser degree to the entire people that, successfully to withstand European aggression, it was necessary to have recourse to Europe's ways, to adopt in the new scheme of things whatever heretofore had been lacking, whether for good or for evil. The awakening did not come all at once. For the ensuing two or three years China remained crushed by the succession of humiliations heaped upon her since 1895. It even fell to other nations, notably Japan, to save China from Russian ambitions, the result of which was the Russo-Japanese war, fought equally in Chinese interests, on Chinese territory, and with the violation of Chinese integrity and neutrality. This momentous conflict, in which an Oriental race triumphed over one of the greatest of European Powers, besides changing the course of history in the Far East, left an indelible impression upon the Chinese national consciousness, and from then on the awakening of China began in a truly nationalized form."—P. H. Clements, *Boxer rebellion*, pp. 204-205.—"As a result of these lessons the walls of Chinese conservatism broke down in rapid succession and the country entered feverishly on a campaign of reform. China at last was awake to the new age and attempted to fit herself to enter it by changes which startled the world. The empress dowager saw that unless the Manchus could place themselves at the head of the movement they would be swept aside. She received foreigners at court and endeavored to establish more cordial relations

with them. The building of railways was encouraged and no special hindrance was placed in the way of granting concessions to foreign capital. The new education was aided. . . . A post office had been started under the direction of the maritime customs service and now grew apace. Telegraph lines were built by the government to connect all the principal cities. By the end of 1908, two thousand five hundred miles of railway were open in China proper and one thousand seven hundred more were under construction. . . . Modern cotton mills and match factories were started, and new coal, iron and antimony mines



LI HUNG-CHANG (1823-1901)

Famous Chinese statesman

were opened. Chinese organized companies after Western methods to handle these and other enterprises. Attempts were made to stamp out foot-binding and to eradicate opium smoking. . . . Foreign commerce grew. . . . An attempt was made to introduce uniform coinage and to end the monetary chaos of the empire. There was a remarkable growth in national feeling. The Chinese had a racial coherence but they lacked national consciousness. Now the disgrace of China's helpless condition began to be keenly felt."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 201-204.

1900-1906.—Progressive tariff and internal taxation measures to check the consumption of opium. See **OPIUM PROBLEM: 1900-1906.**

1901-1902.—Russian grip on Manchuria.—Coercive negotiations with China.—Protests from other powers.—Manchurian treaty of 1902

and its impotence.—Early in December, 1901, the American minister to China, Edwin H. Conger, reported to Secretary Hay, at Washington, an impending treaty which Russia seemed likely to force on the Chinese government, which would practically secure to that aggressive power, through a prolonged agreement of China with the Russo-Chinese bank, exclusive railway and mining concessions in Manchuria, and which would protract the Russian evacuation of that country through three years. England and Japan were using all their influence at Peking to prevent the signing of the treaty, and Hay entered a vigorous protest on the part of the government of the United States, “animated now, as heretofore, by the sincere desire to insure to the whole world full and fair intercourse with China on equal footing.” The pressure from Russia on China was so potent, however, that Conger, on January 20, 1902, reported to Hay that Prince Ch'ing, who acted with authority from his government in the negotiation with Russia, had informed him “that the latter has done the best he could and has held out as long as possible, but that Russian possession of Manchuria has become intolerable, and that China must at once sign the convention or lose everything; that he has therefore agreed to sign the convention [modified in some particulars] and will also sign the separate agreement with the Russo-Chinese Bank, which practically gives exclusive privileges of industrial development in Manchuria.” Nevertheless the consummation of the Russian project of coercive diplomacy was delayed until April 8, and the terms of the treaty then signed were considerably moderated from the original design.—*Papers relating to the foreign relations of the United States, 1902, pp. 271-281.*—See also MANCHURIA: 1900-1901.—During the next two years Russia was accused from all sides of infidelity to the engagements of this treaty, and her conduct, which seemed especially menacing to Japan, gave rise to the Russo-Japanese War. See JAPAN: 1901-1904.

ALSO IN: A. S. Hershey, *International law and diplomacy of the Russo-Japanese War, pp. 1-61.*

1901-1904.—Railway development by foreign powers. See RAILROADS: 1876-1921.

1901-1908.—Settlement of the indemnity to be paid to fourteen powers on account of the Boxer rising.—Remission of part by the United States.—In April, 1901, the Chinese government had promised satisfaction and indemnity to the fourteen powers whose subjects had suffered from the barbarous attack and whose forces had overcome it, and the measure of indemnity to be paid was then being discussed. The discussion and the reckonings involved were prolonged till September. The final protocol was signed September 7, but it was not until the 30th of that month that the formulated claims of the powers concerned were accepted by China, and the responsibility of payment assumed by an imperial decree. The total was 450,000,000 taels, equivalent to \$334,000,000, divided between Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Netherlands, Portugal, Russia, Spain, Sweden, and the United States. The sum was not reckoned solely for the covering of losses and expenses, consequent on the Boxer outrages, but was intended to be, in some degree, a penalty imposed on the Chinese nation; and some of the claimant nations were said to be more exacting on this score than others were. The amount for which the United States stipulated was \$24,440,000, and the American government received an indemnity bond for that sum. But when the

expenses of the American relief expedition had been accurately ascertained, and all losses and destruction of property belonging to American claimants had been settled, it was found that they would be largely overpaid. It was possible, according to common practice in international dealings, to regard the excess as justly punitive; but a different view was dictated by the wish to show friendliness to China, and a return of the overpayment was proposed. Recommended by President Roosevelt, the necessary sanction was given by Congress, and on July 11, 1908, the American minister to China addressed the following communication to the prince of Ch'ing, president of the *wai-wu-pu*, or board of foreign affairs, at Peking:

“YOUR HIGHNESS:

“It is with great satisfaction that I have the honor to inform your Highness, under direction of the Secretary of State of the United States, that a bill has passed the Congress of the United States authorizing the President to modify the indemnity bond given the United States by China under the provisions of Article VI. of the final protocol of September 7, 1901, from twenty-four million, four hundred and forty thousand dollars (\$24,440,000), United States gold currency, to thirteen million, six hundred and fifty-five thousand, four hundred and ninety-two dollars and twenty-nine cents (\$13,655,492.29), with interest at four per cent (4%) per annum. Of this amount two million dollars (\$2,000,000) are held pending the result of hearings on private claims presented to the Court of Claims of the United States within one year. Any balance remaining after such adjudication is also to be returned to the Chinese Government, in such manner as the Secretary of State shall decide.

“The President is further authorized under the Bill to remit to China the remainder of the indemnity as an act of friendship, such payments and remissions to be made at such times and in such a manner as he may deem just.

“I am also directed by the Secretary of State to request the Imperial Government kindly to favor him with its views as to the time and manner of the remissions.

“Trusting that your Imperial Highness will favor me with an early reply to communicate to my Government, I avail myself of this occasion to renew to your Highness the assurance of my highest consideration—W. W. ROCKHILL.”

In his reply, after reciting the statements conveyed to him by Mr. Rockhill, the prince wrote (as translated) the following:

“On reading this despatch I was profoundly impressed with the justice and great friendliness of the American government, and wish to express our sincerest thanks.

“Concerning the time and manner of the return of the amounts to be remitted to China, the Imperial Government has no wishes to express in the matter. It relies implicitly on the friendly intentions of the United States Government, and is convinced that it will adopt such measures as are best calculated to attain the end it has in view.

“The Imperial Government, wishing to give expression to the high value it places on the friendship of the United States, finds in its present action a favorable opportunity for doing so. Mindful of the desire recently expressed by the President of the United States to promote the

coming of Chinese students to the United States to take courses in the schools and higher educational institutions of the country, and convinced by the happy results of past experience of the great value to China of education in American schools, the Imperial Government has the honor to state that it is its intention to send henceforth yearly to the United States a considerable number of students there to receive their education. The Board of Foreign Affairs will confer with the American Minister in Peking concerning the elaboration of plans for the carrying out of the intention of the Imperial Government.

"A necessary despatch.

"SEAL OF THE WAI-WU-PU."

Simultaneously with the note from Prince Ch'ing, the *wai-wu-pu* as a body addressed the following to Mr. Rockbill:

"To his Excellency W. W. Rockhill, American Minister, Peking:

"Referring to the despatch just sent to your Excellency regarding sending students to America, it has now been determined that from the year when the return of the indemnity begins, one hundred students shall be sent to America every year for four years, so that four hundred students may be in America by the fourth year. From the fifth year and throughout the period of the indemnity payments a minimum of fifty students will be sent each year.

"As the number of students will be very great, there will be difficulty in making suitable arrangements for them. Therefore, in the matter of choosing them, as well as in the matters of providing suitable homes for them in America and selecting the schools which they are to enter, we hope to have your advice and assistance. The details of our scheme will have to be elaborated later, but we take this occasion to state the general features of our plan, and ask you to inform the American Government of it. We sincerely hope that the American Government will render us assistance in the matter.

"Wishing you all prosperity,

(Signed)

"PRINCE OF CH'ING, YUAN-SHIH-K'AI,
"NA-TUNG LIEN-FANG
"LIANG-TUN-YEN."

The remission of somewhat more than \$10,000,000 of the indemnity did not involve a repayment of that sum of money to the Chinese government, for the reason that payments on the original indemnity bond were to be in annual instalments, running until 1940, certain revenues being pledged to secure them. The remission is effected, accordingly, by a readjustment of those payments hereafter.

A special ambassador from China, bearing a letter of thanks from the emperor, presented it to the president on December 2, 1908.

1902.—Return to Peking of the emperor, empress-dowager, and court.—Receptions to foreign representatives.—Withdrawals of foreign troops.—Recurrence of Boxer outbreaks.—The emperor, empress-dowager, and their suite re-entered Peking on January 7, 1902. On the 22d the foreign representatives were admitted to audience with the emperor; on the 28th the emperor and empress-dowager, together, gave a reception to the diplomatic body, the empress-dowager being throned on a higher seat than the emperor; on February 1, the empress-dowager entertained the ladies of the foreign legations at a banquet,

where presents of jewelry were made to all the guests. Sorrow for the misdoings from which the foreigners in China had suffered was expressed on all these occasions, and there seemed to be an earnest desire to make amends for them. Foreign troops were withdrawn from Tien-tsin on August 15, 1902, and the city delivered to the Chinese viceroy. Many improvements in streets, bridges, and public grounds had been made by the provisional government which the allies instituted in 1900. Shanghai was evacuated by the allied forces at the end of the year 1902. Some recurrence of Boxer movements and insurrections occurred in different parts of the empire during 1902. Several missionaries and a number of native converts were murdered, chapels were burned, and other outrages committed; but in general there was a restoration of order in the country, and considerable building of railways and forwarding of other enterprises went on.

1902.—Russo-Chinese treaty concerning Tibet. See TIBET: 1902.

1902 (January).—Agreement respecting China between Great Britain and Japan. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1903 (May-October).—Treaty with the United States.—Opening of two ports in Manchuria.—Rights and privileges enlarged.—"In the protocol of September 7, 1901, [see above 1901-1908] China had agreed to extend the scope of her commercial treaties with the powers. When the negotiation of a new treaty was begun by Consul-General Goodnow at Shanghai, the United States demanded that at least two new ports in Manchuria be opened to foreign trade and residence. The Chinese commissioners declined to discuss this subject, on the alleged ground that they had no instructions to do so. It was evident that there was secret opposition somewhere, and on May 7, 1903, Mr. Conger reported that it came from the Russian *chargé d'affaires*. Later he secured a written acknowledgment from the Chinese government that such was the case.

Mr. Hay then appealed with the utmost directness to the Russian government. . . . On July 14 a definite answer was at length received from Russia, in which she declared that it had never entered into her views to oppose the opening of certain cities in Manchuria to foreign commerce, but that this declaration did not apply to Harbin, one of the cities selected by the United States, which was situated within the railway zone, and therefore was not under the complete jurisdiction of China. A copy of this note was shown to the Chinese government; which finally agreed to insert in the treaty on October 8 (the date on which Russia had agreed to completely withdraw from Manchuria) a provision for the opening of two ports. The United States agreed to this arrangement, and on October 8 the treaty was signed, and Mukden and Antung named as the open ports."—J. H. Latané, *America as a world power*, ch. 6.—The further scope of the treaty was announced by President Roosevelt in his message to Congress, Dec. 7, 1903, as follows: "It provides not only for the ordinary rights and privileges of diplomatic and consular officers, but also for an important extension of our commerce by increased facility of access to Chinese ports, and for the relief of trade by the removal of some of the obstacles which have embarrassed it in the past. The Chinese Government engages, on fair and equitable conditions, which will probably be accepted by the principal commercial nations, to abandon the levy of 'liken' and other transit dues throughout the Empire, and to introduce other

desirable administrative reforms. Larger facilities are to be given to our citizens who desire to carry on mining enterprises in China. We have secured for our missionaries a valuable privilege, the recognition of their right to rent and lease in perpetuity such property as their religious societies may need in all parts of the Empire."

1903-1904.—Relations with England in Tibet. See TIBET: 1902-1904.

1903-1911.—Educational advance. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: China; LIBRARIES: Modern: China.

1904.—Russo-Japanese War in Manchuria. See JAPAN: 1902-1905.

1904-1909.—Hankau Sze-chuen railway loan.—Question of American participation.—In 1904 the American minister at Peking concluded an agreement with the Chinese government to the effect that, when loans for the construction of a projected railway into the western province of Sze-chuen, from Hankau, should be negotiated, Americans should have an opportunity to subscribe to it. Nearly five years passed before arrangements for the loan were made, and then, in the spring of 1909, it was found that terms had been concluded with a group of British, German, and French bankers for the whole sum sought, of \$27,500,000, while American capitalists had not been given the promised opportunity. On behalf of the latter the government of the United States intervened, claiming fulfilment of the agreement of 1904. The matter was regarded as being both politically and financially important. "A precedent is what we want to establish," said Charles R. Crane, the newly appointed minister to China, in an interview on the subject at New York. "The task of this Government to maintain its position with the European Powers in the East will be less difficult. We are looking twenty years ahead." As the result of communications in July from Washington to Peking, in which President Taft took part personally, the loan arrangement was readjusted, and American capitalists became participant in it to the extent of one-fourth. According to a despatch from Peking, August 17, the matter was settled definitely that day, on the following terms: "The loan to be increased from \$27,500,000 to \$30,000,000, and of this latter amount American bankers to get one-quarter, the other three-quarters going to British, French, and German interests. Americans are to have equal opportunity with the other nations to supply material for both the Sze-chuen and the Canton lines and the branches; they will appoint subordinate engineers, and they will have also one-half of all future loans of the Sze-chuen Railroad and its branches with the corresponding advantages." Subsequently, however, some difficulty in the readjustment of business details in the matter arose, which delayed the final settlement.

1905.—Interests of Japan and England. See JAPAN: 1905-1914.

1905.—Railway opening, from Peking south. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921.

1905.—Boycott of American goods.—"The best evidence of the birth of national feeling in China was the movement set on foot in 1905 to buy no American goods. This boycott was instituted to express their disapproval of the treatment they had been receiving from America. For years America had tried to exclude Chinese on the ground that Chinese laborers were robbing the white laborers of their bread. In legislation, and by unauthorized acts of their custom officers, the American had dealt harshly with Chinese laborers as well as other classes, and since their acquisition

of the Philippine Islands this policy had been extended to them. The Chinese in America were mostly from Canton, while those in the Philippine Islands were chiefly from Fukien; but the centre of the boycott was Shanghai. The day when Chinese of one province looked upon those of another with indifference was now past. A nation must rise or fall together, and the Chinese were beginning to realize this truth. The boycott gradually extended to other ports, although in the North, owing to the strong attitude of Yüan Shih k'ai, Viceroy of Chihli, it was less severe than in the South. It worked such havoc to American trade that it produced a feeling in the United States in favor of less objectionable laws. President Taft, then Secretary of War, visited China towards the end of the year. Unfortunately Chinese merchants also suffered considerably on account of the boycott; and the whole movement soon died out. The boycott is not a Chinese institution, but its use in this country is evidence of how rapidly the Chinese can adopt foreign ideas."—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, p. 617.

1905 (December).—Treaty with Japan relative to Manchuria.—By a treaty with Japan, concluded December, 1905, China consented to lease to Japan the Kwangtung peninsula, at the southern extremity of which are Port Arthur and Dalny, formerly held by Russia under lease from China, and concede to Japan the control of the railway on the peninsula northward as far as Changchün. China also conceded to Japan the right to build a railway from Antung on the Yalu river to Mukden, the ancient capital of Manchuria, provided, however, that at the end of a certain period the road may be purchased by China. More important is the fact that China agreed in the treaty to open to the world's commerce and trade sixteen principal ports and cities in Manchuria, including Harbin, or Kharbin, the modern Russian capital of the province and its most important railway center.

1905-1908.—Japanese interests in Manchuria.—Dispute of the powers.—Root-Takahira agreement between the United States and Japan (1908). See MANCHURIA: 1905-1908; U. S. A.: 1907-1917.

1905-1908.—Stir of new ideas.—Imperial commission to study representative systems of government.—Signs of fruit from it.—Reformatory movements.—Constitutional program set forth in August, 1908.—Nine years of approach to a promised constitution.—A significant token of the dawning in China of a changed state of mind respecting the western world of Europe and America, and its very different development of scientific knowledge and of social institutions, was afforded in the fall of 1905, when an imperial commission, headed by Prince Tsai Tse, was sent abroad to study representative systems of government. The commission returned in the following July, and in August a committee of high dignitaries, with Prince Ch'ing for its chairman, was appointed to consider the report it had submitted on administrative reforms. The outcome, soon afterwards, was an imperial edict which recognized a "lack of confidence between the highest and the lowest, between the throne and ministers and the masses," and went so far as to say that "foreign countries become wealthy and powerful by granting a constitution to the masses and allowing suffrage to all." While intimating that China must look forward to a similar admission of the masses to some voice in the government, the edict set forth the prior need of many reforms, in

the official system, in the laws, in education, in the finances, and in the army and police. To begin the undertaking of such reforms, Prince Tsai Tse was put at the head of a committee for dealing with the official system, and before the year closed there were several changes of importance introduced, tending towards more simplicity of methods in public business and more centering of responsibilities. Examinations in Western subjects of knowledge began to replace the old conventional examinations in classic Chinese literature, as tests for admission and promotion in official service, and eagerness was shown in the opening of schools and colleges that approached the European and American type. Simultaneously with these stirrings of a new consciousness and purpose in China, a great moral reform was taken in hand. This was no less than an attempt to rescue the nation from its opium curse. Some account of the opium edict issued in September, 1906, will be found elsewhere (see *OPIMUM PROBLEM: 1906*). That these reformative steps were actually taken with a view to the ultimate granting of "a constitution to the masses and allowing suffrage to all" was proved in the summer of 1908, when a program of gradual approach to constitutional government, by stages which extend through the next nine years, was promulgated at Peking on August 27.

1905-1909.—Disputes with Japan.—*Fa-ku-menn railway and the Antung-Mukden railway questions.*—Settlement of the latter by Japanese ultimatum.—It could hardly have been possible for cordially friendly relations to be maintained between China and Japan, in the circumstances which transferred to the latter the extensive rights and privileges in Southern Manchuria, which Russia had acquired in that Chinese province by treaty and lease. By a protocol of December, 1905, after the closing of the Russo-Japanese War, there was an attempt, between Peking and Tokyo, to define the effects of the treaty of Portsmouth, especially in the bearings of that article of the treaty which ceded to Japan, "with the consent of the Government of China, the lease of Port Arthur, of Talien, and of the adjacent territories and territorial waters, as well as the rights, privileges and concessions connected with this lease or forming part thereof," and likewise, of "all the public works and property within the territory over which the above lease extends"; but misunderstandings and differences of opinion were sure to arise. The main contention has related to the projected extension by China of a railway to *Fa-kun-menn* from the terminus of an existing line at *Hsin-min-tun*, west of *Mukden*. It was in the agreement of December, 1905, that no railways in competition with the South Manchurian line, which Japan took from Russia, should be built. The Japanese assert that they had in view this very *Fa-ku-menn* extension when that stipulation was inserted. The Chinese declare that the negotiation on their part had reference solely to the area east of the *Liao* river. Japan made two alternative proposals for the settlement of this question: "One that the Chinese should build a railway from *Fa-ku-menn* to the South Manchurian Railway instead of to *Hsin-min-tun*, or that the Japanese should build a railway from the South Manchurian line to *Fa-ku-menn* and thence to the North, in which case Japan would withdraw her objection to the *Fa-ku-menn-Hsin-min-tun* railway, provided that China undertook not to extend the line beyond *Fa-ku-menn* without a previous agreement with Japan." China is said to have declined discussion of these proposals, but

offered arbitration of the whole matter. Japan objected to arbitration without previous discussion of her new proposals. And so the dispute seemed deadlocked.

Another dispute turned on the interpretation of a clause in the agreement of December, 1905, which reads: "China agrees that Japan has the right to improve the Antung-Mukden Railway so as to make it fit for the conveyance of commercial and industrial goods of all nations." Japan undertook, as a necessary "improvement" of the road, to reconstruct it, with a change of gauge to connect it with the standard gauge of the South Manchuria and Korean roads. China denied that the agreement gave a right to reconstruction. At length on August 6, 1909, Japan brought discussion of the Antung-Mukden railway question to a summary ending, by a note to the Chinese government which announced that "the Imperial Government is now compelled to take independent action, and to proceed to carry out the necessary work of reconstruction and improvement according to treaty rights." Before taking this decisive step, the Japanese government is said to have consulted Great Britain and other powers, and to have had approval of her action from London, if not from elsewhere. China yielded to the ultimatum, and this leading cause of quarrel between the great nations of the East was removed on September 4 by the signing, at *Mukden*, of a memorandum of agreement, reported in substance as follows: China agrees, first, not to construct the *Hsin-min-tun-Fa-ku-menn* railroad without consulting Japan; second, that half the capital required to extend the *Kirin* railroad shall be borrowed in Japan; third, that Japan will be permitted to extend the *Yinkow* and improve and modernize the *Antung-Mukden* railroads, to which China was bitterly opposed; fourth, that Japan may work the mines in the *Fushun* and *Yentai* districts, and have joint exploitation of the mines reached by the *Antung* and *Manchurian* railroad lines. In the *Chientao* boundary dispute Japan agrees to recognize China's sovereignty, while China agrees to open four trade marts in the district.

1906.—Commission sent to America and Europe for the study of political and other institutions.—The new spirit beginning to stir in China was manifested in the early months of 1906 by the sending of a large commission of carefully chosen men to the United States and Europe, for observations that would be helpful toward reforms in their own country. It was headed by two high commissioners of distinction, *Tai Hung-chi* and *Tuan Fang*, and they were attended by thirty-five scholars and functionaries of note. They received much attention during their stay of five weeks in the United States, and were placed by the government under the special charge of Prof. J. W. Jenks. Writing subsequently of their mission Professor Jenks said: "The purpose of the commission is, primarily, to make such a study of the political institutions of the various countries visited that they will be able, on their return, to offer valuable suggestions for the improvement of their own. There is even serious talk among the high officials in China of some form of a constitution. In consequence, the commissioners are as eager to learn regarding the working of some of our institutions as regarding their form of organization. Inasmuch as political reform necessarily involves social reform, even as a condition precedent, the commission is devoting special attention to the study of education, in universities and schools, and to methods of social amelioration, in



TZE-HSI, DOWAGER EMPRESS OF CHINA

(Painted by Catherine Augusta Carl)

prisons and asylums for the insane and the poor. They, however, are not neglecting the study of our large manufacturing plants, and have clearly in mind, also, the improvement of the industrial conditions of China. It is a matter of peculiar interest that the Empress-Dowager charged them to inquire especially into the education of girls in the United States, since she hoped, on their return, to be able to found a school for the education of the daughters of the princes."

1906.—Sixty cities opened to foreign settlement.—A memorandum on the subject of the foreign settlements at the open ports of China, prepared by the Chinese secretary of the American legation at Peking, was transmitted to the state department at Washington in December, 1906. It conveyed the following information: "In China proper and in Manchuria 46 cities and towns have been thrown open already to foreign residence and international trade. This does not include Dalny, in Manchuria, leased to Japan; Wei-hai-wei, in Shantung, leased to Great Britain; Kiaochow, in Shantung, leased to Germany; Kowloon, in Kuangtung, leased to Great Britain; nor Kuang-chou-wan, in Kuangtung, leased to France. Besides the above, there are 3 cities in Tibet thrown open to trade, making 49 ports in the Empire. In addition to these already declared open, there are 13 cities whose opening in the immediate future is arranged for, and 3 others whose opening depends upon the acceptance by other treaty powers of the provisions of Article VIII. of the last commercial treaty between China and Great Britain. No account is taken of the cities of Turkestan, Mongolia, and the Amur region, in which Russian subjects have for many years enjoyed privileges of trade and consular jurisdiction. It will be seen, therefore, that in the immediate future foreigners will enjoy the right of residence for purposes of trade at more than 60 cities of the Chinese Empire."

1906.—Edict against the use of opium. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1906.

1906-1907.—Flood and famine in the region traversed by the Grand Canal.—One of the frequent destructive floods in China which produce famine befell the region that is traversed by the grand canal in the summer of 1906. Heavy rains covered its vast plains with lakes of water, which drowned out the crops throughout an area estimated at 40,000 square miles. From ten to fifteen millions of people were reduced to famine, and could only be kept alive until the harvests of another year by the generosity of the outside world. It was not vainly appealed to; but the suffering and death in the afflicted country were appallingly great.

1906-1907.—Christian missions. See MISSIONS: CHINA.

1907.—Treaty with Russia and England concerning Tibet. See ANGLO-RUSSIAN AGREEMENT OF 1907.

1907.—Second Hague conference. See HAGUE CONFERENCES: 1907.

1907-1909.—Restriction on Chinese immigration to Canada.—Labor hostility.—Riotous attacks.—Modified regulations. See RACE PROBLEMS: 1880-1906.

1908 (November).—Death of the emperor, Kuang-hsu, and of the empress-dowager, Tze-Hsi.—Accession of the child-emperor, Hsuan-Tung (Pu-Yi).—The circumstances of the death, almost simultaneously, of the late emperor, Kuang-hsu, and of the dowager-empress, Tze-Hsi, who had been the real ruler of the empire, are involved in considerable obscurity. The em-

peror is said to have died on November 14, 1908, and the empress on the following day. The announcement of their decease was preceded by the publication of two imperial edicts, one of which made Prince Chun, of the royal family, regent of the empire, while the other named Pu-Yi, the prince's son, three years old, as the heir presumptive to the throne. As communicated later to foreign governments, the regent was given, by another imperial rescript, full power over the civil and military departments of government, and the entire appointment and dismissal of officials. The promised creation of a parliament was anticipated in the prescription of his duties, among which were the following:

"When a Parliament has been established the Prince Regent shall attend the same in place of the Emperor, but he need not attend the ordinary sessions. When the Constitutional Commission meets, the Prince Regent shall likewise represent the Emperor there.

"The Prince Regent shall have full authority in negotiating treaties and in appointing representatives abroad.

"The Prince Regent shall enter and leave his chair at the Ch'ien Ch'ing gate. The yamens, according to their duty, shall draw up and report on regulations modelled on the precedent established by Prince Jui-Chung regarding the equipage, escort, and general preparations for movements of the Prince Regent outside the palace.

"Every year the Board of Finance shall transfer to the Department of the Imperial Household the sum of taels 150,000 for disbursement. When the Emperor comes of age, his studies being completed, and his marriage takes place, the official body shall unite in asking him to assume personal direction of the government."

On November 21 the members of the diplomatic corps at Peking were received in a body at the palace, to present the condolences of the governments they represented on the deaths of the emperor and empress. On December 2 the strict mourning observed at Peking was suspended briefly, to permit the ceremonies attending the ascension of the dragon throne by the child-emperor, Pu-Yi, who, as emperor, took the name of Hsuan-Tung.

1908 (December).—Decree reaffirming the constitutional program of the late empress-dowager.—An imperial edict reaffirming the determination of the new government of China to carry out in its entirety the constitutional program laid down by the late empress-dowager of China in August, 1908, was promulgated on December 4.

1909.—Progress in the opium reform.—International opium commission. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1900; 1909 (February).

1909 (January).—Abrupt dismissal of Viceroy Yuan Shih-kai from his offices.—Much disturbance of feeling and apprehension of a troublesome reaction in Chinese policy was excited among the foreign representatives in China, on January 2, 1909, by the sudden dismissal of the able and powerful viceroy of Chih-li, Yuan Shih-kai, from all his offices. Yuan Shih-kai left Peking in haste, evidently in fear of his life, and it was expected that his whole following of friends and supporters would be swept out of their offices and employments. But no such result followed, and credit began to be given to the assurances of the imperial government that the dismissal of Yuan meant no reversal of policy or reaction whatever. He was distrusted, it was intimated, because he had been disloyal to the late emperor in 1893, when the latter attempted great reforms.

1909 (October).—Death of Chang Chih-Tung.—Chang Chih-Tung, grand counselor of the empire of China, died on October 4, 1909, and Tai Hung-tze, president of the board of justice, was appointed his successor in office.

1909 (October–November).—Election and opening of provincial assemblies.—Beginnings of the institution of constitutional and representative government.—The following, from the Peking reports to *The Times*, London, narrates the actual beginning of the series of proceedings planned and promised for the gradual institution of representative constitutional government. The first is of the date of October 14, 1909:

"To-day marks an era in the establishment of constitutional government in China. In obedience to the Imperial decrees of October 10, 1907, and of July 22, 1908, ordering the establishment, within one year of the latter date, in each of the 22 provinces of China proper and in Manchuria and the New Dominion of provincial deliberative assemblies, elections have been in progress for some time past, and the assemblies meet in accordance with the regulations for the first time to-day, the first day of the ninth moon. . . .

"The elections have taken place according to the regulations, and halls have been erected for the assemblies to sit wherever a Viceroy or a Governor has his seat. The number of members varies from 140 in Chih-li, 114 in Che-kiang, to 30 each in Kirin, Leblun-chiang, and Hsin-kiang. The incomplete returns which have been published show nearly 1,000 voters for each representative.

"For weeks past reports have been coming in from provincial authorities asking for instructions and information concerning this new departure. An edict issued last night renews the Imperial admonitions to members of the assemblies as to their deliberations, and to Viceroys and Governors as to their supervision of the deliberations, and exhorts all to display a loyal patriotism so that the country may attain strength and prosperity. The event may be one of great historical importance."

The next was sent from Peking on the following November 6:

"Already, in the opening debates of these Provincial Assemblies, one apprehends the coming chaos, one hears the first whispering of the approaching storm.

"The spirit which animates these Assemblies is evidently very similar to that which speaks through the vernacular Press; iconoclastic, patriotic—in the sense that it denounces everything foreign—but lacking, so far, in intelligent leadership and constructive policy. Their attitude towards the Central Government is generally one of scarcely veiled contempt. I cannot illustrate better its general tendency than in the words of a native journalist who, in a recent criticism of the Grand Council, congratulated these rulers of China on their remarkable longevity, but observed that 'there is little hope of longevity for an Empire that is governed by such incompetent survivals.'"

A few weeks later, after the forty days' session of the new Provincial Assemblies had ended, this writer had changed his view. Writing on the 22d of December, he said: "A study of the reports of the proceedings so far available of the first session of the Provincial Assemblies supports the contention that the Throne has been justified in granting the subjects of the Empire a limited right of speech through their chosen representatives. The programmes of debate have been strictly in accordance with the Imperial edict, and the proceedings have been marked with dignity and de-

corum. The net result justifies the declaration made by a high authority, who has been given special opportunity of forming a judgment, that the 'members have fulfilled their appointed task of working in harmony with the executive authorities in the interests of their respective provinces.'"

1910-1914.—Power in Tibet. See TIBET: 1910-1914.

1911.—Anglo-Japanese alliance for rights in China. See WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: b.

1911.—Discussion of consortium for financial aid by six powers. See RAILROADS: 1905-1921; U. S. A.: 1907-1917.

1911.—Secession of Mongolia. See MONGOLIA: Country and the people.

1911 (April–December).—Sun Yat-sen and the revolutionary movement.—Outbreak of anti-dynastic revolution.—Yuan Shi-kai's diplomacy.—Collapse of the Manchu government.—When the empress-dowager died in 1908, the Manchus lost their last great leader, and were themselves eventually swept aside by the reform movement which she had partially espoused. For some time a republican movement had been agitated, largely by the Cantonese and by Chinese abroad, and, despite the fact that the beginnings of representative government had been established, the spirit of unrest grew apace, until by the spring of 1911 it had assumed alarming proportions. The foremost leader of the extreme wing of the reform party was Sun Yat-sen. "Kuangtung, the province that once gave to China a great rebel leader in the person of Hung Hsiu-ch'uan, has since produced a great revolutionist. The man is Sun Wên, better known to the people outside of China as Dr. Sun Yat-sen. In his younger days Dr. Sun attended a missionary school in Hongkong, where he prepared himself for the medical profession under a certain Dr. Cantlie, an Englishman. After graduation, he practiced medicine for a short time at both Macao and Hongkong. He then gave up his professional labours, in order to take up revolutionary work. At an early age Dr. Sun was convinced that China must be reformed. With this end in view he organized at Canton the Hsing Chung Hui, or a Society for the Uplifting of China. He soon saw that under the Manchus no reform was possible, and did not hesitate to start a revolution, but it failed and many heads fell at the stroke of the executioner's axe. That was in 1895. To save his head, the young doctor had to flee. During the next fourteen or fifteen years, Dr. Sun travelled extensively, visiting all the Chinese centres around the world and always preaching revolution. The cause of revolution never looked so bright as when China sent one party of students after another to Japan. As a rule these students, after having come into contact with Dr. Sun in Japan, returned to China imbued with revolutionary ideas; and were watching quietly to carry out their avowed purpose. In Japan Dr. Sun also met Huang Hsing and many other influential members of the various Chinese secret societies. As a result of these meetings, the great Revolutionary League, or Tungmenghui, came into being. The Tungmenghui established newspapers to arouse the Chinese against the Manchus. While emissaries were busy in China working among the soldiery of the various provinces, others went from one Chinese colony to another, soliciting financial support. Thus was the revolutionary movement set on foot. . . . Betrayals, disappointments, cruel deaths, wholesale massacres,—these only tended to stimulate the patriots to renewed efforts. [In 1911 bitter opposition was aroused in the provinces when the Imperial government (Manchu

regency for the infant Hsuang-Tung) attempted to take over many of the provincially owned railroads and to complete them by means of foreign loans.] . . . On April 8th the Tartar General, Fu Ch'i, commanding the Manchu garrison of Canton, was assassinated. On the 27th of the same month a party of revolutionists attempted to destroy the Viceroy's Yamen with bombs; but this enterprise was ill-timed. The authorities in fact had information as to what was coming and were not at all unprepared for the emergency. The result was most pathetic. Scores of China's most promising sons were arrested and mercilessly executed. The Viceroy, Chang Ming-ch'i, was heartily commended by the Peking Government for his alertness and success in unearthing a revolutionary plot and in vanquishing his foes. The Government evidently thought that the cruelty of the Viceroy had dealt a severe blow to the movement; but nothing was farther from the truth. The revolutionists were temporarily suppressed; but they were not discouraged. They merely turned their attention from Canton to the Yangtze Valley."—Li Ung Bing, *Outlines of Chinese history*, pp. 632-634.—The key position of the central Yangtze valley is held by the great commercial city of Hankow. Here at Wuchang, directly opposite Hankow, the radical reformers commanded by General Li Yuan Hung took advantage of the ill-feeling existing against the central government and led a successful rebellion in the fall of 1911. "In the first place, it is to be observed that, even amongst Sun Yat-sen's advanced vanguard of Cantonese reformers, there had never been any generally declared intention of replacing the Manchus by a Republic until some five weeks after the outbreak of the successful (but evidently accidental) revolutionary movement at Wuchang in October [11], 1911. In 1895 when the 'Young China' party was definitely organised at Canton, its object was the establishment of Constitutional Government on lines similar to those of K'ang Yu-wei's reform movement of 1898. When, coincident with the outbreak of the rebellion at Wuchang, the Cantonese revolutionaries became active, there was still no question of a Chinese Republic. The movement then assumed a purely provincial form, self-government for Kuangtung being the order of the day. On October 28th, the flag of independence was hoisted over a section of the Native City, and the Manchu garrison came to an amicable arrangement with the 'reformers' pending consideration of the latter's proposals for a mutually satisfactory change in the form of government. As the utter helplessness of the Manchus and the general disorganisation of the Government became more apparent with every success of the Yangtze rebels, the programme of the Radical extremists, supported by the Americanised Chinese of the Pacific coast, became gradually bolder and more aggressive, but it was only at the beginning of November that the idea of a Chinese Republic found definite expression, supported by Li Yuan-hung (under compulsion), at Wuchang, and by influential bodies of disaffected mandarins at Nanking and Shanghai. Up to this time, all the activities of Young China had been steadily directed towards acceleration of the Government's programme of Constitutional Government and the convening of a National Parliament under the Monarchy. It was only when the terrorised Throne, on November 5th, issued a humiliating edict recognising the 'Ko Ming t'ang' Revolutionary Society as a regular political party, entitled to a voice in the government of the country, that the extreme Radicals realised, and promptly seized,

their opportunities of attaining supreme command of the situation. Sun Yat-sen's party in the south, and General Li Yuan-hung at Wuchang perceived that, thanks to the sympathetic attitude of the European communities at the Treaty Ports and the chaotic demoralisation of the Manchus, only a strong policy was needed to carry the day. The Manchus were clearly doomed, and the position was at the mercy of the first bold stroke. Up to this point, the National Assembly, recognised by the Throne as the elected representatives of the nation, though aggressively progressive, had adhered to the Constitutional programme. On November 5th, however, simultaneously with the passing of the native cities of Shanghai, Suchow, and Hangchow to the revolutionaries, the Assembly was denounced by the rebel leaders of several provinces for having failed to represent the true wishes of the nation. At the same time, a Republican Committee was definitely organised at Shanghai under the leadership of Wu Ting-fang, Wen Tsung-yao and Li Ping-shu, well-known men whose claims to distinction rested as much on their careers as mandarins as on their Liberal views."—J. O. P. Bland, *Recent events and present policies in China*, pp. 150-152.—As early as October 14 (three days after the revolution had broken out in Wuchang) the Manchu government in a panic called to their aid by imperial edict Yuan Shi-kai. "Yuan Shi K'ai had been prominent under the empress dowager, first as Chinese resident in Korea before the fateful war with Japan and later in the *coup d'état* of 1898 when he was accused of betraying the young emperor. As governor of Shantung during 1900 he showed his good judgment by opposing the Boxer madness. He was unpopular with the regency and had been dismissed from court after the death of the empress dowager. He was primarily a soldier, a leader of the new army, thoroughly convinced of the necessity of reorganizing China by adopting Western ideas; but being a Northerner he represented a more conservative type of reformer."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, pp. 208-209.—"This . . . Imperial Edict . . . told to the world that the Court in Peking was *in extremis*, yet ever astute. There was one man who could deal with the situation, one man to whom the Northern Army would be *leal* in a conflict with the Army of the South [the revolutionary army]; that one man was the neglected Yuan Shih K'ai. At first Yuan refused the proffered honour, but afterwards General Yin Chang, who commanded the troops, interviewed him, and on the 18th Yuan formally accepted the appointment and proceeded south. It was a time fraught with great issues: Yuan the Reformer in close contact with Li the Revolutionary. In the battle of brains (as well as of bullets) who would prove to be the stronger man? . . . On November 10th Yuan Shih K'ai was recalled to Peking, and five days later accepted the position of Prime Minister, which carried with it the difficult task of trying to pacify the nation and institute a Reform Government which would be satisfactory to a majority of both factions. . . . Yuan's first move in Peking was an astute one, but it failed. His Cabinet that was to reconcile all parties practically resigned before it was ever constituted. Even the National Assembly found itself powerless to do other than pass resolutions. The Premier's first great triumph over the Manchus was in bringing about the resignation of the Prince Regent, who had so summarily dismissed Yuan a few years before. [From October to November there had been fierce fighting between the imperialists and the revolutionists. On December 4, a truce was

agreed to between these factions and on the 18th a peace conference met at Shanghai.] Yuan Shih K'ai's next problem was to so arrange matters that the Manchu Court should see fit to 'abdicate,' and at the same time temporise with the Republican party by means of the famous but fatuous Peace Conference. Here the master-hand revealed itself. For a time Yuan seemed trusted yet doubted alike by both sides. He succeeded in bringing actual hostilities to an end—and this may have been his objective."—E. J. Dingle, *China's revolution, 1911-1912*, pp. 228-232.—While Yuan Shi-kai was quieting the revolutionists for the time being, he maintained friendly relations with the imperial family which he finally persuaded to leave Peking for its safety on December 28.—See also MONGOLIA: 1911.

ALSO IN: P. H. Kent, *Passing of the Manchus*.—F. McCormick, *Flowery republic*.—J. S. Thomson, *China revolutionized*, pp. 1-113.



DR. SUN YAT-SEN

Chinese political reformer, first president of the republic

1912.—First provisional republic at Nanking.—Abdication of the emperor.—Plan of provisional government.—As yet no signs of abdication had been forthcoming and on January 1, the revolutionary party set up a provisional republic at Nanking. A provisional constitution was drawn up and Sun Yat-sen was elected first provisional president, until a regular republican government could be established by the people of the country. During the month of January Yuan Shi-kai had been counselling the empress dowager to sign an edict of abdication for the emperor. Various forms were drawn up, and finally on Feb. 12, the Abdication Edict was issued endorsing the establishment of a republic. "The following is a full text of the Edict which has become known as the Abdication Edict. As intimated in recent dispatches concerning the terms agreed upon, it became apparent that there was to be no complete abdication. The Emperor was simply to relinquish all political power, a new provisional Government was to take charge, which in turn was to be succeeded by a regular Government to be named by a National Convention. The Edict reads:—"Since the uprising in Wuchang the Throne has complied with the people's request and pro-

mulgated nineteen articles of constitution, vesting in the Ministers of State all administrative powers in which the subjects may take part, and that members of the Imperial family should not interfere in political affairs. Subsequently an edict was issued calling a national convention to decide publicly on the government system, thus to show our intention not to regard the Throne in a selfish spirit. The gentry and the people in the different provinces, however, opine that the situation is pressing, and that if the holding of a national convention is delayed, it is feared that disasters of war may be prolonged and the situation will not be saved. In addition, foreign troubles are threatening and new dangers appear daily, and in the present circumstances the nineteen articles of constitution are not entirely suited to conditions. The authority of the Premier especially is insufficient to rule the whole country from within, or to superintend foreign relations from without, and in order to adapt the government to exigencies, in which it is necessary to expect slight changes, the name of Premier is hereby abrogated, and a President is created. All political power shall be vested in control of the President, who is to be elected by the people. But with the exception of resignation of all political powers, the majesty of the Emperor shall not be much different from what is set forth in the nineteen articles formerly adopted. We have enquired this course of the Princes, nobles, officials and gentry in the provinces who are agreed in their views. And it is becoming to comply with their request and let it be carried out according. But rumours are widespread, and during our resignation from the political government, unless a united organ exists to control affairs it is feared that good order may not be maintained. We hereby specially command Yuan Shih K'ai to act in conjunction with the officials and gentry of the north and the south and temporarily to form a provisional and united government to destroy the seeds of trouble. Once the national convention has met and formally elected the President, the provisional government will be dissolved, so as to comply with public opinion and display full justice. All our soldiers and people should know that in taking this step our object is solely for the benefit of the State, the blessing of the people and to restore good order. All affairs will remain as of old, and they should not listen to rumours and create confusion and disturbances. It will thus be fortunate for the country as well as the general position.'

"Having agreed to abdication in favour of a Republic, the Empress Dowager [mother of the infant Emperor Hsuan-Tung] issued a secret edict commanding Yuan Shih K'ai to prepare for the formation of a provisional Government and the drawing up of a preliminary scheme to carry it into effect. During January Yuan Shih K'ai had several conferences, with the result that the following scheme was organized:—Article (1) deals with the necessity of a provisional and united government after the Emperor's resignation from government to assume all powers in preserving the *status quo* and to control foreign affairs, and it will be dissolved after the national convention has elected a President. (2) After resignation from power the Emperor shall remain in the Palace so as to preserve peace in the north. (3) The President's residence shall be built in Peking, or the newly completed Regent's Palace may be converted into a Presidential house. (4) Owing to the depletion of the treasuries of the present and also the Nanking government since the revolution, while means should be devised for the southern

provinces, provisions shall be made towards meeting administrative expenses in the northern provinces after the provisional government has been formed. (5) The northern and southern provinces should remove prejudices and assist the central united government and remit reasonable amounts of money to it to uphold the situation. Contributions from provinces which have suffered greatly may be deferred. (6) All official administrative officers in Peking shall remain in office, but owing to need of funds for the provisional government all salaries will be suspended for six months. (7) During a few months the pay of the northern and southern troops will be provided and the officers will remain in office. (8) When the provisional united government shall have been recognised by the foreign Powers, foreign relations shall be directly in charge of that government. (9) When the government system has been determined all foreign loans and indemnities shall be paid when due and the provinces should continue to send their usual contributions. (10) The Edict by which the Emperor surrenders the government shall be printed and copies promulgated throughout the country. An Edict will also be issued to the soldiery so as to acquaint them and prevent mutiny."—E. J. Dingle, *China's revolution, 1911-1912*, pp. 278-280.

1912.—Yuan Shi-kai elected president.—Disturbed situation of the country.—Growth of movement against Yuan Shi-kai.—"Here, then, was the unique spectacle of a disappearing despotism appointing its republican successor. In a comic opera or burlesque the sight of such a bit of topsy-turvydom would be received with smiles and laughter. China presented it in all seriousness, and though the world applauded, it did not laugh. It saw in the fact the only possible solution of an extraordinary problem, and it perceived in Yuan the only man, the man of destiny, fitted for the rôle of Protector of the Commonwealth. . . .

[Upon the publication of this edict, the provisional government at Nanking was willing to compromise with the government at Peking for the sake of a united China and the establishment of a permanent republican government. Sun Yat-sen recommended Yuan Shi-kai for president and announced his own willingness to resign.] As a result of Dr. Sun's recommendation, and the general consensus of opinion that what he had said was right, Yuan was appointed Provisional President by the unanimous vote of the Nanking delegates, representing no fewer than seventeen of the provinces. The new President was to come to Nanking to take the oath of office as soon as circumstances permitted, and it was decreed that the 15th February should be celebrated as a holiday in honour of the great event which had just been accomplished. There was little time for the nation as a whole to prepare for such a festival, but the eight men-of-war lying at the arsenal at Shanghai fired a salute of twenty-one guns at noon, and for the first time the new five-coloured flag was raised over the Custom House in the Shanghai Settlements."—G. Lanning, *Old forces in new China*, pp. 331-333.—"The revolution in China synchronized with a crisis of the nation's financial affairs. When the revolt started, negotiations were proceeding between the Peking Government and foreign financiers with a view to reforming generally the fiscal system of the Empire, and to provide funds for internal development. The proposed reforms included revision of the revenue system, currency, and loans for railway construction and various administrative requirements. The revolution involved the Government in further financial difficulties. One of

effects was an almost complete stoppage of revenues from the provinces to the central Government. The Government was unable to meet maturing foreign loans and interest. It needed funds to suppress the rebellion and to meet current administrative expenses. The lack of money on both sides was a strong influence in bringing a compromise, and in forcing the Throne to abdicate. Without money, neither faction could go on; and after the Republic was declared its most pressing problem was finance. The end of hostilities found several hundred thousand troops under arms. The compromise had included an undertaking by the new Government to assume obligations that had been incurred by the revolutionists, and to pay off the revolutionary troops. . . . If the troops were not paid they would mutiny and riot and loot, and perhaps kill their commanders. . . . The presence of bodies of armed men throughout the country, who had composed the revolutionary armies, was a grave danger. These soldiers had hardly any discipline, and they might at any time drift into banditry. Many of the revolutionary commanders were reluctant to disband their troops, for as long as each had an army they could dominate localities, and were political factors. These generals had to be placated by the new Government in some way, their armed followers disbanded, and the local administrations brought under the authority of Peking. Even Yuan Shih K'ai's army was unreliable. A slip anywhere, a misapprehension, a lack of tact, a dissatisfied or irreconcilable revolutionist general, might start a new revolt and throw the country into disorder again. A large faction of the revolutionists distrusted and feared Yuan Shih K'ai. Some of them had been Yuan's political antagonists in the past, and others were influenced by reports about him. In those circumstances outward harmony of all the principal popular leaders was absolutely essential. Li Yuan Hung was depended on to keep order in central China. Sun Yat Sen had enough popularity to control the situation in the Yangtze Delta. The Cantonese group had their local leaders, and relied on Tang Shao-yi and Wu Ting-fang, who were both from that section. In forming his first Cabinet Yuan Shih K'ai tried to bring together representatives of all factions. The revolutionists wanted the national capital moved from Peking to Nanking, and Tang Shao-yi made a promise to that effect on behalf of Yuan Shih K'ai. Yuan, however, temporized, and a delegation of southern republicans went to Peking to urge him to go to Nanking. While the delegates were at Peking, on February 29, a division of troops mutinied and looted part of the city. This demonstration of the instability of conditions in the North convinced the southerners that it was better not to move the capital at that time, so the question was dropped and never afterward seriously resumed. The northern army mutinies spread to Paotingfu, Tientsin, and other places, but the Government quickly got control. The whole country was a tinder-box—a spark might cause a blaze.

"Yuan Shih K'ai was inaugurated President at Peking on March 10, 1912. General Li Yuan Hung was elected Vice-President. The following day the National Council at Nanking ratified the election of Yuan and adopted a provisional constitution. Yuan issued a manifesto to the people, proclaimed an amnesty, and announced the remission of certain taxes. The selection of a Cabinet required adroit handling. Tang Shao-yi was made Premier, a selection which was satisfactory to the southern republicans. It is believed that both Sun Yat Sen and Wu Ting-fang were offered places

in the Cabinet, but they declined. The National Council was still at Nanking, and the Premier went there to confer with it about the Cabinet. The southern party wanted its partisans to have the ministries of war and finance, and Huang Hsing was their candidate for minister of war. Yuan Shih K'ai, however, would not have Huang, and a compromise was effected by making him Resident-General of Nanking. While Tang Shao-yi was at Nanking an agreement was made apportioning the principal offices among the important factions. General Tuan Chi-jui (a Yuan man) was made minister of war. Chen Chi-mei, a radical leader, was nominated minister of commerce and industry. He accepted the post, but did not assume the office. On April 2 the National Council voted to transfer its seat to Peking, thus concentrating all branches of the republican government there. For a while the Council insisted that it should be accompanied to Peking by a guard of southern troops, but it finally receded from that position. . . . Notwithstanding the opposition of the Council, and resignations in the Cabinet, Yuan Shih K'ai remained firm in the belief that the time had not come for a party Cabinet, and that the only practicable Government was by a Cabinet composed of the ablest men regardless of party. The President at times nominated members for the Cabinet, and the Council refused or delayed to confirm them. The President issued an appeal to the provincial assemblies, which also were in confusion, asking for harmony. Reorganization proceeded slowly. *Tutus* (military governors) governed the provinces in place of viceroys. Sporadic disorders continued. Plots to assassinate the President and the Vice-President, Li Yuan Hung, and to overthrow the Government, were frequent, and some plotters were apprehended and executed, in some cases in an arbitrary manner. The summary execution of General Chang Chen-wu, who was arrested after he attended a dinner at the Wagons-Lits Hotel in Peking, caused a crisis. The Council attempted to impeach the President, but could not carry it. Sun Yat Sen was induced to visit Peking, in an attempt to bring coöperation between the Council and the Executive, but the good effect was only temporary. Sun Yat Sen was received with cordiality by Yuan Shih K'ai, and was entertained profusely during his stay. Just before Sun's visit to Peking, the more important opposition parties were amalgamated into one named the Koumingtang. . . . For some months after the Republic was organized with Yuan Shih K'ai as President, the elements opposed to him had the idea that it was possible to eliminate him without resort to arms. They controlled the National Council. But as time passed, Yuan Shih K'ai more and more outfinessed the radicals in the struggle for power between the Executive and parliament. . . . It was realization of this fact that enabled demagogues to swing the Koumingtang toward rebellion. In this they were retarded by the attitude of Sun Yat Sen, who did not then approve any project to resort to arms against Yuan. Nevertheless, Huang Hsing, Chen Chi-mei, and their lieutenants continued secretly to plot rebellion, and to lay plans for a revolt. On September 29, a mandate was issued ordering the suppression of the secret societies that had come into existence in all parts of the country, and which were the centers of political intrigue against the government. . . . The agitation for a 'second revolution' began to assume definite form late in 1912, when the radical native press in central and south China openly presented it as a possible alternative to submitting to the alleged

autocracy of Yuan Shih K'ai. The National Council had fallen into lethargy, the center of Opposition having been transferred to the Koumingtang headquarters at Shanghai. The President succeeded in pushing a bill through the Council giving the Executive the power to establish martial law, 'in case of war or other extraordinary troubles arising, when it is necessary that either the whole or part of the country should be the scene of military operations.' A majority of members of the Council were away from Peking, electioneering for the new National Assembly."—T. F. Millard, *Our Eastern question*, pp. 47-50, 57-62.

1912.—Charity and poor laws.—Chinese philanthropy. See CHARITIES: China.

1913.—Agreement with Russia in regard to Mongolia. See MONGOLIA: 1013.

1913.—Assassination of Revolutionary leader.—Increasing strength of the president.—Question of a foreign loan.—Outbreak and suppression of rebellion (second).—Yuan Shi-kai elected constitutional president.—Suppression of revolutionary society and coup d'état of November 4.—"An event of great significance was the assassination at Shanghai on March 21, 1913, of Sung Chiao-jen, a Koumingtang leader who was shot at the railway station when he was about to leave for Peking. A connection of Ying Kuisung, a secret agent of the Government, was established with the crime, which gave occasion for the Koumingtang press to accuse Yuan Shih K'ai of having instigated the murder. From that time the attitude of the Koumingtang was openly hostile toward the President. The new Assembly (parliament) met in April and it soon became evident that it would clash with the Government. The Koumingtang had almost as many seats as all other parties combined, but the Government was stronger than it had been in the previous Council. A number of important matters demanded attention from parliament, but the members found too many things to wrangle about to transact business. Several weeks were consumed before presiding officers could be elected, and the Koumingtang candidates won. The attack on the Government in parliament centered on the foreign loan policy. Everything proposed by the Government was strongly criticized. Many sessions were disorderly, and a few were riotous. It was evident that the stability of the Government depended on the outcome of the struggle between the Executive and the Assembly. Public opinion, which in the first months of the Republic had been with parliament, was veering toward the Executive. . . . In that situation, the radical Koumingtang leaders saw themselves and their party facing defeat. There is no doubt that after the assassination of Sung Chiao-jen a majority of the Koumingtang were secretly for revolution, and the radicals succeeded in getting control of the party. Secret preparations for rebellion, with Shanghai as headquarters, were actively carried on. Evidences of foreign intrigue in support of the anti-Government element were numerous. There were shipments of arms to various places, destined for the rebels. The Koumingtang accumulated a war fund. All the Koumingtang leaders were not in favor of revolution, but the extreme radicals, led by Huang Hsing and Chen Chi-mei, carried the party along. By the end of June it was evident that an outbreak was imminent."—T. F. Millard, *Our Eastern question*, pp. 63-64.—"The issue was joined chiefly over the question of a foreign loan. The new government was in dire need of funds and could not immediately obtain them in sufficient amounts from taxation. A com-

bination of foreign capitalists, representing Great Britain, France, Germany, the United States, Russia, and Japan, offered to make a loan. It was to be a large one and was to be secured by a lien on Chinese revenues, principally the income from the salt monopoly. It involved increased political as well as financial control and evidently compromised still further Chinese independence. So prominent was the political side that President Wilson refused to give official backing to the American capitalists, and these withdrew, leaving the loan to be made by the representatives of the five powers. The Southern radical party was opposed to the loan, and obstructed its ratification by the national assembly. Finally, in the spring of 1913, Yüan signed it on his own authority, without the sanction of the assembly. At once a rebellion broke out in the South, in an attempt to depose the president who, it was alleged, had sold his country to the foreigner."—K. S. Latourette, *Development of China*, p. 212.—On July 10, 1913, the second revolution began. "The campaign was short and inglorious. The South, ill-furnished with munitions and practically penniless, and always confronted by the same well-trained Northern Divisions who had proved themselves invincible only eighteen months before, fought hard for a while, but never became a serious menace to the Central Government owing to the lack of co-operation between the various Rebel forces in the field. . . . The turbulent city of Canton . . . also rose against the authority of Peking. . . . A border General, named Lung Chi-Kwang, with 20,000 semi-savage Kwangsi troops had been moved near the city and at once attacked and over-awed the garrison. Appointed Military Governor of the province in return for his service, this Lung Chi-kwang, who was an infamous brute, for three years ruled the South with heartless barbarity, until he was finally ejected by the great rising of 1916. Thoroughly disappointed in this and many other directions the Southern Party was now emasculated; for the moneyed classes had withheld their support to the end."—B. L. Putnam Weale, *Fight for the republic in China*, pp. 53-54.—"Yuan Shih K'ai outthought and outmaneuvered his opponents. Li Lieh-chun, former Tutuh of Kiangsi, led the rebel forces in the Kiukiang district. His troops occupied the forts at the entrance to the Po Yang lakes. Nanking went over to the rebels, but attacks on the arsenal at Shanghai failed, because of the spirited defense made by Admiral Tseng Ju-cheng. The government forces gradually got the upper hand, and by September the rebellion collapsed. Early in August Sun Yat Sen, Huang Hsing, and other prominent Koumingtang leaders fled to Japan. Li Lieh-chun also escaped to Japan, being conveyed down the Yang-tze by a Japanese gunboat. The outstanding features of the rebellion were: (a) Chinese opinion was with the Government and against reform by revolution; (b) a revulsion of sentiment among foreign residents in China, who had been sympathetic to the younger reformers, but who now perceived the dangers of radicalism, and that the political situation was a choice between Yuan Shih K'ai or chaos; (c) the revelation that Japan was intriguing in a disturbing way in China's internal politics. On October 6 Yuan Shih K'ai was formally elected by the National Assembly under the new constitution, and Li Yuan Hung was elected Vice-President. On November 4 a mandate dissolved the Koumingtang as a seditious organization. The immediate effect of this action was to unseat about half of the members of the Assembly, making a quorum impossible, and leav-

ing the Executive in substantial control of the central government."—T. F. Millard, *Our Eastern question*, p. 67.—Though a virtual dictator, the president by a series of political dictats during 1914 attempted to clothe his arbitrary acts with a semblance of constitutional form.

ALSO IN: B. L. Putnam Weale (B. L. Simpson), *Fight for the republic in China*, pp. 39-56.

1914.—Suspension of Parliament.—Strengthening of central executive power.—Establishment of constitutional council.—Publication of the "Constitutional Compact."—Enactment of new presidential election law.—"The year 1913 ended with the President's *coup d'état*, when the Kuomintang, the main Opposition party, was dissolved by Presidential mandate and its members suspended from exercising parliamentary functions. No formal dissolution of Parliament followed; but, in the absence of a quorum, it had ceased to be a parliament, and was indefinitely suspended on January 10, 1914. From this time on Yuan Shih-kai's efforts had to be directed to the strengthening and consolidation of the central executive power. His first step was to create the *Cheng Chih Hui I*, or Political Council, the members of which were appointed by himself. This body acted as an advisory council to the President, and it immediately recommended him to call into being an elected assembly, which, being representative of the nation, would give constitutional sanction to the acts of the President. Regulations for the establishment and election of such an assembly, to be known as *Yue Fa Hui I*, or Constitutional Council, were drawn up by the Political Council, were approved by the President and were promulgated by him on January 26, 1914. The Council was to consist of fifty-six members, distributing as follows: Four elected in Peking, two in each province, eight by Mongolia, Tibet, and Sinkiang, four by the Chambers of Commerce. Electors had to be thirty years of age or over, an official or with the rank of Chu-jen, or a graduate of a provincial high school or possessed of property of at least \$10,000 in value. The qualifications for membership were: Tenure of an official post for at least five years, a graduate of a law school, the holder of a degree higher than that of Chu-jen or possessor of education of an equivalent standard."—*China year book*, 1916, pp. 432-433.—Meanwhile wholesale executions were carried out in the provinces with monotonous regularity and all attempts at rising ruthlessly suppressed. In Peking the infamous Chih Fa Chu or Military Court—a sort of Chinese Star-Chamber—was continually engaged in summarily dispatching men suspected of conspiring against the Dictator. Even the printed word was looked upon as seditious, an unfortunate native editor being actually flogged to death in Hankow for telling the truth about conditions in the riverine districts. . . . Although he was increasingly pressed for ready money, Yuan Shih-kai, by the end of April, 1914, had the situation sufficiently in hand to bring out his supreme surprise,—a brand-new Constitution promulgated under the euphonious title of 'The Constitutional Compact.' . . . It placed all power directly in the hands of the President, giving him a single Secretary of State after the American model and reducing Cabinet Ministers to mere Department Chiefs who received their instructions from the State Department but had no real voice in the actual government. A new provincial system was likewise invented for the provinces, the Tutuhs or Governors of the Revolutionary period being turned into Chiang Chun or Military Officials on

the Manchu model and provincial control absolutely centralized in their hands, whilst the Provincial Assemblies established under the former dynasty were summarily abolished. . . . A brand-new ceremony, the worship of the two titular Military Gods, was ordered so as to inculcate military virtue."—B. L. Putnam Weale (B. L. Simpson), *Fight for the republic in China*, pp. 53-54, 62, 63.—At the end of the year on Dec. 20, 1914, a new Presidential election law and succession act was passed by which Yuan added another five years to his term of office and could succeed himself at the close of that term. "The following is a summary of the principal clauses: (1) Any Chinese who is forty years of age, who enjoys full public rights and has lived in the country for upwards of twenty years, will be eligible for election. (2) At each election the President, representing the people, shall nominate three candidates, their names to be written by the President on a gold plate, which is to be locked up in a casket and the keys kept by the President, the Secretary of State, and the Chairman of the Council of State. (3) A committee of ten is to be appointed to open the casket. (4) The names will be submitted by the President to an Electoral College consisting of fifty members of the Council of State and fifty members of the Lifayuan, and the candidate who secures two-thirds of the votes will be considered elected. (5) If the required two-thirds are not secured, then the names of the two candidates with the largest number of votes will again be submitted for ballot, and the one securing the majority will be elected. (6) The President himself is eligible for re-election and may be voted for at the same time as the three candidates nominated by him. (7) The term of the Presidential office shall be for ten years. (8) The Council of State may extend the term of office and thereby render an election unnecessary. (9) The President has also the right to nominate three candidates for the post of Vice-President, whose term of office will also be for ten years. The procedure of election will be the same as for the President. The oath taken by the President is in the following terms: 'I swear that I will honestly adhere to the Constitution and faithfully perform my duties as President of this Republic.'—*China Year Book*, 1916, pp. 434-435.—The government, however, continued to take on military form. Scores of officers were appointed in various departments, and a "palace of generals" was erected at Peking. Japan, watching throughout all these changes, was awaiting her opportunity to seize control in China. This came with the outbreak of the World War, when Japan forthwith marched her troops against the German Chinese territory of Kiao-Chau. Yuan Shi-kai had been in the midst of negotiations with Germany concerning the retrocession of this territory when the blow fell. The Japanese captured Kiao-Chau before the end of 1914 and served their demands on China at the beginning of the new year.—See also JAPAN: 1914-1918; WORLD WAR: 1914: V. Japan: d.

Also in: B. L. Putnam Weale (B. L. Simpson), *Fight for the republic in China*, pp. 60-70.

1915.—Japan's twenty-one demands.—Protests in China, in England and America.—Acceptance of demands after modification.—"In the history of nations, there has never been a document presented to a sovereign State by another such as the demands Japan presented to China on January 18, 1915. . . . The following, which is an officially verified translation of the identical note presented to the President of China by the Japa-

nese Minister on that date, will best show the reader just how far the dream of the domination of China is outlined by Japan.

"GROUP 1. The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, being desirous of maintaining the peace of Eastern Asia and of further strengthening the friendly relations existing between the two neighboring nations, agree to the following Articles:—

"Article i. The Chinese Government agrees that when the Japanese Government hereafter approaches the German Government for the transfer of all rights and privileges of whatsoever nature enjoyed by Germany in the Province of Shantung, whether secured by Treaty or in any other manner, China shall give her full assent thereto.

"Article ii. The Chinese Government agrees that within the Province of Shantung and along its sea border no territory or island or land of any name or nature shall be ceded or leased to any third Power.

"Article iii. The Chinese Government consents to Japan building a railway from Chefoo or Lung-chau to join the Tsinan-Kiaochow Railway.

"Article iv. The Chinese Government agrees that for the sake of trade and for the residence of foreigners certain important places shall be speedily opened in the Province of Shantung as treaty ports, such necessary places to be jointly decided upon by the two Governments by separate agreement.

"GROUP II. The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, since the Chinese Government has always acknowledged the specially favorable position enjoyed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, agree to the following Articles:—

"Article i. The two contracting Powers mutually agree that the term or lease of Port Arthur and Dalny and the term of lease of the South Manchuria and Antung-Mukden Railways shall be extended to the period of ninety-nine years.

"Article ii. Japanese subjects in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia in erecting buildings for the purpose of trade and manufacture or for farming shall have the right to lease or own land so required.

"Article iii. Japanese subjects shall be free to reside and travel in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia and to engage in business and in manufacture of any kind whatsoever.

"Article iv. The Chinese Government agrees to grant Japanese subjects the right of opening all mines in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia, such mining places to be jointly decided upon by the two Governments.

"Article v. The Chinese Government agrees that in respect of the two following subjects mentioned herein below the Japanese Government's consent shall be first obtained before action shall be taken:—(a) Whenever permission is granted to the subject of a third Power to build a railway or make a loan with a third Power for the purpose of building a railway in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia. (b) Whenever a loan is to be made with a third Power pledging the local taxes of South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia as security.

"Article vi. The Chinese Government agrees that if the Chinese Government in South Manchuria or Eastern Inner Mongolia employs advisers or instructors for political, financial, or military purposes the Japanese shall first be consulted.

"Article vii. The Chinese Government agrees that the control and administration of the Kirin-

Changchou Railway shall be handed over to the Japanese Government to take effect on the signing of this agreement, the term to last for ninety-nine years.

"GROUP III. The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government, seeing that Japanese financiers and the Hanyehping Company have close relations with each other at present, and also desiring that the common interests of the two nations shall be advanced, agree to the following Articles:—

"Article i. The two contracting Powers mutually agree that when the opportune moment arrives the Hanyehping Company shall be made a joint concern of the two nations and they further agree that without the previous consent of Japan, China shall not by her own act dispose of the rights and property of whatsoever nature of the Hanyehping Company, nor cause the said Company to dispose freely of the same.

"Article ii. The Chinese Government agrees that all mines in the neighborhood of those owned by the Hanyehping Company shall not be permitted, without the consent of the said Company, to be worked by other persons outside of the said Company, and further agrees that if it is desired to carry out any undertaking which it is apprehended may directly or indirectly affect the interests of the said Company the consent of the said company shall first be obtained.

"GROUP IV. The Japanese Government and the Chinese Government with the object of effectively protecting the territorial integrity of China agree to the following special Article:—The Chinese Government agrees that no island, port, and harbor along the coast shall be ceded or leased to any third Power.

"GROUP V. Article i. The Chinese Central Government shall employ influential Japanese as advisers in political, financial, and military affairs.

"Article ii. In the interior of China, Japanese shall have the right to ownership of land for the building of Japanese hospitals, churches, and schools.

"Article iii. Since the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government have had many cases of dispute between the Japanese and Chinese police to settle, cases which cause no inconsiderable misunderstanding, it is for this reason necessary that the police departments of important places (in China) shall be jointly administered (by Japanese and Chinese) or that the (Chinese) police department of these places shall employ numerous Japanese for the purpose of organizing and improving the Chinese police service.

"Article iv. China shall purchase from Japan a fixed ratio of the quantity of munitions of war (say fifty per cent or more), or Japan shall establish in China a jointly worked arsenal, Japanese technical experts to be employed and Japanese material to be purchased.

"Article v. China agrees to grant to Japan the right of constructing a railway connecting Wuchang with Kiu-kiang and Nan-chang. Also a line between Nan-chang and Hang-chow, and a line between Nan-chang and Chao-chow.

"Article vi. China agrees that in the Province of Fu-kien Japan shall have the right to work mines and build railways and to construct harbor works (including dockyards), and in case of employing foreign capital Japan shall be first consulted.

"Article vii. China agrees that Japanese subjects shall have the right to propagate religious doctrines in China."—J. Jones, *Fall of Tsingtau*, pp. 182-189.

"In the course of the contest which ensued

and which was brought to a close—in some respects only—by the signing of treaties on May 25, the substance of Groups I and II of these demands underwent practically no changes. Certain modifications were made in Group III. Group IV was retained as it stood. And it was ultimately agreed that the discussion of Group V, with the exception of the provision regarding Fukien Province—which was retained—should be postponed. Several features stand out with simple and peculiar prominence. Four of the groups were introduced by special, cleverly constructed preambles. There was no introduction or explanation attached to Group V. Baron Kato later declared in the Japanese Diet that Group V had represented not 'demands' but an expression of Japan's 'wishes' with a view to ascertaining China's attitude upon the points involved. No such explanation had been vouchsafed the Chinese government; Group V had been included, with no indication of special character or reservation, in the original document presented to the President of China as a summary of Japan's demands. That they were thus included in the document as presented to China and were entirely omitted from the account given the powers is significant and, instead of minimizing, serves greatly to increase their importance. The concessions which Japan sought may be divided into three classes: in some cases she was asking for options; in others she was asking the right to exercise a veto power with regard to actions of the Chinese government; in the third class she was asking for herself a position of definite, immediate, direct, and important special privilege.

"GROUP I related to Shantung. It required not only that all German holdings be turned over to Japan, but, in addition, that China pledge—as she had not been required to do by Germany—that she would not lease to other countries any territory on the coast of Shantung. Still further, China was to grant Japan the right to construct a new railway in Shantung, a line from Tungchow—near Chefoo—to Weih sien. . . . The preamble to GROUP II stated that 'the Chinese government has acknowledged the special position enjoyed by Japan in South Manchuria and Eastern Inner Mongolia.' As a matter of fact, Japan never had a special position in either region until ten years ago; China has only step by step and reluctantly recognized the position which Japan has acquired in Manchuria; and on no basis except that of her own unauthorized forward movement, and with no recognition of right by any nation has Japan acquired a 'special position in Eastern Inner Mongolia.' The requirement that China extend the lease on 'Port Arthur and Dalny' had subsequently been interpreted by Japan to mean the 'Leased Territory.' This, together with the extension of the railway leases, is all but equivalent to the cession of South Manchuria to Japan. If there is any question upon that point, the remaining clauses in this group remove all doubt. If China seeks advisers upon affairs in these regions, Japan is to be the final authority as to their selection: if China wishes to build railways with foreign capital here or to take foreign loans on the security of the local taxes, Japan's consent must be obtained. Japanese subjects are to be free to travel, reside, engage in business and in manufacture of any sort, lease or own land and erect buildings, and to open mines throughout the region. These last mentioned provisions are the most novel and most far-reaching in what will be their immediate effect. It has not heretofore been legal for foreigners, with the exception of missionaries, to own land and build-

ings, reside, and carry on business at places other than the treaty ports. . . .

"GROUP III relates to the great Hanyehping Company whose interests included the Hanyang iron works, the Lingsiang coal mines, and the Tayeh iron mines. The Hanyehping iron and steel mills are located at Hankow, 'the Chicago of China,' seven hundred miles up the Yangtse, while the coal and iron mines are near at hand, all being in the very heart of the British sphere of influence. The company is Chinese. During recent years it has borrowed certain sums of money from Japanese sources. Now, in the form in which this demand was presented, Japan asked not only a partnership in the company, but what would amount to control; not that alone, but the right to prevent by Japanese veto the opening up, whether by other foreigners or by Chinese, of any mines in all the region round about; even more—the interdiction of any enterprise which would, in the opinion of the Japanese, be held likely 'directly or indirectly to affect the interests of the company.' . . . The demand which constituted GROUP IV, that China should engage 'not to cede or lease to any third power any harbor or bay or island along the coast,' carries with it a significant implication and should it be acceded to, two particular consequences, one negative and one positive. The implication is that China is responsible to Japan in the matter of disposing of her territories; that is, that a new limitation of China's sovereign rights, in favor of Japan, is to be recognized. The consequences would be that China would stand pledged on the one hand to refrain from giving territorial concessions to any *third* power, whence it would follow that no third power might obtain such concessions; while on the other hand as between China and Japan no such prohibition would be established. In GROUP V, concessions of the most unprecedented and wide-reaching nature were required. China was to employ Japanese advisers in political, financial, and military affairs; to admit Japanese to joint participation in the policing of 'important places'; to purchase from Japan 'say fifty per cent. or more' of her munitions of war, or allow the establishing of an arsenal in China under Japanese supervision; to grant Japan the right to construct important designated railway lines in the Yangtsé Valley some of which were already promised to British concessionaires; to specify that Japanese might carry on missionary propaganda and own lands for hospitals, churches, and schools in the interior; and to give Japan first option for the furnishing of capital for developments, 'including dock yards,' in Fukien Province. The reaction in China was quite different from what the Japanese government seems to have expected. Even the members of the Kwo-ming Tang, hitherto irreconcilably opposed to Yuan Shih-kai, laid aside internal political strife and rallied to the support of their government in opposition to Japan. Outside China there was a split in the Kwo-ming Party, but the principal leader, Huang Hsing, gave his support, and most of his party followed his lead. The Japanese Minister in Peking sought at the outset to get the Chinese officials to agree 'in principle' to all the demands. To this the Chinese refused to commit themselves. Long weeks of negotiation followed. . . . There were rumors that Japan was contemplating drastic action. Military and naval preparations were going forward in Japan, and vessels and additional troops were being dispatched to China. It was generally believed that Japan was waiting to hear what reply Sir Edward

Grey would make to the questions which were being asked in the British House of Commons. British interests had been bestirring themselves and the British government was at last being forced to recognize something of the importance and the seriousness of the Far Eastern situation. The facts had also at last gotten before the American public, and from the utterances of both the British and the American press it began to be apparent that, now that the real nature of the demands was understood, the sympathy of the world was with China. Vigorous publicity and the time element had come to China's assistance with unprecedented effectiveness. True, the Japanese government had won in the recent elections, but it now had to answer questions which were being raised insistently and pertinently both at home and from abroad. On April 23 it was announced by the Kokusai News Agency of Tokyo, officially inspired, that the Japanese government intended to change and modify some of its demands. On April 26 this announcement was made good by the presentation of a revision comprising twenty-four demands, the Japanese Minister announcing that this communication was final and that if China would consent to the whole group without revision Japan would restore Kiaochow to China at an opportune time and subject to certain conditions. . . . The Chinese people were by this time urging the government to resist Japan, if necessary by force of arms, but Yuan Shih-kai, knowing that such a course would be futile, authorized his ministers to make further concessions. Overtures to that effect were rejected by the Japanese, and the ultimatum was presented on May 7, giving China forty-eight hours in which to accede to the demands. War vessels had been dispatched, and additional troops were embarking at Japanese ports for service against China. At some time between May 1 and May 7 the Japanese government seems to have undergone a considerable change of mind, if not of heart, for the requirements embodied in the ultimatum represented a modification of what had been put forward in the document of April 26 as Japan's last and final demands. It has been suggested that counsels to restraint had been forthcoming, in the interval, from Japan's Occidental ally. The ultimatum was accompanied by an explanatory note in which it was indicated that five matters: namely, (a) the employment of advisers, (b) the establishing of schools and hospitals, (c) the railway concessions in South China, (d) the supply of arms and ammunition and the establishing of arsenals, and (e) the propagation of Buddhism, were to be postponed for later negotiations—thus making it a matter of record that these demands were not to be considered as definitely waived. 'If the Chinese Government accepts all the articles as demanded in the Ultimatum, the offer of the Japanese Government to restore Kiaochow . . . will still hold good.' The note also made specifications with regard to certain changes in phraseology which might be effected, and left the disposal of a few minor matters to the future. . . . Before daybreak on the morning of May 9 the Chinese government agreed to the terms laid down in the ultimatum. . . . It remained to draft the necessary treaties, agreements, exchanges of notes, and declarations. Several conferences were held before this work was completed, and at these the Japanese Minister brought up certain points which the Chinese claim went beyond the provisions of the ultimatum. Finally, on May 25, the arranging and phrasing of the documents having been completed, the signatures of the ministers were affixed;

and on June 8 the ratifications were exchanged, terminating the diplomatic contest which had lasted for five months."—S. K. Hornbeck, *Contemporary politics in the Far East*, pp. 311-332.—See also U. S. A.: 1907-1917.

1915-1916.—Attempted return to monarchy.—Yuan Shi-kai, emperor as result of nominal plebiscite.—Rebellion (third) starting in Yunnan.—Yuan Shi-kai's abandonment of monarchical idea.—Reinstatement of republican forms.—The two great anti-dynastic and anti-military parties of China were the Kuomintang and the Chinputang. The former was composed of extreme radicals and was the larger of the two. The latter was made up of the scholars of China and the older and more conservative progressives. Its most distinguished member was the Chinese scholar Liang Chi-Chao. "Immediately after the conclusion of negotiations with Japan in May, 1915, the leaders of the Chin-pu Tang, now the most influential of the political parties in China and the support of the government, memorialized the President, asking him to hasten the convening of the National Assembly. It was argued that the position of the government would be strengthened by the existence of this body. The President straightway, on May 25, issued orders that the census lists of voters qualified for the primary elections should be completed by September 13. In July the President issued a further mandate directing the bureau concerned with preparations for the election of representatives to the National (Constitutional) Convention to hasten its work. The Council of State had been instructed on July 1 to appoint the Committee of Ten for the drafting of a permanent constitution. The Council at once made its appointments and the President announced the membership. The Committee held its first meeting on July 31. It was announced that in all probability the draft of the constitution would be ready by the end of the year; and the Chinese press chose to believe that the existing provisional constitution and its supplementary laws would be made the basis of the work. The governors of the provinces were to be taken into consultation, and particular deference was to be paid to the views of Dr. Goodnow as Constitutional Adviser. It was reported early in August that the elections would be held in January and February and the convention be summoned in March, 1916. Thus far had the legal reconstruction gone when, suddenly—as far as the outside world is concerned—there began to come rumors that the Chinese were discussing the possibility and advisability of reverting to the monarchical form of government. The talk, however, went on, and the discussion finally came into the open with the organizing of a 'Peace Planning Society,' or 'Society for the Devising of Permanent Peace' [and the publication of pamphlets advocating an empire]. . . . The next move was made by the Council of State, an instrument of the President. The Council recommended early in September that the President call a convention to decide for or against the restoration, and if that be not possible, that he 'devise other proper and adequate means to consult the will of the people.' The Council reported that it had received eighty-two petitions from different bodies favoring a monarchy. On October 8, the Council passed a bill providing for the election of a convention of citizens to decide as to the future form of government, and the President at once promulgated the bill as law. The military elements were by this time urging that Yuan proclaim himself Emperor on October 10, the anniversary of the

beginning of the revolution, but the President refused to consider this, and, to prevent a demonstration, canceled the orders for a parade of the troops on that day. The President, next, on October 12, issued a mandate saying that he had received petitions from representative sources expressing the unanimous opinion that the republican form of government was unsuited to the needs of China and requesting him to adopt a constitutional monarchy, 'so that the peace be maintained.' But, according to the constitutional compact, sovereign rights are vested in the entire body of citizens, therefore he must leave the decision to the people. In the meantime, the balloting for the election of representatives to the colleges which were to decide the question had been going on. The vote was taken on the basis of the electoral census and lists prepared for the



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coming election of the National Assembly and the choosing of delegates to the National Convention. The election officials had given notice to qualified citizens in every district and every special electoral group that they were entitled to cast ballots to determine what form of government should be adopted. The persons so notified were required to register, and all who had registered were allowed to vote on the days set for their districts or groups. In each of the provincial constituencies the voters selected five men who in turn chose one as elector for the district. The electors proceeded to their respective provincial capitals and there cast their ballots either for the republic or for constitutional monarchy. The voting for the dependencies was done by citizens who happened to be in Peking. The canvass of the returns showed that all but fifty of the 2,043 electors had declared for constitutional monarchy. In many provinces the electors were asked to express themselves as to who should be Emperor—and the unanimous opinion, where sought, was for Yuan Shih-kai. The Council of State immediately sent Yuan a

petition asking him to accept the throne, and on December 11 it was announced that Yuan 'in deference to the will of the people' had consented to become Emperor."—*Ibid.*, pp. 87-96.

"Yuan's coronation was postponed, possibly because Japan and the Entente Powers had expressed apprehension lest the restoration of monarchy lead to internal disorders in China and a disturbance of the international equilibrium in the Far East. The justice of this apprehension soon appeared. To be sure, an attempt at mutiny on December 5, by a handful of insurgents on board the Chinese training-ship *Chao-ho* in the harbor of Shanghai, proved premature. But a formidable insurrection raised its head late in December, under the leadership of Tsai Ao, former military governor of Yunnan. Tsai Ao's declared purpose was the restoration of the parliamentary, constitutional republic. From Yunnan the republican rebellion spread to the neighboring provinces of Kweichau, Kiangsi, Hupeh, and Szechuan. Mutiny broke out at the very important city of Nanking and in Fukien and Hunan provinces. As the Republican insurrection made headway, Yuan Shih-kai faltered in his determination to assume the crown. On January 21 the formal coronation, tentatively scheduled for February 12, was postponed *sine die*. On March 22 Yuan proclaimed that he would abandon the monarchical scheme altogether and would revert to the republican form of government. The staunch republican Hsu Shih Chang, who had resigned as a protest against the monarchical restoration, now reentered the cabinet as secretary of state. A special session of the Council of State, March 27, repealed all monarchical legislation and legally restored the republican régime. Nevertheless, the republican insurgents in the southern provinces, thoroughly hostile to Yuan, pursued their military campaign. By the end of May all of the southern provinces, Yunnan, Kwangsi, Kwangtung, Fokien, Chikiang, Kiangsi, Hunan, and Kweichau, were dominated by the rebels; among the central provinces, Szechuan was in rebel hands and others were more or less disaffected; further north, Shensi and Shansi were said to have declared independence and Shantung was rapidly being conquered by revolutionaries, apparently with unofficial Japanese support. Meanwhile President Yuan Shih-kai made desperate efforts to retrieve his blunder. He agreed to surrender all civil authority to a responsible Republican cabinet, April 22, with Tuan Chi-jui, a conspicuous Republican leader, as premier and war minister. This concession was scorned, however, by 216 members of the National Assembly, who refused to be conciliated so long as Yuan remained president."—*Political Science Quarterly* (Supplement, Sept., 1916, pp. 68-69).

1916-1917.—Continuance of disorders.—Death of Yuan Shi-kai.—Diplomatic relations with Germany severed.—Attempted monarchist coup.—Speedy collapse.—"The situation had become truly appalling in Peking. It was even said that the neighbouring province of Shantung was to become a separate state under Japanese protection. Although the Peking administration was still nominally the Central Government of China, it was amply clear to observers on the spot that by a process of successive collapses all that was left of government was simply that pertaining to a city-state of the antique Greek type—a maladministration dominated by the enigmatic personality of Liang Shih-yi. The writ of the capital no longer ran more than ten miles beyond the city walls. The very Government Departments, disgusted with, and distrustful of, the many hid-

den influences at work, had virtually declared their independence and went their own way, demanding foreign dollars and foreign banknotes from the public, and refusing all Chinese money. The fine residuum of undisputed power left in the hands of the mal-administrator-in-chief, Liang Shih-yi, was the control of the copper cash market which he busily juggled with to the very end, netting a few last thousands for his own purse, and showing that men like water inevitably find their true level. In all China's tribulations nothing similar had ever been seen. Even in 1900, after the Boxer bubble had been pricked and the Court had sought safety in flight, there was a certain dignity and majesty left. Then an immense misfortune had fallen across the capital; but that misfortune was like a cloak which hid the nakedness of the victim; and there was at least no pretence at authority. In the summer of 1916, had it not been for the fact that an admirable police and gendarmerie system, comprising 16,000 men, secured the safety of the people, there can be little doubt that firing and looting would have daily taken place and no woman been safe. It was the last phase of political collapse with a vengeance; and small wonder if all Chinese officials, including even high police officers, sent their valuables either out of the city or into the Legation Quarter for safe custody. Extraordinary rumours circulated endlessly among the common people that there would be great trouble on the occasion of the Dragon Festival, the 5th June; and what actually took place was perhaps more than a coincidence. Early on the 6th June an electric thrill ran through Peking—Yuan Shih-kai was dead! At first the news was not believed, but by eleven o'clock it was definitely known in the Legation Quarter that he had died a few minutes after ten o'clock that morning from uræmia of the blood—the surgeon of the French Legation being in attendance almost to the last. A certificate issued later by this gentleman immediately quieted the rumours of suicide, though many still refused to believe that he was actually dead. 'I did not wish this end,' he is reported to have whispered hoarsely a few minutes before he expired, 'I did not wish to be Emperor. Those around me said that the people wanted a king and named me for the Throne. I believed and was misled.' And in this way his light flickered out."—B. L. Putnam Weale (B. L. Simpson), *Fight for the republic in China*, pp. 265-266.—"The perturbations of the Chinese republic were by no means ended with the death of Yuan Shih-kai. To be sure, Yuan's successor in the presidency, General Li Yuan-hung, a liberal from middle China, proved his sincere republicanism by reopening, on August 1 [1916], the republican parliament which Yuan had arbitrarily suspended in 1914, and by endeavoring to harmonize the discordant factions by forming a coalition cabinet. Against President Li, however, provincial military governors and generals, particularly in the northern provinces, were busily conspiring to revive the defunct Manchu empire. In the face of this menace the republicans themselves were disunited. The Conservative northern or militarist party, recruited chiefly from the old governing classes in North China, and led by Premier Tuan Chi-jui, was determined to dominate the republic in defiance of parliamentary Radicals. On the other hand, the Radical republicans (organized in party called Kwo-min-tang), representing the 'solid South' of Chinese democracy, uncompromisingly insisted that they should exercise the control of the government. Their candidate for the premiership, Tang Shao-yi, preferred to resign the port-

folio of foreign affairs, which had been assigned to him in the coalition cabinet, rather than to serve in a subordinate capacity under his rival, Premier Tuan Chi-jui. Moreover, the Radical majority in parliament so stubbornly opposed Tuan's attempts to replace republicans by Conservatives in the cabinet, that vexatious conflicts arose between parliament and premier, and seventeen military governors telegraphed to President Li Yuan-hung threatening insurrection if the premier were not given full authority over his own cabinet, without interference from parliament.—The feud was further embittered by disputes over foreign policy. Foreign Minister Wu Ting-fang, appointed in November, was accused of weakness in his dealings with Japan . . . as well as in his futile efforts to obtain satisfactory amends for the massacre of several hundred Chinese by Russian Cossacks at Kaahu (Sinkiang) and for the seizure by French troops of a square mile of Chinese territory adjoining the French concession at Tientsin. Furthermore, in the negotiations of foreign loans, a clique of pro-Japanese Conservatives favored Japan, whereas the Radicals inclined toward America and were gratified by the award of a very important contract (to build 700 miles of railway, with an option on 1,500 miles in addition, at \$50,000 a mile, and to rebuild the Grand Canal) to the American International Corporation. Most embarrassing of all was the question of intervention in the war. When the German government inaugurated its ruthless submarine Campaign and began to sink liners bearing Chinese coolies to France, Premier Tuan Chi-jui and his cabinet proposed action. The president opposed it. The premier resigned. But three days later President Li Yuan-hung yielded, and Tuan, returning to power, severed diplomatic relations with Germany on March 14 [1917]. After taking this step, the Chinese government formally requested the Entente Powers and the United States to sanction (a) the suspension of the Boxer indemnity payments, (b) an increase in import duties above the stipulated five per cent *ad valorem*, and (c) the posting of Chinese troops at Tientsin, along the Tientsin-Peking Railway, and in the legation quarter. In May, Premier Tuan Chi-jui asked parliament to authorize a declaration of war against Germany. The parliamentary majority, however, obstinately refused to precipitate China into the Great War as long as Tuan Chi-jui remained premier, for it was feared that he would use the war simply as an excuse for suspending constitutional liberties and intrinching the militarist Conservative party in power. President Li Yuan-hung, siding with parliament, openly defied the northern military party by dismissing Tuan from the premiership, May 23. Here was the opportunity for which the extreme reactionaries and monarchists had long been sighing."—*Political Science Quarterly* (Supplement, Sept., 1917, pp. 76-77).—Immediately the military governors of the northern provinces who had evidently been warned and organized by the Premier and his party, rose in opposition to the Kuomintang [and what is known as the fourth revolution broke out]. Foremost among them was the powerful Chang Hsun, a freebooter, who, with his private army of probably forty thousand men, ranks as an independent baron, over the important province of Anhwei, through which the railway runs from Peking to Shanghai. . . . Chang Hsun brought his troops up by rail to Tientsin [June 7, 1917], the Treaty Port nearest the capital, and the government troops, being controlled by Tuan's party, would not oppose them. He then demanded of

the President the dissolution of Parliament. . . . Then he [the president], in order to save the country from civil war, proceeded to find legality for his action and sought in vain to persuade his acting Premier, the well-known Wu Ting Fang, to countersign the mandate for dissolution. . . . At last the chief of police of the capital had to be created Premier in order to execute the President's decision, and meet the demands of General Chang Hsun."—F. Moore, *Counter-revolutions in China* (Asia, July, 1917).—On June 13, the mandate for dissolution was countersigned. "On June 15 Chang Hsun arrived in Peking with Li Ching-hsi. Eight of the provinces that week canceled their independence, stating that their desire for the dissolution of Parliament had been satisfied. The members of Parliament made their way, many of them in disguise, to Shanghai and there held meetings and sent out manifestoes. Affairs were apparently at a standstill with the country thus divided when the great coup d'état was carried out by Chang Hsun. Affairs thereupon moved swiftly. On June 30 Kang Yu-wei, a known advocate of the monarchy, arrived in Peking. He had traveled incognito from Shanghai. His first visit was to Chang Hsun. On July 1 at 4 A. M. Chang Hsun and his suite called on the Manchu boy Emperor and informed him of his restoration, and seated him on the throne. President Li Yuan-hung was requested to resign, but refused. He was then practically held prisoner. Numerous imperial edicts were issued, countersigned by 'Chang Hsun, member of the Privy Council.'

"On July 3 Feng Kuo-chang [the Vice-President] repudiated any connection with the restoration, his name having appeared in the edicts as one of the petitioners. The Military Governor of Canton issued proclamations that the Cantonese would fight to maintain the republic. Many similar messages were sent by other provinces. Japanese troops proceeded to the Forbidden City. . . . [President Li Yuan-hung escaped from the custody of Chang Hsun and took refuge in the Japanese Legation.] On July 4 the President issued a pledge to fight for the republic. On July 5 hostilities broke out at Lang Fang on the Peking-Tientsin railway. General Tsao Kun arrived at Liuliho with 10,000 troops en route to Peking. The diplomatic body notified the Peking authorities that the Protocol of 1901 providing for open railway communication between Shanghai and Peking must be observed. On July 5 trains out of Peking were packed to overflowing with Chinese fleeing to Tientsin. A special train with a foreign detachment was stopped at Lang Fang by a republican General, who requested the passengers to turn back, as Chang Hsun's troops had torn up the tracks a mile further on. By this time the entire country, with the exception of three provinces, had declared its opposition to the Manchu movement. Tuan Chi-jui came out of his retirement, offering to take command of the republican army. Liang Chi-chao, who was such a force against Yuan Shih-kai, denounced the whole movement. The republican troops advanced upon Peking, and on July 7 American, Japanese, and British soldiers arrived at the capital, after having been detained at Fengtai, where firing between the opposing Chinese forces was in progress; several bullets struck the train, and a Japanese postman was injured. An airplane later dropped a bomb over Fengtai station and wrecked the shed. Chang Hsun's troops at Poama Chang retired inside the capital without fighting and concentrated at the Temple of Heaven. Another airplane flew over

the Forbidden City and dropped bombs. Chang Hsun, on July 8, resigned, but the abdication of the Emperor was not published, his protector holding out for favorable terms. Vice President Feng Kuo-chang assumed the office of Acting President at Nanking, which was declared the capital of the Provincial Government. Dr. Wu Ting-fang arrived in Shanghai with the seal of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, although on July 9 the Premier announced that he was dismissed from office. Several Ministers of the Manchu Cabinet on this day were captured while attempting to escape. Chang Hsun refusing to surrender and 50,000 republican troops having surrounded Peking, on July 12, at 4 A. M., the attack was begun in earnest. The battle continued nine hours. Several foreigners were wounded; fire broke out in the Forbidden City; Chang Hsun took refuge in the Dutch Legation, and the republican flag was raised over the Forbidden City. Several thousand of Chang Hsun's troops surrendered and were disarmed and sent back to Hsu-chowfu. On July 13 Chang Hsun's troops offered to surrender their arms upon payment of \$80,000. General Tuan Chi-jui accepted the offer by telegraph and arranged for a temporary loan from the Yokohama Special Bank to make the payment. Chang Hsun's internment came about by his visit to the Legation Quarter, which is neutral territory. He was trying to arrange for mediation. On July 14 Tuan Chi arrived in Peking. President Li left the Japanese Legation for his private residence. On July 15 Tuan Chi-jui assumed the office of Premier, though the southern provinces showed opposition to him. On July 16 Li Yuan-hung entered the Peking French Hospital. Dr. Sun Yat-sen and his party arrived in Canton from Swatow. In an interview he stated it was desirable that the southwestern provinces should be joined together for the restoration of the Provisional Constitution. On July 17 President Li, in a telegram to the provinces, refused to resume office. Mandates were issued appointing Wang Ta-hsieh Minister for Foreign Affairs, and Premier Tuan Chi-jui concurrently Minister of War. The Chin-Pu-Tang Party at Tientsin voted to support the Tuan Government. Acting President Feng Kuo-chang expressed his willingness to succeed Li Yuan-hung.—*New York Times Current History*, Nov., 1917, pp. 351-352.

1917.—Declaration of war against Germany and Austria-Hungary.—“On August 3 General Feng Kuo Chang, president of the Chinese Republic, declared war on Germany, and, on September 11, on Austria-Hungary. The problems of the newly re-established republic were many and vexed, and the step was taken, rumor has it, on the advice of the American minister, in the hope that the problems of facing a common enemy without might unify the factions at home and create for China the military strength and unity necessary to resist aggression. This was no longer feared from Europe, on the continental side, but Japan gave Chinese patriots constant anxiety. The cause of the republic had its most loyal champions in the return student bodies, but these were poorly organized and without any real community with the masses, whose mentality and outlook they did not understand and thus far could not modify. The numerous parties and provincial groups dividing the rest of that part of the Chinese population which was really awake to political issues were very weak in comparison with the provincial military governors who are gaining a mastery of the country. Between them civil war might break out at any time.”—*Political Science*

Quarterly (Supplement, Sept., 1918, p. 64).—Shortly after this the country was split in two and the revolutionary party of the south established its government at Canton. (See below, 1917-1918.)

1917 (November).—Lansing-Ishii agreement between the United States and Japan concerning China.—“On November 2, 1917, the Lansing-Ishii Agreement between America and Japan was signed at Washington. The agreement, embodied in an exchange of notes, defined the future attitude of these two countries toward China. Its important clauses were two in number: that the United States recognized Japan's ‘special interests’ in China; and that both the United States and Japan repledged themselves to observe the principle of the ‘open door’ and the territorial integrity of China. The agreement was the most important one which had been reached by America in relation to the Orient since the Hay proposal, in 1890, to uphold the principle of the ‘open door’; and its future bearing on international relations in the Orient will be large. The general affirmation of the ‘open door’ policy was the remedy proposed by America eighteen years before, to meet the dangerous situation fast developing in China. At that time the prospect of national disintegration and partition by the world powers seemed imminent. The history of China's relations with the other nations, with the single exception of the United States, was a long story of defeat and losses of Chinese territory and sovereign rights.”—W. R. Wheeler, *China and the World War*, pp. 102-103.—See also U. S. A.: 1907-1917.

1917-1918.—Election of President Hsu Shih-chang.—Two rival Parliaments.—Continued strife between northern militarists and southern constitutionalists.—Agreement for peace conference.—“The Republican Ministry under Tuan Chi-jui returned to power and Feng Kuo-chang remained acting President. The North, however, took no steps to conciliate the Southerners and the breach between the two parties widened. The accepted constitutional theory in Peking at this time was that, with the dissolution of Parliament, the situation reverted to the one which had existed in 1912, immediately after the promulgation of the Provisional Constitution and before the National Council had been replaced by a regular Parliament. Feng Kuo-chang accordingly convened a Council for the purpose of drafting new laws for the election of a new Parliament, and in accordance with the laws thus enacted (in February, 1918), which differed materially from the laws passed by the National Council in 1912, a new Parliament was elected. The opening session was held in August, 1918, and on September 4 the ex-premier, Hsu Shih-chang, was elected President of the Republic. Party faction prevented the election of a vice-president. The Peking reading of the situation did not satisfy Southern China or the members of the old Parliament, who had been a second time unseated. These were summoned to meet in Canton and to constitute the real representative body of the Republic. During the summer of 1918 a quorum of the old Parliament was obtained, and for the rest of the year China had two Parliaments—the one sitting at Peking, the other at Canton—each subscribing to the Provisional Constitution and claiming to be the sole legal legislative body of the Republic. The case of the Southerners or Constitutionalists was set forth in a manifesto (August, 1918), addressed ‘to the Foreign Powers,’ asking for ‘support of their righteous cause.’ . . . Throughout the whole of 1918 desultory fighting had been taking place between ‘North’

and 'South,' the chief provinces affected being Hunan, Szechuan, Kiangsi, Fukien, and Hupeh. The inability of the Northern party to make any headway in the campaign, the financial embarrassment of both sides, and the growing dissatisfaction with a state of affairs that promised to lead nowhere, were at last responsible for an attempt to find a *modus vivendi* for the two factions, and the President proclaimed an armistice when the news of the armistice in Europe reached China. Towards the end of 1918 it was agreed that a peace conference should be held. A controversy arose over the place of meeting, but eventually it was decided that the northern and southern delegates should deliberate in the native city of Shanghai (February, 1919).—*China Year Book*, 1919-1920, pp. 301-303.

1917-1918.—Legal import trade of opium at an end.—Destruction of stocks on hand. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1916-1918.

1917-1919.—Trouble with Siberia over railroad. See SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

1918.—Military agreement with Japan.—“The situation in Russia following the abdication of the Czar in March, 1917, was of special concern to the Allies. It was of vital importance to the two neighbouring Oriental supporters of the Allies, Japan and China. The northern boundaries of the Chinese Republics are contiguous for hundreds of miles with the boundaries of Siberia; any German penetration there would be felt at once in China. Japanese shipping, which included practically all of the vessels on the Pacific, would be menaced at once if the Germans should gain control of Vladivostok. Further, in its larger aspect of German control of Russia's resources and territory, presaging the establishment of a vast empire stretching from the North Sea to the Pacific, the Japanese saw a grave menace. The military danger of the German forces in Siberia seems to have been exaggerated, but there was every probability of economic control and domination. Japan could not take military measures to meet this situation unless it had the consent and support of its neighbour on the mainland, and consequently, soon after the revolution in Russia, negotiations were begun leading to a military agreement between China and Japan. The military agreement was signed May 16, 1918; the naval agreement, May 10th; the first public announcement was made in Tokio, May 30th. The whole affair was shrouded in much secrecy, and was the cause of endless comment and even suspicion in both countries, which was not wholly dispelled by the explanatory statement finally published. The first report concerning the proposed agreement became current in China in the Spring of 1917. Unfortunately it was associated in the minds of the Chinese with Group Five of the Twenty-one Demands made by Japan in January, 1915. These demands were forecasted by the secret statement of the Black Dragon Society, which spoke of a 'Defensive Military Alliance' between China and Japan as the ultimate goal of Japanese foreign policy. The fifth group of the Demands, it may be remembered, was the most severe, involving certain rights which, if granted to Japan, would infringe the sovereignty of China and make it practically a vassal nation. . . . Finally, on May 16th [1918], an official statement from both Peking and Tokyo was published, stating that an agreement had been reached. The fears of the Chinese were heightened by the fact that the officials would not publish the terms of the alliance. . . . Various versions have been published unofficially; a translation of one of

them which comes from semi-official sources, read as follows:

“ARTICLE 1. In view of the penetration of enemy influence into the eastern territory of Russia, and of the likelihood of the peace of the two contracting parties being disturbed thereby, China and Japan mutually agree actively to undertake the obligations of war-participation by measures designed jointly to guard against the action of the enemy.

“ARTICLE 2. The two countries shall mutually recognize and respect the equality of the other regarding position and interests in carrying out joint military measures.

“ARTICLE 3. When it is necessary to take action based on this agreement, orders will be issued by both China and Japan to their troops and people, calling on them to be frankly sincere in dealing with each other in the area of military operations; and the Chinese officials shall co-operate and assist the Japanese troops in the area involved so that there may be no hindrance to military movements. Japanese troops shall on their part respect Chinese sovereignty and shall not cause any inconvenience to the Chinese people by violating local customs and traditions.

“ARTICLE 4. Japanese troops in Chinese territory shall withdraw from China as soon as war is ended.

“ARTICLE 5. If it be found necessary to send troops outside of Chinese territory, troops will be jointly sent by the two countries.

“ARTICLE 6. The war area and war responsibilities shall be fixed by mutual arrangement of the military authorities of the two countries as and when occasion arises in accordance with their respective military resources.

“ARTICLE 7. In the interests of convenience, the military authorities of the two countries shall undertake the following affairs during the period necessary for the execution of joint measures: (1) The two countries shall mutually assist and facilitate each other in extending the means of communications (post and telegraph) in connection with military movements and transportation. (2) When necessary for war purposes construction operations may be carried on and the same shall be decided, when occasion arises, by mutual consent of the chief commanders of the two countries. The said construction-operation shall be removed when the war is ended. (3) The two countries shall mutually supply each other with military supplies and raw materials for the purpose of jointly guarding against the enemy. The quantity to be supplied shall be limited to the extent of not interfering with the necessary requirements of the country supplying the same. (4) Regarding questions of military sanitation in the war area the two countries shall render mutual assistance to each other. (5) Officers directly concerned with war operations shall mutually be sent by the two countries for co-operation. If one party should ask for the assistance of technical experts, the other shall supply the same. (6) For convenience, military maps of the area of war operations will be exchanged.

“ARTICLE 8. When the Chinese Eastern Railway is used for military transportation, the provisions of the original treaty relating to the management and protection of the said line shall be respected. The method of transportation shall be decided as occasion arises.

“ARTICLE 9. Details regarding the actual performance of this agreement shall be discussed by mutual agreement of the delegates appointed by

the Military Authorities of the two countries concerned.

"ARTICLE 10. Neither of the two countries shall disclose the contents of the agreement and its appendix, and the same shall be treated as military secrets.

"ARTICLE 11. The Agreement shall become valid when it is approved by both Governments after being signed by the Military representatives of the two countries. As to the proper moment for the beginning of war operations, the same shall be decided by the highest military organs of the two countries. The provisions of this agreement and the detailed steps arising therefrom shall become null and void on the day the joint war measures against the enemy end.

"ARTICLE 12. Two copies of the Chinese and of the Japanese text of this agreement shall be drawn; one of each shall be kept by China and Japan. The Chinese and Japanese texts shall be identical in meaning."—W. R. Wheeler, *China and the World War*, pp. 127-132; 138-142.

1918.—Public health law. See PUBLIC HEALTH: CHINA.

1918.—Japanese importation of opium through China. See OPIUM PROBLEM: 1918.

1918 (November).—Phonetic writing introduced.—"Something is happening in China which will undoubtedly leave its historical impression. Veteran traders and missionaries discuss the possibilities seriously and, if they have a love for the vast, unhappy nation, with great hope and joy. The immense republic, they say, may sweep into the forefront of modern civilization much sooner than the most sanguine had expected. The new simplified National Phonetic Writing, they report, is making most amazing progress. It is as easy for the Chinese to learn to read and write now as it is for the American boy. The graduate of a Chinese Governmental College is, after many years of study, supposed to know about 40,000 ideographs or thought characters; this as compared to about 4,000 words in the vocabulary of the usual American. F. W. Bible, a Presbyterian missionary from Hangchow, told me that the pupils in Christian schools mastered the new system in a month as compared with the five or six years needed for the old ideograph system. Some illiterates are taught to read in two weeks with lessons of two hours a day. . . . Of China's four hundred million or more inhabitants only about five per cent. can read at all, and no more than two per cent. are real masters of the written language. It is quite possible that 375,000,000 Chinese may learn to read and write within one generation, or even in the next ten years. Anyone who knows China realizes that the Chinese do not stand behind the men of any other race in intelligence. In literature alone the performances of the past would lead us to expect that a literate China would produce something of inestimable value to the whole world. . . . Chu Yin Tzu-Mu, as it is called, is not the first attempt to give China a rational writing. It had thirty or forty predecessors. The Christian missionaries have always been busy on the problem. Attempts at Romanization, or writing in characters similar to English, failed dismally. The system of Wang Chao, a Chinese scholar, had some success; but the Chinese as a whole did not show great interest. The new system is a decided improvement on Wang Chao's construction and all those that have gone before. To understand it, one must remember that Chinese is entirely made up of monosyllables. There are only 420 monosyllables in the Pekingese official dialect. The num-

ber of words in the Imperial Dictionary of K'ang Hai, two centuries old, but still the standard, is 44,449. Each monosyllable on the average has 105 meanings. These are distinguished in two ways; first, by the slight differences of pronunciation, and second, by the association of one word with the word next to it. It must be remembered that each of these 105 variations of the same monosyllable is an entirely distinct word to the Chinese, and each has an ideograph which bears no suggestion of the 104. It is easy to see why Romanization failed. In a little dictionary which the missionaries tried to use were 165 characters Romanized as 'chi' and 178 as 'i' (pronounced like English 'e'). Chu Yin Tzu-Mu uses thirty-nine symbols, twenty-four initials, twelve finals and three medials, or connecting sounds. These do not even remotely suggest Roman characters, but they represent all the sounds of what is to be the new national language. Because the Chinese themselves are pushing the system it is going through the country very fast. The previous systems were handicapped for the most part by being foreign. Chinese pride and conservatism smothered them. But it seems there has really come a change over the spirit of China. Repeated humiliations are getting deep underneath the skin. Her educated and intelligent thinkers have been pondering on what is wrong and realized gradually that they must have a national spirit and a national patriotism comparable to the Western nations. To accomplish this they decided China must have a national language and a method of reading and writing everywhere understood, so that there could be quick nation-wide dissemination of ideas. The new National Language was founded on the so-called Mandarin. This was already spoken in fifteen out of the eighteen provinces, for the southern coast provinces have a quite different speech. But the pronunciation of Mandarin varied so much that natives of different provinces often were unable to understand each other. To overcome this difficulty a standardized pronunciation was adopted. The pronunciation was fixed for about 800 words, and all the rest grouped themselves naturally around these. It is believed that in the course of time this will be the accepted tongue of China, except in the far isolated districts. Then in the fall of 1918 a special congress of representatives of all the provinces, called by the National Ministry of Education, officially adopted Chi Yin Tzu-Mu as the written language of China. A government decree to this effect, Order No. 75, was promulgated November 23, 1918.

"The method taken to spread the language was to teach it first in the government normal schools, then in the lower normal schools, and finally on down through the grades to the primary schools. Progress was very rapid. In the Province of Shansi the Governor appointed lecturers to go into even remote towns. Where he found the old conservatives hampering him he forced the merchants to attend the classes under threat of dire punishment. . . . One thing more the new writing has done—it has given China the typewriter. Chinese merchants indeed used a kind of typewriter for the old ideographs, but it had 8,000 characters, and its only function was to make carbon copies of letters of importance. Now several American typewriter companies are putting Chinese typewriters on the market and preparing to push them vigorously."—H. C. Reynolds (*Asia*, November, 1919, pp. 1143-1147).

1919.—Child labor legislation. See CHILD WELFARE LEGISLATION: 1911-1919.

1919.—Independence of Mongolia cancelled. See MONGOLIA: 1919.

1919.—Shantung controversy.—“In the absence of any recent formal declaration by the Japanese Government as to its intentions concerning Kiaochou and Shantung, one is forced to quote such statements as have been made since the opening of the war. In presenting an ultimatum to Germany on August 15, 1914, Japan made two demands, the second of which was:

“To deliver on a date not later than September 15 to the Imperial Japanese authorities, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiaochou, with a view to the eventual restoration of the same to China.” . . .

“The clear, unmistakable meaning of the ultimatum is that Japan intended to restore eventually to China ‘the entire leased territory of Kiaochou,’ and yet when the ultimatum to China was presented, in May of the following year, it carried with it a forced consent to an exchange of notes ‘respecting the restoration of the leased territory of Kiaochou Bay,’ which materially changed for Japan’s benefit the original plain declaration. The notes which were finally exchanged, May 25, 1915, were as follows: When, after the termination of the present war, the leased territory of Kiaochou Bay is completely left to the free disposal of Japan, the Japanese Government will restore the said leased territory to China under the following conditions: (1) The whole of Kiaochou Bay to be opened as a commercial port. (2) A concession under the exclusive jurisdiction of Japan to be established at a place designated by the Japanese Government. (3) If the foreign Powers desire it, an international concession may be established. (4) As regards the disposal to be made of the buildings and properties of Germany and the conditions and procedure relating thereto, the Japanese Government and the Chinese Government shall arrange the matter by mutual agreement before the restoration.’ . . .

“China’s position in Shantung has been rendered most embarrassing and difficult by two experiences which seem to have been caused by the unnecessary aggressiveness of Japan in attaining her purpose of destroying German influence in the Far East. The first of these was in the landing of Japanese troops in 1914 at Lungkow instead of some place near Kiaochou or even within the Kiaochou zone. Lungkow is approximately 200 miles from Tsingtao, where the German fortifications were located. The Chinese Government, which could easily have sent troops to capture Kiaochou, if she had been allowed to undertake the job, desired to have it done with the least possible disturbance to the people of Shantung province and naturally objected to the Japanese proposal to land troops at such a distance from their goal. . . . The second grievance occurred in October, 1917, when the Japanese Government issued an official statement that the military administration of Tsingtao had been abolished and that a civil administration had been established in its place. It was said that this was designed to improve the administration of the territory in general and also of the railways and mines, as well as to promote the welfare of the inhabitants by bringing about more friendly relations with them. This establishment of civil government over the whole length of the railway was such a gross infraction of the sovereign rights of China that the Chinese Government promptly protested against it, but it has never been formally abolished. The whole problem of ousting Germany from Kiaochou

could have been such a simple one that its present complexity can only be accounted for on the supposition that it has been deliberately brought about. In 1914 Japan could have sought the co-operation of China in capturing Kiaochou and could then have earned the eternal gratitude of the Chinese people by promptly withdrawing and allowing China to re-establish her government. This would have placed Japan in a position even more enviable than that now occupied by the United States on account of the remission of a portion of the Boxer indemnity. Instead of having followed this straight and narrow path, which would have led to an honorable record for herself and have earned the hearty good-will of the Chinese people, she chose the tortuous road of compromising statements and conflicting actions, with the only goal in sight at present of an increasing hatred on the part of China and a widening suspicion of her motives by her allies.” —J. C. Ferguson, *Pan-Nipponism (Asia, Sept., 1919, pp. 892, 893)*.—See also U. S. A.: 1919-1921; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part IV.: Section VIII.

1919.—Consortium agreement.—“A consortium or joint loan agreement for financing Chinese loans was effected at Paris, May 12, by American, French, British, and Japanese bankers. A reservation was made for later participation by Belgian bankers. Thomas W. Lamont of the United States (a member of J. P. Morgan & Co.) presided at the meeting. Others who attended were Sir Charles S. Addis of Great Britain, M. Simon of France, and Mr. Adagiri of Japan. The general agreement provided that, at the suggestion of the United States and with the sanction of the French, British, and Japanese governments, the banking groups will combine their interests to make joint financial administrative, and industrial loans to the Chinese Government.”—*New York Times Current History, June, 1919, p. 427*.

1919 (June).—Represented at Paris conference.—Treaty of Versailles. See PARIS, CONFERENCE OF: Outline of work; VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

1919 (June).—Germany renounces all claims and properties in Hankow and Tientsin to China by Treaty of Versailles. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Part IV.: Section II.

1919 (Sept. 10).—Treaty of St. Germain ending war with Austria.—All privileges renounced. See ST. GERMAIN, TREATY OF: Part IV.: Section IV.

1919-1920. — Anti-Japanese boycott. — Fuchow incident.—Continued civil strife.—Changes in government.—Completion of consortium arrangement.—Peace with Germany proclaimed.—“In spite of the many utterances of Japanese publicists and statesmen, insisting that it was Japan’s irrevocable intention to restore Shantung in full sovereignty to China, intense resentment over the Shantung provisions of the Peace Treaty continued to find expression throughout the year. On September 14 Dr. Paul S. Reinsch tendered his resignation as United States Minister to China because of his opposition to the Shantung Settlement. Upon his return to the United States on October 9 he stated that the Chinese boycott of all things Japanese was being so efficiently maintained that Japanese interests were sustaining enormous losses. Evidence of this was indicated by the serious decline in the trade of Japanese steamship companies, which fell from 154 tons per trip in 1918 to an average of barely 71 tons per trip in 1919. The Japanese brought strong pressure to bear on the Peking government in an

effort to end the boycott, but it still (July 1, 1920) continues, threats and persuasions notwithstanding. A grave crisis was narrowly averted as a result of disorders at Fuchow on November 16 [1919], when a number of Chinese were killed or wounded by Japanese residents. In consequence the Chinese government on December 1 demanded that the Japanese consul at Fuchow be removed; that Japan pay an indemnity for all Chinese lives lost as a result of these attacks, as well as the cost of all medical expenses incurred by the wounded Chinese; that adequate punishment be meted out to the Japanese ringleaders; and that the Japanese consul at Fuchow apologize to the Chinese authorities of that city. Throughout China anti-Japanese feeling ran high, and it was intensified by the arrival of four Japanese warships at Fuchow. The situation, although relieved by a Japanese announcement on December 31 to the effect that the war vessels would be withdrawn, was not materially improved, as neither the boycott nor the Chinese attitude of hostility suffered any visible change. Relations were not improved by the refusal of China to open negotiations regarding territory ceded under the treaty. The disunity and disorganization resulting from inter-party strife and civil war between the two most important sections of the country have continued to prevail, and efforts toward reconciliation, although not infrequent, have thus far failed. In October the chieftains of Outer Mongolia announced their intention of cancelling the autonomy which Russia had induced them to proclaim in 1912; their request of November for reunion with China was granted.—Early in January [1920] the organization of a new cabinet under General Chin Yun-Peng, formerly acting President, was thought to mark the end of the bitter strife between the political groups in Peking as well as to open the way for the conclusion of civil war. In this cabinet General Chin Yun-Peng became Prime Minister and Minister of War; associated with him were Lu Tseng-Shiang, Foreign Affairs; T'ien Wen Lioh, Interior, Commerce and Agriculture; Li Hsu-Ho, Finance; Admiral Sah Cheng-Ping, Navy; Chu Slien, Justice; Tseng Yuchun, Communications. This government was constantly hampered by the Anfu or Conservatives, who favored opening negotiations with Japan. On February 19 the Minister of Foreign Affairs and Cheng-Lu, Vice-Foreign Minister, were forced out of office for opposing such negotiations; ten days later the Prime Minister resigned for the same reason, but subsequently reconsidered his resignation after a compromise agreement had been reached. Early in May, however, he again resigned, being succeeded by Admiral Sah Cheng-Ping.—It was officially announced on March 21 that the Chinese government had received expressions of goodwill from Soviet Russia. A proffer of peace has also been made, based on the renunciation of Russia's share of the Boxer indemnity, and on the transference to China of the right to control the Chinese Eastern Railway.—The details of the consortium agreement for financing China have finally been arranged. All loans by banking groups of the United States must have the approval of the State Department, and the same procedure is to be followed in other countries. Japan will have the right to object to loans for any project which in her opinion will jeopardize her national life or vitally affect her sovereignty.—Although China has steadfastly refused to sign the Treaty of Versailles, the Parliament on August 8 authorized the President to issue a mandate declaring an

end to the state of war with Germany. Ratification of the Treaty of St. Germain, entitling China to participation in the League of Nations, occurred on June 21.—*Political Science Quarterly* (Supplement, Sept., 1920, pp. 142-143).

1920.—Leading parties and personalities in the Civil War.—Anfu army under Tuan Chi-jui defeated by General Wu.—“Nominally, the war is a civil war between north and south. Really, one does not know what it is. [Some authorities consider it a war between reactionary militarists and progressive nationalists.] Instead of two parties facing each other, there are actually four factions checkmating each other in a fashion that reminds us strongly of Machiavelli. The four factions are: The Anfu Club, the Chih-li group, the Kuo-ming-ton and the Kwei group. Why did the north split into the Anfu and Chih-li groups? In the matter of political principle, there are two differences between them: the Anfu Club pursues a pro-Japanese policy and desires to suppress the South by force of arms—two things which the Chih-li group cannot accept. How sincere the two factions are in their belief of these principles one should not judge too off-handedly; one does know that personal motives have contributed largely to the split of the North. The Anfu Club is composed mostly of men from the province of Anhwei, with General Tuan as their leader. When President Yuan Shih-kai died, the leadership of the North fell to General Tuan. It is said that he favored Anhwei men in his appointments, a partiality greatly resented by the Chih-li men, who had also served valiantly under President Yuan. Among the Chih-li men was President Feng Kuo-chang, who became naturally their leader. President Feng and Premier Tuan intrigued against each other in all possible ways. When Premier Tuan ordered troops to fight the South, the three provinces of Kiangsu, Kiangsi and Hupeh, all occupying strategic positions along the Yangtze and controlled by the President's followers, not only would not help, but even made their neutrality friendly to the South. But the two factions never came to an open fight till July of this year [1920], under President Hsu Shih-chang. President Hsu has never openly identified himself with any faction. He is, however, in favor of peace with the South, and is opposed in that by the Anfu Club. He has favored Chih-li men in both Cabinet and Tuchun [military governor] appointments. The recent fighting around Peking illustrates clearly how the two factions intrigue against each other. Next to General Tuan in control of the Anfu Club is General Hsu Shu-tseng, commonly called 'little Hsu.' He was the Commissioner in Mongolia, and had under his command an enormous army. To the east of his post is Manchuria, controlled by General Chang Tso-lin, a Chih-li man, and to the south is the province of Chih-li, controlled by Tsao Kun, also a Chih-li man. These two men had three grievances against Anfu: They alleged that 'little Hsu' wanted to replace them, thus bringing the solid North under Anfu; they also charged that the Minister of Finance, an Anfu man, supplied funds to Anfu troops regularly, but not to their (Chih-li) troops; furthermore, they said that the resignation of Premier Ching Yun-pen was caused by the pressure of Anfu. President Hsu dismissed 'little Hsu' from his post in Mongolia; 'little Hsu' openly defied Presidential orders. Chang Tso-lin and Tsao Kun embraced the cause of the President and started to punish 'little Hsu.' General Tuan took up the cause of 'little Hsu' and was badly beaten [by Gen. Wu Pei-fu,

the military governor of South Central China]. . . . The dissension among leaders of the South is still more disappointing. Here, as in the North, personal motives count for a great deal. The southern government originally consisted of a part of the old Parliament and of an administration directorate of seven men, including Sun Yat-sen, Wu Ting-fang, Tang Shao-yi, Chen Chun-hsien and Lu Yuan-ting.

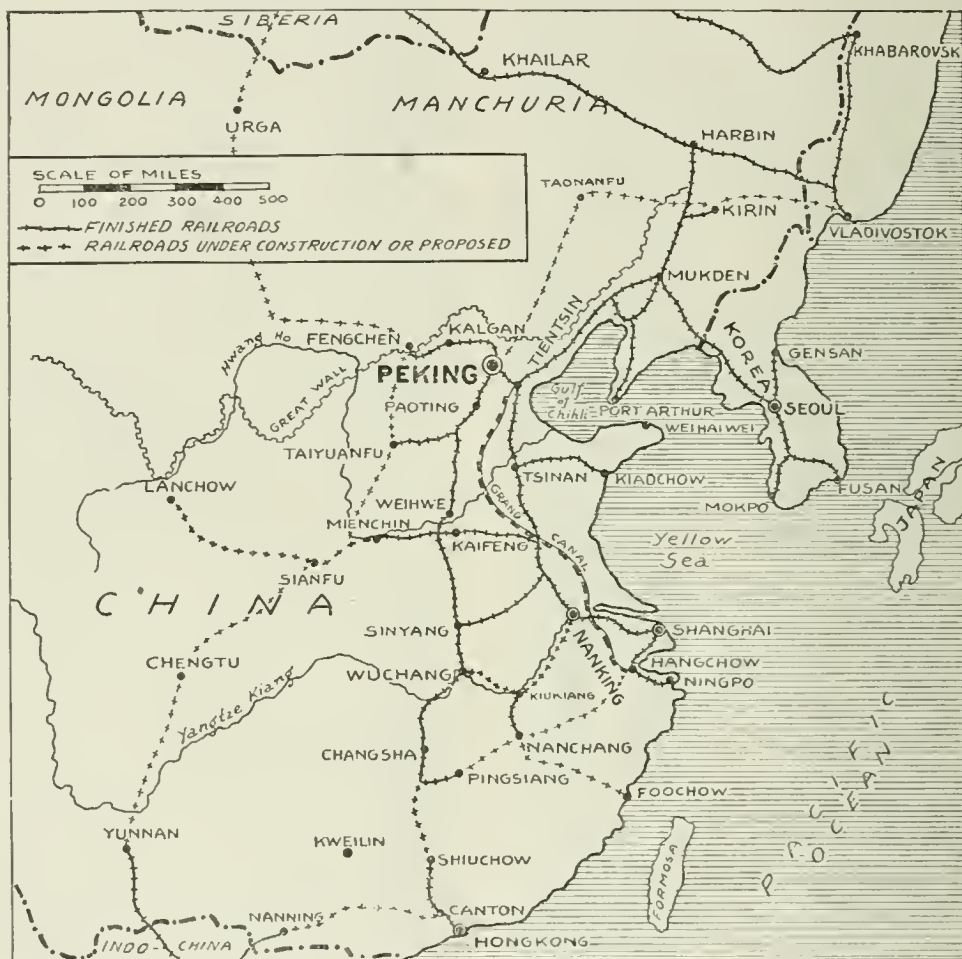
"In Government the four groups are more or less cohesive. Each province with its Tuchun is quite independent of the others. Between the groups the relation is not definite. There are constant public telegraphic consultations of one with the other. Nominally, they are at war with each other, actually they guard their own borders and fight only rarely. Besides the Tuchun or military governor, each province has a civil governor, who is overshadowed in many places by his military colleague and a provincial assembly. Each province attends to its own education and has its own troops. The Central Government at Peking is the only one recognized by foreign nations. It has a President, a Cabinet, a Parliament of two Houses and a Supreme Court. Although it will be long before these various organs will function properly, each in its own defined sphere, the general framework of government will stay. The Supreme Court has done good work. Chief Justice Yao Tseng has compiled a volume of decisions rendered by the court, which will serve as law in future cases. A Law Codification Commission has been at work systematizing the laws of the land. Thus the country is gradually emerging from custom law into positive written law. Prison reform is also being pushed [see PRISON REFORM: China], with a number of model prisons scattered over the country."—*New York Times Current History*, Sept., 1920, pp. 994-996.

1920.—Development of journalism.—"That journalism in China has taken remarkable strides forward in recent years goes without saying, notwithstanding that it was in the days of the Ming dynasty when the first newspaper—the *Kung Men Chao* or *The Imperial Court Gazette*, of Peking—was published in the Middle Kingdom. But it is interesting to note the various phases of such progress. We will not attempt to estimate the number of newspapers in actual existence throughout the Republic, since it is never easy to get at precise figures, but it is surprising that more and more foreign newspapers are also entering this interesting field to enlighten Chinese public opinion. For example, many so-called native papers are really Japanese owned, yet their 'we Chinese' and 'our country' are meant to lead the unwary astray. In addition the same nationals are also starting professedly Japanese organs in the English language in Peking, Tientsin, etc., so that Dai Nippon's aims and policies *vis-à-vis* the Chinese may not be misunderstood by Americans and Europeans. Finally there is also the interesting fact that not a few foreign dailies have begun to publish Chinese editions, notably the *Peking and Tientsin Times* and *Le Journal de Peking*. Until democracy as it is definitely understood in the West, is fairly enthroned in this country, it seems that the phenomenon of what the Chinese call 'political-parties-subsidized' papers will always exist, especially as the art of advertising is still an almost unknown aid to Chinese merchants. Even then within such circumscribed limits the enterprising among the Chinese journalists are endeavoring to live up to the ideals and traditions of their noble profession. Consequently, apart from taking sides where they are expected or constrained to do so,

these editors have a considerable field to explore in the way of enlightening public opinion. And this is especially true of their non-political news pages—the literary sheets—with the result that not only serial stories are regularly appearing but translations from foreign fiction—e.g., Carpenter's 'Love's Coming of Age'—are also becoming increasingly popular. A decade ago a favourite 'stunt' with the native newspapers in Shanghai—that holiest of holies of extra-territoriality—was to heap coals of satire and ridicule upon the heads of Chinese officialdom. . . . Nevertheless, patriotic Chinese will yet for many a long day have to do incessant spade work to cleanse the Augean stable of official corruption in this country. And until the hearts of Chinese officials are purged of all forms of uncleanness, it may be doubted if Democracy can be really enthroned on the pedestal of China's body politics. . . . But the predominant note which is being struck in the majority of Chinese journals is one of reconstruction. . . . The most effective method for this purpose is to bestir the wealth-producing elements and assist them in all possible directions. Those who can read the ordinary newspapers do not need much persuasion in this matter, and already they have done more than their level share to make themselves as well as their country prosperous. But the vast majority who are unable to wade through the journals written in classical Chinese style deserve all possible encouragement. . . . According to its advocates, notably Prof. Dr. Suh Hu, of the Peking Government University, the *pai hua* (plain language or vulgate Chinese) should be the new language for this country, because it is the spoken language and most truly represents the life and needs of the people. The old classical 'literary language' is dead, and no longer a sufficient medium for creative literary productions: 'Only a living language is fit for the production of a living literature.' What is most important, the old *wen-li* style is accessible only to the educated classes, whereas the new movement aims to open the literary riches of the world, etc., to the greatest number of people. . . . Hence more and more papers are being published in the *pai-hua* style. There are several scientific and philosophical works now published in the spoken language. Editors of several newspapers, such as the *Kuo Min K'un Pao* of Peking, and the *Shih Shih Hsin Pao*, of Shanghai, are now writing their editorials in it. Other periodicals, notably the *Weekly Review* of Peking, and the *Renaissance*, a new monthly edited by the students of the Peking Government University, are publishing vulgate articles and verses in their columns. Last but not least, Mr. Liang Chi-chao, whose writings have greatly influenced the Chinese for almost twenty years, is now writing his Sunday law-sermons in the spoken language. Notwithstanding the opposition of the classical or literary school, it seems that the *pai-hua* has come to stay. Hence many native newspapers have also their extra *pai-hua sheets*, either distinct from the main issues or complementary to them, exclusively for the less educated classes. . . . A recent number of 'Emancipation and Reconstruction' thus includes the following among its bill of fare:—woman suffrage, co-education, the fight for woman's economic independence, the abolition of prostitution and concubinage, etc. Feminists in China may or may not be sanguine over their rosy expectations, but there is no denying the fact that the movement in favor of woman's emancipation has more than begun. . . . [See WOMAN'S RIGHTS: 1900-1921.] The *Shun Pao*,

established in 1872, or during the reign of Tung-Chi of the Ching Dynasty, is the oldest newspaper in China. Its head office is a modern five-storied concrete building, built by the American Trading Company, at 24 Hankow Road, Shanghai. There are more than a hundred rooms in the building, certain of which are divided into three departments—business, editorial and printing. There is also a library, photo-engraving rooms, artists' quarters, and a staff club. The printing machinery is of the latest American type. Forty-eight pages can be printed at a time and 48,000 copies of 12 pages can be printed, folded, deliv-

Railway, of 2 ft. 6 in. gauge, which was built by foreign enterprise and was formally opened on June 30, 1876. It was subsequently 'redeemed' by the Chinese, and when the last instalment of the purchase money was paid in October, 1877, the rails were torn up and shipped to Formosa. Ten years later, however, a railway was in operation between Tongshan and Tientsin—the nucleus of the present Peking-Mukden Railway—and in 1897 the section from Peking to Tientsin was opened. China now possesses 6,835 miles of railway, with 2,000 miles more 'under construction.' An Imperial Edict of May 9, 1911, ordered that all trunk



RAILROAD LINES IN CHINA

ered and counted in an hour. . . . The library contains a complete set of old *Shun Pao* publications covering a period of 47 years. Owing to the old establishment of the paper it has a wide circulation which extends to every city in the interior of China, the South Sea Islands, Annam, Korea, Europe and America."—*Far Eastern Review*, March, 1920, pp. 201-203.

1920.—Missions committee on phonetic script. See MISSIONS, CHRISTIAN: China.

1920.—Exclusion of Chinese immigrants from Canada. See IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION: Canada: 1920.

1920.—Growth of the railway system.—"China's railway history began with the Woosung

lines, under construction or projected, were to be taken over by the Government, while branch railways were 'to be allowed to be undertaken by the people according to their ability.' This order, which contributed to the unrest that came to a head in the Revolution in October, 1911, had special reference to the Szechuan-Hupeh Railway and the Canton-Hankow Railway. Under the Republic steps have been taken to nationalize railway expansion in China. The movement for keeping railways in the hands of the provinces through which they ran has given place to an appreciation of the advantages of a national system. The present resources of China are not equal to providing the country with the network of railways

it requires; but the Government is able to build a certain number of lines and to arrange for the construction of others on terms that do not clash with China's sovereign rights, and are satisfactory to those who contribute the capital. Something in the nature of a railway programme has been agreed upon, and will be carried out as occasion and funds offer. At the same time a distinct effort has been made to unify railway accounts and statistics. A commission for this purpose was appointed in 1913, under the presidency of Yeh Kung-ch'ò and C. C. Wang, and the services of Dr. Henry C. Adams, of the United States Interstate Commerce Commission, as adviser were secured. As a result of its labours the various railway systems of whatever nationality have adopted a uniform system of accounts, and statistics of Government Railways in China for the two half-years in 1915 have been issued."—*China Year Book*, 1919-1920, p. 214.—See also RAILROADS: 1876-1921.

1920.—Failure of the victorious generals to unite China.—Signs of impending conflict between Chang Tso-lin and President Hsu.—“When, by force of arms, Tuan Chi-jui, Little Hsü, and other leaders of the so-called ‘Militarist’ faction had been driven from power, it was hoped that the victorious general, Wu Pei-fu, with Chang Tso-lin to support him, would be able to carry through his plan of convening a Citizens’ Convention, and thus put an end to the strife of rival Parliaments. Hopes were forcibly expressed by Young China’s organs at Shanghai and in the South that the downfall of Tuan’s party meant the end of Japanese ascendancy and a prospect of popular government in a united country. But what are the actual results of the struggle? No sooner had the Chihli party, headed by the President and the Tuchuns Chang Tso-lin and Tsao Kun, defeated their opponents, than new symptoms of strife became manifest in the camp of the victors. Some of them (notably the President) began to display unmistakable signs of sympathy for the defeated Anfu leaders who had sought refuge and protection as guests of the Japanese Minister. Tuan Chi-jui, allowed to retire, with the honours and profits of war, is living as a prosperous citizen in close proximity to the Presidential mansion. Little Hsü, for whose arrest a large reward was originally offered, has been allowed to escape from the Japanese Legation and is believed to have returned to his former stamping-grounds in Mongolia. The ‘two traitors,’ Tsao Ju-lin and Lu Tsung-ju, removed from office in disgrace as the result of the students’ violent agitation two years ago because of their financial dealings with Japan, are now [written in 1921] the President’s honoured guests and confidential advisers. General Wu Pei-fu has been relegated to the background by common consent of the scheming politicians, and with him the National Convention idea has been quietly shelved. . . . Hardly had they made an end of congratulations and rejoicings over the defeat of the Anfu faction, than Chang Tso-lin and Tsao Kun began insisting on their respective claims to any money that might be forthcoming, for payment of the expenses of their week’s campaign (the combined total of these claims, as stated by the native press, amounting to some \$40,000,000). At the same time, they began to compete with each other to secure the disbanded troops of the two Frontier Defence Corps, while the President, on his side, proceeded to strengthen his own hand by recruiting two new brigades of troops through his representative, Wang Huai-ching. So, while the shadow

of famine spread darkly over the Northern provinces, these leaders of the people continued to squander the public substance and to show new seeds of civil strife.”—J. O. P. Bland, *China, Japan and Korea*, pp. 107-109.

1920.—Severe famine.—Relief from the United States.—Famines in China are frequent and devastating. From earliest days the inhabitants of whole provinces have been decimated by this dread spectre, but due to the unusual density of its population the nation recovers and thrives. Among the various causes that operate to bring about these famines are the periodic floods, the dependence of the country on agriculture and the poor transportation system. The Hwang-ho and Yangtze-Kiang are extremely difficult to control (see above, Geography of China proper), and draining as they do vast territories, thickly peopled, they spread death and ruin when they burst their banks. Although it is most often the rivers that are responsible for famines, droughts and scales not infrequently destroy the crops, and since the Chinese are primarily a grain-eating race and fundamentally dependent on agriculture, the results are disastrous. To make matters worse, China has lacked an adequate transportation system and in times of dire want food cannot be carried in any quantity from one province where it is plentiful to another which is starving. Among the most terrible famines of recent years are those in 1878, 1888, 1906 and 1920. China, continually in difficulties with Japan, torn by civil war, burdened with debts and beset with difficulties from every side, is compelled, in addition, to face a national catastrophe in the terrible conditions of famine prevailing in four of its richest provinces. The South of Chihli, the whole of Honan north of the Yellow River, and the western part of Shantung, an area the population of which is normally from 30,000,000 to 40,000,000 people, were for many months without rain, with the result of an almost total failure of crops. By October thousands on thousands were reported to be dying of starvation; people were living on leaves and bark; desperate families were selling or drowning their children; famine refugees were trekking over the naked roads to points of relief. The stories told by eyewitnesses were pitiful in the extreme. Both the Peking Government and the foreign legations took active measures to relieve the famine sufferers. The Chinese Ministries of Finance, Agriculture and Interior appointed a commission to dispense a fund of \$1,000,000 to be raised by means of a short-term loan. Another fund of \$1,800,000 was undertaken by seven of the southern provinces at the instigation of Tang Shao-li, the Constitutionalist leader. Among other relief organizations was a committee created by the American Minister, Charles R. Crane. But, despite all efforts, Famine, the Third Horseman of the Apocalypse, pursued its inexorable course.”—*Famine and strife in China (New York Times Current History, December, 1920, pp. 458, 459.)*

1920 (December).—Plans for new government by Constitutionalist party.—Continued quarrel of the Tuchuns.—Chang Tso-lin’s ascendancy.—The military government which had been set up in 1918 at Canton by Sun Yat-sen’s party, disintegrated during 1920 and the southern provinces drifted apart from each other. Before the close of the year, however, plans were being made for a new “constitutionalist” government. “Peking, Dec. 24.—Sun Yat-sen, Dr. Wu Ting-fang, Tang Shao-yi and others, leaders of what is called the ‘Constitutionalist’ faction, until recently entrenched in Shanghai, have gone to Canton and are busy

with the organization of a new government to supersede or rejuvenate the defunct 'Canton Military government.' They propose, it is understood here, to call theirs an 'extraordinary' government, and its purpose is to call an 'extraordinary' parliament and elect an 'extraordinary' President in the person of Sun Yat-sen. After union with the north has been effected they propose to drop the term 'extraordinary' and become the government for all of China. Dr. Sun is said to have issued a call to each of the ninety-six districts in the Province of Kwantung to contribute \$30,000, to be employed in the organization of the new government and in the training of troops, including 30,000 for a special bodyguard. He is further alleged to have in mind a union of the southern and southwestern provinces into a 'constitution preserving league,' with the object of presenting a united front against the north. In the opinion of observers in Peking, however, this effort in the south is eclipsed by interest in the alleged three-cornered fight for domination between General Chang Tso-lin, in Mukden; General Tsao Kun, in Paotingfu, and the President in Peking. A great deal of jockeying has been going on between the two military factors, and it is even alleged that the Urga rebellion has been staged by Chang Tso-lin in order to furnish an excuse to send some of Tso Kun's troops there and thus weaken his position. The latter, though, seemingly is alive to the strategy in question, and has refused to send troops, arguing that it is General Chang's territory and the responsibility is his. There are persistent rumors, which are as persistently denied in official quarters, that a Cabinet reorganization is pending and that the next Cabinet will be more subservient to Chang Tso-lin.—*New York Tribune*, Jan. 23, 1921.

1921.—Japanese interest in consortium in China. See JAPAN: 1918-1921: As third of the great world powers.

1921.—Status of education. See EDUCATION: Modern developments: 20th century: General education: China; RECREATION: 1914-1921.

1921.—Question of Chinese Eastern Railway. See RAILROADS: 1876-1921.

1921.—China and Monroe Doctrine in League of Nations Covenant.—On April 5 the Chinese government submitted an amendment to Article 21 of the League Covenant to the Amendment Committee of the League of Nations at Geneva. Article 21 of the Covenant reads:—"Nothing in this covenant shall be deemed to affect the validity of international agreements, such as treaties of arbitration or regional understandings like the Monroe Doctrine, for securing the maintenance of peace." The amendment proposed by China read:—"The Monroe Doctrine is recognized as not incompatible with any disposition of the present compact."

1921 (July).—Chino-German agreement.—"The general agreement between China and Germany which became effective on the first of the present month [July, 1921], must in many ways be regarded as a signal triumph for German diplomacy. It is true that, superficially viewed, the agreement amounts to no more than a full restoration, with certain necessary changes, of the status quo ante bellum. But when the nature of Germany's relations with China, especially in the matter of trade, before the war are understood, the significance of the present agreement is at once appreciated. Germany has evidently laid herself out to treat China with marked liberality. The attitude of a grudging, not to say truculent, submission to a force majeure, so evident in her dealings with the other Allies, is entirely absent in the case of

China. Germany shows herself all eagerness to repair wrongs, to meet expenditures, and to offer reparation on a liberal scale. Thus, in a note accompanying the agreement from the German representative to the Chinese Minister of Foreign Affairs, it is declared that, in addition to indemnifying China according to the terms set forth in the treaty of Versailles, Germany is also willing to refund to the Chinese authorities the internment expenses of German militarists in China. As to the war indemnity, this note declares that Germany agrees to pay in advance a portion thereof in a lump sum, equal to one-half of the proceeds from the liquidated German property and a half of the values of the sequestered, but not yet liquidated, German property. This lump sum will be paid, as to \$4,000,000, in cash, and as to the balance in Tsin-Pu and Hu-Kwang railway bonds. In return for these and other undertakings, China agrees that, immediately on ratification, China's Trading with the Enemy Act will cease to be effective, and all German trade-marks which had been recognized at the custom house will recover their validity, if again registered by the owner; that Germany may appoint her consuls and consular agents in China as before the rupture of diplomatic relations; and that, whilst China shall enjoy, as regards Germany, complete fiscal autonomy, she agrees that the German trader shall never be called upon to pay 'any imposts, taxes or contributions' higher than those paid by the Chinese themselves. The agreement is at all points entirely reciprocal, but, in view of the fact that the Chinese trader in Germany is quite a negligible quantity, whilst the German trader in China, in the days before the war, was the most important foreign trader in China, the exact value of this reciprocity is apparent. The fact is that the outbreak of the war, in 1914, interrupted in China one of the most astounding pieces of trade exploitation which Germany had ever undertaken. Germany was engaged in a tremendous effort to monopolize the Chinese market, and to this end nothing was spared. German subsidized goods literally flooded China, and the German merchant, by a persistent policy of underselling, was fast ousting all competitors and making giant strides toward securing the monopoly aimed at."—*Christian Science Monitor*, July 19, 1921.

1921-1922.—Position of the Tuchuns.—President Hsu forced by General Chang to accept a dictated cabinet.—Premier Liang Shi-yi forced to resign by General Wu.—"North and South, not to mention East and West, are still at war [1921], in the sense that five super-Tuchuns and seventeen lesser satraps maintain armed forces in the field, and even more on paper. But these forces are not seriously engaged in any systematic warfare for the assertion of clearly-defined political principles. The only real warfare now waged is the same old struggle for place and patronage and pelf which has gone on, grim and silent, for centuries around and about the seats of the mighty in Peking. Moreover, there is no longer any serious pretence of vital difference between North and South. . . . And the real question in China to-day is, how to limit the power and rapacity of these Tuchuns, how to bring under the authority of the Central Government those who, during the past six years, have had time not only to taste the sweets of independent power, but to perfect, each in his own province, the machinery of self-determination."—J. O. P. Bland, *China, Japan and Korea*, pp. 90-91.—After his victories at the close of 1920 "it was Chang who assumed the right to occupy Peking and to reform the Gov-

ernment. Chang, furthermore, won for himself the appointment of Inspector General of the three Manchurian provinces—Feng-tien, Kirin and Heilung-kiang. . . . Wu began a period of watchful waiting, to see what Chang would accomplish toward the calling of a new national convention to establish a Government on a democratic basis, and toward the ousting of Japanese influence at Peking. . . . He [Wu] was sent by the Peking Government to suppress a revolt in Hunan, engineered, it was said, by Canton. The Canton faction accuses him of ruthless cruelty and atrocity in quelling this uprising. However this may be, Wu clung to his rôle of super-patriot. After witnessing various attempts of Chang Tso-lin to reform the Peking régime, he came out in open opposition to Chang last December [1921], when the Mukden dictator went to the capital and forced President Hsu to accept a dictated Cabinet, headed by one Liang Shi-yi. It may safely be said that all China was indignant at the elevation to office of this notorious personage, who had worked hand in glove with Yuan Shih-kai in his attempts to make himself Emperor, and who had, incidentally, amassed a fortune. . . . Wu immediately assumed a threatening attitude. . . . Liang, in view of the public outcry against him, and terrorized by General Wu's threats, reluctantly retired to Tientsin, ostensibly on 'sick leave.' . . . Tsu Chu-chi took his place as acting Premier, with Dr. Yen as Foreign Minister. . . . Wu's action in ousting Liang, the puppet of Chang Tso-lin, was, of course, a direct challenge to the Manchurian dictator."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1922, pp. 397-398.

1921-1922.—Invited to attend conference on limitation of armaments.—Progress at conference. See WASHINGTON CONFERENCE; U. S. A.: 1921 (July-August).

1922 (April-May).—Civil war between Generals Chang Tso-lin and Wu Pei-fu.—General Wu victorious.—"General Chang Tso-lin began dispatching troop trains southward from Mukden about the middle of April. Some 70,000 of his soldiers poured in through the Great Wall and were garrisoned in the vicinity of Peking. General Wu was mustering his army, estimated at 80,000 men, in Shantung and other points. Chang's troops occupied all the railroads leading from Tientsin, and established camps within eleven miles east, north and south of the foreign concessions. President Hsu had issued a general appeal for conciliation, and had sent a special plea to the Mukden war lord to avoid civil war, but Chang had refused to listen. . . . Wu's position was strengthened by the departure of General Tsao-kun, Military Governor of Chih-li, thus leaving Wu free to enter this province, and relieving Tsao-kun of responsibility. All southbound trains had been held up by Wu's forces. The situation became tense as the opposing armies drew closer. General Chang's troops took possession of Peking and Tientsin on April 21, replacing the local police force. The Peking-Pukow railway had been cut by Chang's men south of Tientsin. . . . The first active step of hostility occurred on April 23, when the Tientsin-Pukow railway was torn up at Machang by the Wu Pei-fu forces. Peking was isolated. . . . Tsu Chu-chi, the Acting Premier, telegraphed to the civil and military Governors of all the provinces saying that the existence of the republic was threatened, and asking each province to send a commissioner to Peking to devise means to rid China of her private armies, which had grown to such an extent that they made any Cen-

tral Government impossible. Undeterred by these appeals, Chang and Wu went on strengthening their positions in Chih-li. . . . Preliminary skirmishes occurred on April 26. The battle for supremacy between the two powerful Tuchuns began in earnest on Thursday evening, April 27. . . . An attack by the Wu forces on Machang, however, developed into a fiercely contested battle. . . . On Saturday morning, April 29, heavy fighting began at Changtsin-tien, only twelve miles southwest of Peking. The great guns on both sides were distinctly heard in Peking, which had closed its gates. Only the day before the foreign legations had sent a warning to the Peking Government that the fighting must not be extended to the capital, and intimated that serious consequences would follow



GENERAL WU PEI-FU

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the bombardment of the city and the damaging of foreign property or the killing of any of their nationals. By April 30 the war front extended from Machang, on the Pukow Railroad, westward to Paoting-fu, on the Peking-Hankow Railroad, thence north to Changtsin-tien. The fighting at Changtsin-tien centred about the Marco Polo Bridge. Many people owning Summer homes on the hills outside Peking could follow the progress of the fighting at this point. Legation guards had been reinforced, and all foreigners were displaying their national flags. Thousands of Chinese in the outlying district came into the city, bearing all their money, valuables, and household goods. Wounded were brought in from the front the same day. Two warships of the Chinese Navy joined Wu, with whom they declared their sympathies, and were proceeding from Chefu to Shanhai-kwan with the purpose of shelling and destroying the Mukden Railway, thus cutting Chang's rear. The fighting continued unabated through Sunday at Changtsin-tien. By May 1 the tide of battle

was rolling ever nearer Peking. Hundreds had been killed upon each side. It became known that the fighting at Changtsin-tien was being conducted by General Feng Yu-Hsiang, the 'Christian General,' who was showing brilliant strategy. Already it was becoming evident that Wu's star was in the ascendant. The cannonading ceased on the morning of May 2. The bodies of 2,000 fallen soldiers lay on the battlefield. New battles south of the city had begun. Wu was bringing up heavy reinforcements. He took personal command at Machang on May 3. On May 4 it was definitely stated that Chang had suffered heavy reverses on all fronts, and his troops were driven headlong out of Changtsin-tien. Many of them boarded trains and sped to Fengtai, where they vainly strove to make a stand. . . . On May 5 Wu's victory was recognized by Peking. Chang's guard was disarmed inside the capital. Wu's control was recognized by President Hsu. The President on May 6 issued orders dismissing Chang as Inspector General of Manchuria, and calling for the arrest of Premier Liang, the Finance Minister and the Minister of Communications. General Wu was making no attempt to enter the capital and announced that his plans for reorganizing the Government had not changed. He intimated that the President would temporarily remain in office. . . . Wu still faced a danger of Chang's recovery, and also the possibility of an attack by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who had remained strangely inactive in the South."—*New York Times Current History*, June, 1922, pp. 398-400.

1922 (June).—Resignation of President Hsu Shih-chang.—Li Yuan-hung, next president.—Convening of 1917 parliament.—"President Hsu Shih-chang tendered his resignation at an extraordinary session of the Cabinet held to-day [June 2]. He was urged to withhold it until the Parliament convenes at Peking. If a vacancy occurs before a new President takes office, Acting Premier Tsu Chu-chi will act. The old republican Parliament of China, which has the backing of General Wu Pei-fu, recent victor over Chang Tso-lin, convened at Tientsin to-day for the first time since it was dissolved in 1917, and adopted a program aimed at the unification of China. The President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House issued a statement in which they said the old Parliament planned to publish a manifesto, declaring President Hsu Shih-chang deposed. They then will offer the Presidency to Li Yuan-hung, who was President from June, 1916, to July 1, 1917, and who was forced out of office by the militarists. The Parliament which is in session at Tien-tsin plans to move to Peking when its preliminary program is completed and formally assume charge as the nation's legislative body. Members of the old Parliament who are at Canton and Shanghai have been urged to proceed to Peking without delay to take part in the deliberations. It was announced to-day that during the sessions at Peking the railroad between the capital and Tien-tsin will be under guard to prevent interference from possible obstructionists. . . . The text of President Hsu's offer to resign, which was presented to the Cabinet to-day, follows: 'I am much saddened at the difficulties under which the nation has been suffering. My whole aim has been for a peaceful solution to relieve the severe sufferings of the common people. I have read with interest the plan proposed whereby Dr. Sun Yat Sen and myself should both resign and a new President be elected by Parliament. This seems fair. I sympathize with any plan to relieve the country and am prepared to relinquish my duties and position as

President as soon as a successor can be determined upon.' The text has been communicated to Dr. Sun Yat Sen, head of the South China Government, with an invitation to follow the example of President Hsu, thus removing what the authors of the proposal declared is the only obstacle to reunification of China. Additional strength for the revived Republican parliament is found in the announcement that General Chen Chiung-ming, military power of South China, who a few days ago demanded Dr. Sun's resignation, has declared his intention to support the movement launched at Tien-tsin."—*New York Times*, June 3, 1922.

ALSO IN: *Encyclopædia Sinica*.—H. Borel, *New China*.—M. Broomhall, *Chinese empire*.—J. Cantlie and C. S. Jones, *Sun Yat Sen and the awakening of China*.—S. G. Cheng, *Modern China*.—F. Coleman, *Far East unveiled*.—R. K. Douglas, *Europe and the Far East*.—H. A. Giles, *Civilization of China*.—T. H. Liddell, *China, its marvel and mystery*.—H. B. Morse, *International relations of the Chinese empire (1911-1918)*, 3 vs.—E. H. Parker, *China, her history, diplomacy and commerce*.—E. T. C. Werner, *China of the Chinese*.—H. L. Yen, *Survey of constitutional development in China*.—E. A. Ross, *Changing Chinese*.—F. Brinkley, *Japan and China*.—R. Cordier, *Histoire des Relations de la Chine avec les puissances occidentales*.—H. C. Thompson, *China and the powers*.—B. L. P. Weale, *Manchu and Muscovite*.—H. A. Giles, *Chinese literature*.—E. H. Parker, *China and religion*.—*China, Social and economic conditions (Annals of American Academy of Political and Social Science, 1912)*.—A. H. Smith, *Chinese characteristics*.—A. R. Colquhoun, *China in transformation*.—L. Richard, *Comprehensive geography of the Chinese empire (1908)*.—A. J. Brown, *Chinese Revolution*.—E. Chavannes, *Mémoires historiques (1895-1905)*.—H. A. Giles, *Chinese biographical dictionary*.—F. Hirth, *Ancient history of China*.—J. MacGowan, *Imperial history of China*.—Mayers, *Chinese reader's manual*.

Art. See ART: Distribution; ARCHITECTURE: Oriental; China; PAINTING: Chinese; SCULPTURE: India, China and Japan; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented by temple architecture.

Education. See EDUCATION: Ancient: B. C. 22nd-6th centuries; China; EDUCATION, AGRICULTURAL.

Historiography. See HISTORY: 14.

Literature. See CHINESE LITERATURE.

Military organization.—Changes from ancient to modern times. See MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 25.

Monetary system.—History of coinage. See MONEY AND BANKING: Ancient; China; and MONEY AND BANKING: Modern period: 20th century: China.

Music, Development of. See MUSIC: Ancient: B. C. 2852-378.

CHINA, Constitution of.—The struggle of the Chinese for constitutional government was one of sudden growth in the twentieth century, and was still unsettled in 1922. The importance of this movement dominated the history of China from 1908 to 1914, when the Constitutional Compact was accepted by the forces then in control of China. Since then, revolution has followed revolution, and a separate government has been set up at Canton for South China, leaving the status of the constitution more or less undetermined.—See also CHINA: 1905-1908; 1908 (December); 1909 (October-November); 1911 (April-December); 1912; 1914.

Constitution Compact of the CHUNG HUA MIN KUO, translated by SAO-KE ALFRED SZE, transla-

tion revised by FRANK J. GOODNOW AND N. ARIGA (advisers on constitutional law to the Chinese government):

CHAPTER 1.—THE NATION

ART. 1.—The Chung Hua Min Kuo is composed of the citizens of Chung Hua.

ART. 2.—The sovereignty of the Chung Hua Min Kuo originates in the whole body of the citizens.

ART. 3.—The territory of the Chung Hua Min Kuo continues the same as that of the former Empire.

CHAPTER 2.—THE CITIZENS

ART. 4.—Citizens of the Chung Hua Min Kuo shall be equal before the law, irrespective of race, rank or religion.

ART. 5.—Citizens shall enjoy the following rights: (a) No citizen shall be arrested, imprisoned, tried or punished, except in accordance with statute. (b) The habitation of any citizen shall not be forcibly entered into or searched, except in accordance with statute. (c) Within the limits of the statutes citizens shall have the right to own and enjoy property and to trade freely. (d) Within the limits of the statutes citizens shall have the rights of freedom of speech, of writing and publication, and of assembly and association. (e) Within the limits of the statutes citizens shall have the right of secrecy of correspondence. (f) Within the limits of the statutes citizens shall have the right of freedom of abode and of changing the same. (g) Within the limits of the statutes citizens shall have the right of freedom of religious belief.

ART. 6.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens shall have the right of petitioning the Legislature.

ART. 7.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens shall have the right to institute proceedings in the Courts of Law.

ART. 8.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens shall have the right of petitioning administrative officers and of lodging complaints with the Ping Cheng Yuan.

ART. 9.—In accordance with the provisions of law and ordinance citizens shall have the right to attend the examinations for the appointment of officers and to enter the public service.

ART. 10.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens shall have the right to elect and to be elected.

ART. 11.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens are subject to the duty of paying taxes.

ART. 12.—In accordance with the provisions of the statutes citizens are subject to the duty of performing military service.

ART. 13.—The provisions made in this Chapter, that are not in conflict with the law, ordinances and discipline of the Army and Navy, shall be applicable to persons belonging to the said services.

CHAPTER 3.—THE PRESIDENT

ART. 14.—The President is the head of the Nation and combines in himself all the powers of government.

ART. 15.—The President shall represent the Chung Hua Min Kuo.

ART. 16.—The President shall be responsible to the whole Nation.

ART. 17.—The President shall convoke the Legislature and open, prorogue and close its sessions.

The President, with the concurrence of the Council of State, may dissolve the Legislature; in the case of dissolution new members must be elected and the Legislature convoked within six months from the date of dissolution.

ART. 18.—The President may initiate legislation and shall lay the estimates before the Legislature.

ART. 19.—For the promotion of public welfare, for the execution of the statutes, or in pursuance of authority granted by statute, the President may issue or cause to be issued ordinances, but no ordinance shall alter any statute.

ART. 20.—In order to maintain peace and order, or to avert extraordinary calamities, at a time of urgent necessity when the Legislature cannot be convoked, the President, with the concurrence of the Council of State, may issue emergency ordinances having the force of law; but such ordinances shall be submitted to the Legislature for ratification at the beginning of its next session.

Should the said emergency ordinances be rejected by the Legislature, they shall, thereafter, be null and void.

ART. 21.—The President shall prescribe and determine the organization of all offices and shall issue the regulations fixing the duties of officials.

The President shall appoint and dismiss civil and military officers.

ART. 22.—The President shall declare war and conclude peace.

ART. 23.—The President is the Commander-in-chief of the Army and Navy, and leads the land and sea forces of the Nation. The President shall determine the organization and the strength of the Army and Navy.

ART. 24.—The President shall receive foreign ambassadors and ministers.

ART. 25.—The President makes treaties; but should articles therein provide for any change of territory, or increase the burdens of the citizens, the concurrence of the Legislature shall be required.

ART. 26.—The President may in accordance with the provisions of the statutes, declare a state of siege.

ART. 27.—The President may confer titles of nobility, rank, orders and other marks of honour.

ART. 28.—The President may grant general amnesty, special pardon, commutation of punishment and restoration of rights. In the case of general amnesty the concurrence of the Legislature shall be required.

ART. 29.—When the President, for any cause, vacates his office or is unable to exercise the powers and functions connected therewith, the Vice-President shall act in his stead.

CHAPTER 4.—LEGISLATURE

ART. 30.—Statutes shall be enacted by the Legislature composed of members elected by the people. The organization of the Legislature and the method of the election of its members shall be prescribed and determined by the Constitutional Compact Conference.

ART. 31.—The competence of the Legislature shall be as follows: (1) To discuss and pass bills. (2) To discuss and pass the estimates. (3) To discuss and pass or approve measures relating to the assumption of public debts, and to the contracting of other liabilities to the charge of the National Treasury. (4) To reply to enquiries addressed to it by the President. (5) To receive petitions from the people. (6) To initiate legislation. (7) To submit to the President suggestions and opinions relating to legislation and other mat-

ters. (8) To raise questions in regard to administration over which doubts have arisen and to request the President to reply thereon. But the President may refuse to reply should he deem it necessary for the matter to be kept in secret. (9) Should the President make an attempt against the state the Legislature may institute against him impeachment proceedings in the Supreme Court of Justice, if approved by a majority of three-fourths or over, of a quorum of four-fifths or over, of the total number of members of the Legislature. The exercise of the powers mentioned in Clauses 1 to 8 of this article, and Articles 20, 25, 28, 55 and 57 shall require the concurrence of a majority of the members present in the Legislature.

ART. 32.—The annual session of the Legislature shall not exceed four months in duration, but may be prolonged should the President consider it necessary. The President may call an extraordinary session during the recess.

ART. 33.—The deliberations of the Legislature shall be public, but the members may sit behind closed doors at the request of the President, or as a result of the decision of a majority of the members present.

ART. 34.—Bills which have passed the Legislature shall be promulgated and enforced by the President. But if the President shall disapprove a bill duly passed in the Legislature, he may return the bill to the Legislature for reconsideration, with a statement of the reasons of his disapproval. Even in case that the former decision of the Legislature be adhered to by a majority of two-thirds or over, of the members present, if the President still maintain that the bill would greatly endanger and harm, either the internal administration of the state, or its foreign relations, or that there are great and important obstacles in the way of its execution, in such a case the President may, with the concurrence of the Council of State, withhold promulgation.

ART. 35.—The Speaker and the Deputy Speaker of the Legislature shall be elected from and among the members by a majority of the votes cast.

ART. 36.—Members of the Legislature shall not be held responsible, outside of the House for their speeches, debates or for votes cast in the House.

ART. 37.—Except when discovered in the commission of a crime, or when involved in crimes connected with internal or external troubles, no member of the Legislature shall be arrested during the session without the permission of the House.

ART. 38.—The Legislature shall prescribe its own rules.

CHAPTER 5.—THE ADMINISTRATION

ART. 39.—The President is the chief of the Administration and shall be assisted by one Secretary of State.

ART. 40.—The affairs of Administration shall be separately conducted by the Departments of Foreign Affairs, Interior, Finance, War, the Navy, Justice, Education, Agriculture and Commerce and of Communications.

ART. 41.—The Heads of the Departments shall manage the Administration of their respective departments in accordance with laws and ordinances.

ART. 42.—The Secretary of State, the heads of the departments, and Special Delegates, representing the President, shall be entitled to sit and speak in the Legislature.

ART. 43.—The Secretary of State and the heads of the departments may be impeached by the Board

of Censors and judged by the Ping Cheng Yuen should they violate the law.

CHAPTER 6.—THE COURTS OF LAW

ART. 44.—The Courts of Law shall be composed of the law officers appointed by the President.

The organization of the Courts of Law and the qualifications of the law officers shall be determined by statute.

ART. 45.—The Courts of Law, in accordance with the provisions of the statutes, shall try and judge, independently, all civil and criminal cases. But administrative law proceedings and other special law proceedings, shall be tried and judged according to the law governing the same.

ART. 46.—The procedure of impeachment cases in the Supreme Court of Justice, as provided for under clause 9 of Article 31, shall be determined separately by statute.

ART. 47.—In the Courts of Law trials shall be conducted and judgment shall be rendered publicly. When, however, it is considered that publicity may be prejudicial to peace and order, or to public morality, secrecy may be observed.

ART. 48.—During his term of office no law officer shall be reduced in salary, nor be transferred to another office, nor shall he be deprived of his office, except as a consequence of punishment according to statute, or of disciplinary measures entailing dismissal. Regulations governing the discipline of law officers shall be determined by statute.

CHAPTER 7.—THE COUNCIL OF STATE

ART. 49.—The Council of State, when consulted by the President, shall deliberate upon important matters of state.

The organization of the Council of State shall be determined by the Constitutional Compact Conference.

CHAPTER 8.—FINANCE

ART. 50.—The imposition of new taxes and the modification of the rates of the existing taxes shall be made by statute. The taxes levied at present shall, unless changed by statute, be collected as in the past.

ART. 51.—The annual receipts and expenditures of the state shall be dealt with every year in accordance with the provisions of the estimates passed by the Legislature.

ART. 52.—In order to meet special requirements there may be included in the estimates appropriations extending over a certain number of years as a Continuing Expenditure Fund.

ART. 53.—In order to supply deficiencies in the estimates, or to meet requirements unprovided for in the same, a Reserve Fund shall be provided for in the estimates.

ART. 54.—Estimates for the objects of expenditure specified below shall not be rejected or reduced, except with the concurrence of the President: (1) Those appertaining to the legal obligations of the state. (2) Such necessary expenditures as may have arisen from the provisions of statute. (3) Expenditures necessary to carry out treaties. (4) Expenditures necessary for the organization of the Army and Navy.

ART. 55.—In case of international warfare or internal disturbance, or in extraordinary circumstances, when the Legislature cannot be convoked, the President, with the concurrence of the Council of State, may make urgent financial appropria-

tions. But he shall request the Legislature to ratify the same at the beginning of its next session.

ART. 56.—If the new estimates have not been acted upon the appropriations of the previous year shall continue in force. The same procedure shall be observed should the adoption of the estimates be delayed after the fiscal year has already begun.

ART. 57.—The final accounts of the receipts and expenditure of the state shall be audited every year by the Board of Audit, and shall be reported by the President to the Legislature for approval.

ART. 58.—The organization of the Board of Audit shall be determined by the Constitutional Compact Conference.

CHAPTER 9.—THE PROCEDURE FOR MAKING THE CONSTITUTION

ART. 59.—The Constitution of the Chung Hua Min Kuo shall be drafted by the Constitution Drafting Committee. This Committee shall be composed of persons not exceeding ten in number elected by the Council of State.

ART. 60.—The Draft of the Constitution of the Chung Hua Min Kuo shall be examined and passed by the Council of State.

ART. 61.—After the Constitution of the Chung Hua Min Kuo has been examined and passed by the Council of State it shall be submitted by the President to the National Convention for final adoption.

The organization of the National Convention shall be determined by the Constitutional Compact Conference.

ART. 62.—The National Convention shall be convoked and dissolved by the President.

ART. 63.—The Constitution of the Chung Hua Min Kuo shall be promulgated by the President.

CHAPTER 10.—SUPPLEMENTARY ARTICLES

ART. 64.—Until the Constitution of the Chung Hua Min Kuo comes into force the Constitutional Compact shall have the same force as the Constitution.

Laws and ordinances in force before the going into effect of the Constitutional Compact, so far as they do not come into conflict with the same, shall continue to be valid.

ART. 65.—The Articles proclaimed on the twelfth day of the second month of the first year of the Min Kuo, regarding the favourable treatment of the Ta Ching Emperor after his abdication of the Throne, and the special treatment of the Ching Imperial Clan, as well as the special treatment of the Manchus, Mongols, Mohammedans, and Thibetans shall never be modified. The statute on the treatment of the Mongols, which is co-related with the foregoing Articles, shall continue to be effective unless changed by statute.

ART. 66.—On the proposal of a majority of two-thirds or over of the members of the Legislature, or on the proposal of the President, in either case if approved by a majority of three-fourths or over, of a quorum of four-fifths or over, of the total number of members of the Legislature, the President shall convoke the Constitutional Compact Conference to amend the Constitutional Compact.

ART. 67.—Before the Legislature shall have been convoked, its powers and functions shall be assumed and discharged by the Council of State.

ART. 68.—The Constitutional Compact of the

Chung Hua Min Kuo shall take effect as from the date of promulgation, on which day the Provisional Constitution, proclaimed on the eleventh day of the third month of the first year of the Min Kuo, shall become null and void.

CHINANTECS, American aborigines. See ZAPOTECs, MIXTECS, ZOQUES, etc.

CHINCHIRUCA, Peruvian warrior. See CHILE: 1450-1535.

CHINDA, Sutemi, Viscount (1856-), Japanese representative at Peace Conference. See VERSAILLES, TREATY OF: Conditions of peace.

CHINESE ART. See ART: Distribution; ARCHITECTURE: Oriental: China; PAINTING: Chinese; SCULPTURE: India, China and Japan; TEMPLES: Stage of culture represented by temple architecture.

CHINESE DRESS. See COSTUME: Oriental: China.

CHINESE EASTERN RAILWAY: Beginning of construction.—Opened 1901. See RAILROADS: 1876-1921; TRANS-SIBERIAN RAILWAY.

Disputed by China and Siberia. See SIBERIA: 1917-1919.

CHINESE EXCLUSION ACT (1882). See LABOR LEGISLATION: 1862-1920; U. S. A.: 1892: Chinese Exclusion Act.

CHINESE HIGHBINDER ASSOCIATIONS: Dangerous character. See SAN FRANCISCO: 1902.

CHINESE LANGUAGE. See CHINA: Languages and dialects; CHINESE LITERATURE: Origin of the language; JAPANESE LITERATURE: 794-1868; PHILOLOGY: 7.

CHINESE LITERATURE: Origin of the language.—“In the sixth century B. C. the Chinese were also in possession of a written language, fully adequate to the most varied expression of human thought, and indeed almost identical with their present script, allowing, among other things, for certain modifications of form brought about by the substitution of paper and a camel's-hair brush for the bamboo tablet and stylus of old. The actual stages by which the point was reached are so far unknown to us. China has her Cadmus in the person of a prehistoric individual named Ts'ang Chieh, who is said to have had four eyes, and to have taken the idea of a written language from the markings of birds' claws upon the sand. Upon the achievement of his task the sky rained grain and evil spirits mourned by night. Previous to this mankind had no other system than rude methods of knotting cords and notching sticks for noting events or communicating with one another at a distance. As to the origin of the written language of China, invention is altogether out of the question. It seems probable that in prehistoric ages, the Chinese, like other peoples, began to make rude pictures of the sun, moon, and stars, of man himself, of trees, of fire, of rain, and they appear to have followed these up by ideograms of various kinds. How far they went in this direction we can only surmise. There are comparatively few obviously pictorial characters and ideograms to be found even in the script of two thousand years ago; but investigations carried on for many years by Mr. L. C. Hopkins, H. M. Consul, Chefoo, and now approaching completion, point more and more to the fact that the written language will some day be recognised as systematically developed from pictorial symbols. It is, at any rate, certain that at a very early date subsequent to the legendary period of 'knotted cords' and 'notches,' while the picture-symbols were still comparatively few,

some master-mind reached at a bound the phonetic principle, from which point the rapid development of a written language such as we now find would be an easy matter."—H. A. Giles, *History of Chinese literature*, pp. 5-6.

Confucius, the founder.—Nine classics.—“In B. C. 551 Confucius was born. He may be regarded as the founder of Chinese literature. During his years of office as a Government servant and his years of teaching and wandering as an exile, he found time to rescue for posterity certain valuable literary fragments of great antiquity, and to produce at least one original work of his own. It is impossible to assert that before his time there was anything in the sense of what we understand by the term general literature. The written language appears to have been used chiefly for purposes of administration. Many utterances, however, of early, not to say legendary, rulers had been committed to writing at one time or another, and such of these as were still extant were diligently collected and edited by Confucius, forming what is now known as the *Shu Ching*, or Book of History. The documents of which this work is composed are said to have been originally one hundred in all, and they cover a period extending from the twenty-fourth to the eighth century B. C. They give us glimpses of an age earlier than that of Confucius, if not actually so early as is claimed.”—*Ibid.*, p. 7.—“Of the nine classics . . . five relate to pre-Confucian times, that is, prior to the sixth century B. C. Four contain the personal teachings of Confucius and his disciples. Native Christians can hardly be blamed if they discover in these two collections a fanciful analogy to the Five Books of Moses and the Four Gospels, relating, as they do, to something like an earlier and a later dispensation. In contrast, however, with our Holy Scriptures, the religious element in them is so faint and feeble as to suggest the aurora borealis rather than the life-giving sunshine. They recognize, under the names of *Shangti* and *Tien*, a Supreme Power, who presides over the destinies of men and dispenses rewards and punishments; but they do not inculcate the worship of that august Being. He is consequently forgotten by the people, and his place is usurped by idols. Yet so pure are the moral teachings of these ancient writings that no nation, with one exception, ever received from antiquity a more precious heritage. While some of the Sacred Books of the Hindus are unfit for translation, in the Chinese canon there is nothing to offend the most delicate sense of propriety. Referring to the nine works *seriatim*, I may give a paragraph to each. (1) The ‘Book of History’ consists of fragments (more or less modified by redaction) treating of the first three dynasties; and, prior to the first (B. C. 2200), of a golden age, in which the throne was not strictly hereditary, but the prize of merit—good kings passing over their own offspring to adopt worthier successors. (2) The ‘Book of Changes,’ supposed to date from 2800 B. C., is esteemed an abyss of wisdom so profound that no foreigner (and, some would add, no Chinese) can hope to understand it. Without professing to understand it, I have no hesitation in saying that, under the guise of science, it is an absurd system of divination, and that it has done more than any other book to impose on the Chinese mind the fetters of obstructive superstition. It is to-day the text-book of fortune-tellers of every description, as it was four thousand years ago. (3) The ‘Book of Odes,’ an anthology of primitive poetry, which had its origin from 600 to 1100 B. C. Invaluable as a

picture of life and manners, there is little in it to suggest the fire and fancy of the Greek muse, and nothing resembling the sublime poetry of the Hebrews. ‘You should read the “Book of Odes,”’ said Confucius to his son, ‘and you will learn the names of many birds, beasts, and vegetables.’ (4) The ‘Animals of Lu,’ compiled by Confucius, and charmingly amplified by his disciple Tso. This work is the recognized model for historic composition. (5) The ‘Book of Rites,’ a collection of court etiquette, social usages, and religious ritual, which has had a great influence in moulding the manners of the Chinese people. It has made them the most ceremonious nation on earth. The later collection, called the *Four Books*, is the New Testament of China, though it resembles the Talmud rather than the Gospels. (1) The ‘Analects or Sayings of Confucius,’ which form the most important part of it, are so wise and good that many of them have passed into the current language in the form of proverbs. The Sage’s most remarkable utterance is a negative statement of the golden rule—answering exactly to that given in the Book of Tobit, iv. 16 [Apocrypha]. (2) The ‘Great Study’—instructions for rulers how to accomplish the renovation of their people. They are taught to begin by ‘renewing themselves’ after the example of a good emperor who inscribed on his wash-basin the words: ‘Daily renew thyself.’ With such precepts and such examples, is it not strange that social regeneration is the last thing desired by the Chinese? (3) The ‘Just Mean.’ This is a theory of virtue, as the mean between extremes of excess and defect—eloquently set forth by the Sage’s grandson, for whom the Sage himself serves as a perfect model. (4) ‘Discourses of Mencius,’ the St. Paul of the Confucian school, who, born a hundred and eighty years later than Confucius, revived his doctrines and gave them currency. He preached the principles of his master with the zeal of an apostle, and rebuked vice in high places with the courage of a Hebrew prophet.”—W. A. P. Martin, *Cycle of Cathay*, pp. 58-61.

Literature after B.C. 478.—“The poetry which is representative of the period between the death of Confucius and the 2nd century B. C. is a thing apart. There is nothing like it in the whole range of Chinese literature. It illumines many a native pronouncement on the poetic art, the drift of which would otherwise remain obscure. For poetry has been defined by the Chinese as ‘emotion expressed in words,’ a definition perhaps not more inadequate than Wordsworth ‘impassioned expression.’ ‘Poetry,’ they say, ‘knows no law.’ And again, ‘The men of old reckoned it the highest excellence in poetry that the meaning should lie beyond the words, and that the reader should have to think it out.’ Of these three canons only the last can be said to have survived to the present day. But in the fourth century B. C., Ch’ü Yüan and his school indulged in wild irregular metres which consorted well with their wild irregular thoughts. Their poetry was prose run mad. It was allusive and allegorical to a high degree, and now, but for the commentary, much of it would be quite unintelligible. . . . Never has the literature of any country been more closely bound up with the national history than was that of China at the beginning of the period upon which we are now about to enter. The feudal spirit had long since declined, and the bond between suzerain and vassal had grown weaker and weaker until at length it had ceased to exist. Then came the opportunity and the man. The ruler of the powerful State of Ch’in, after gradually vanquishing and absorbing such

of the other rival States as had not already been swallowed up by his own State, found himself in B. C. 221 master of the whole of China, and forthwith proclaimed himself its Emperor. The Chou dynasty, with its eight hundred years of sway, was a thing of the past. . . . So soon as the empire settled down to comparative peace, a mighty effort was made to undo at least some of the mischief sustained by the national literature. An extra impetus was given to this movement by the fact that under the First Emperor, if we can believe tradition, the materials of writing had undergone a radical change. A general, named Mêng T'ien, added to the triumphs of the sword the invention of the camel's-hair brush, which the Chinese use as a pen. The clumsy bamboo tablet and stylus were discarded, and strips of cloth or silk came into general use, and were so employed until the first century A. D., when paper was invented by Ts'ai Lun. Some say that brick dust and water did duty at first for ink. However that may be, the form of the written character underwent a corresponding change to suit the materials employed. Meanwhile, books were brought out of their hiding-places, and scholars like K'ung An-kuo, a descendant of Confucius in the twelfth degree, set to work to restore the lost classics. He deciphered the text of the Book of History, which had been discovered when pulling down the old house where Confucius once lived, and transcribed large portions of it from the ancient into the later script. He also wrote a commentary on the *Analecs* and another on the *Filial Piety Classic*. . . . The centuries which elapsed between A. D. 200 and 600 were not favourable to the development and growth of a national literature. During a great part of the time the empire was torn by civil wars; there was not much leisure for book-learning, and few patrons to encourage it. Still the work was carried on, and many great names have come down to us."—H. A. Giles, *History of Chinese literature*, pp. 50, 77-80, 110.—"Building on this fair foundation, the Chinese have, in the course of twenty-three centuries, erected a magnificent structure. Its leading sections are: (1) Histories vast in extent and containing an unparalleled wealth of recorded facts. India has nothing to compare with them. (2) Philosophers, acute and daring in speculation, but by no means scientific in method. (3) Poets, nearly all of the lyric order, some of whom may challenge comparison with those of Greece or Rome. (4) Novelists, who developed the modern novel a thousand years before its appearance in our horizon. Will not this colossal literature, in which is mirrored the life of one of the grandest divisions of the human race, some day claim a place in our seats of learning?"—W. A. P. Martin, *Cycle of Cathay*, p. 61.

CHINESE MUSIC, Development of. See **MUSIC**: Ancient: B. C. 2852-478.

CHINESE TURKESTAN, the eastern region of Turkestan, and administratively the Chinese province of Sin Kiang, has an area of 550,340 square miles and an estimated population of 1,200,000 (1918). See **TURKESTAN**; **YAKUB BEG**, **DOMINION OF**.

CH'ING, Prince of, Chinese minister of foreign affairs in negotiations with U. S. during Boxer revolt. See **CHINA**: 1901-1908.

CHING DYNASTY. See **MONGOLIA**: 1616-1697.

CHINOOKAN FAMILY.—"The banks of the Columbia, from the Grand Dalles to its mouth, belong to the two branches of the Tsinük [or Chinook] nation, which meet in the neighborhood

of the Kowlitz River, and of which an almost nominal remnant is left. . . . The position of the Tsinük previous to their depopulation was, as at once appears, most important, occupying both sides of the great artery of Oregon for a distance of 200 miles; they possessed the principal thoroughfare between the interior and the ocean, boundless resources of provisions of various kinds, and facilities for trade almost unequalled on the Pacific."—G. Gibbs, *Tribes of West Washington and N. W. Oregon*, (*Contrib. to N. A. Ethnology*, v. 1), p. 164.—See also: **FLATHEADS**; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Cultural areas in North America: North Pacific Coast area; **INDIANS, AMERICAN**: Linguistic characteristics; **INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE**: Natural development of some artificial languages.

CHIOGGIA, War of (1379-1381). See **VENICE**: A. D. 1379-1381.

CHIOS, or **Khios**, the rocky island known from ancient times as Chios, also called Scio in modern



LI TAI PEH (705-762 A.D.)
Poet of the Tang Dynasty (618-907 A.D.)

times, was one of the places which claimed Homer's birth. It is situated in the Ægean sea, separated by a strait only five miles wide from the Asiatic coast. The wines of Chios were famous in antiquity and have a good reputation at the present day. The island was an important member of the Ionian confederation, and afterwards subject to Athens, from which it revolted twice, suffering terrible barbarities in consequence. See **ASIA MINOR**; **GREEK COLONIES**; **GREECE**: Map of ancient Greece; also **BALKAN STATES**: Map of Balkan States, 1914.

B. C. 413.—Revolt from Athens. See **GREECE**: B. C., 413-412.

B. C. 357.—Social War with Athens. See **ATHENS**: B. C. 378-357.

1346.—Taken by the Genoese. See **CONSTANTINOPLE**: 1348-1355.

1681.—Blockade and attack by the French. See **BARBARY STATES**: 1664-1684.

1770.—Temporary possession by the Russians. See **TURKEY**: 1768-1774.

1822.—Turkish massacre of Christians. See **GREECE**: 1821-1820.

1920.—Greek control by Treaty of Sèvres. See **SÈVRES, TREATY OF**: 1920: Part III: Political clauses: Greece.

A. D. 1204.—In eastern empire of Baldwin. See BYZANTINE EMPIRE: 1204-1205.

CHIPILLY BRIDGE, France: 1918.—Captured by Allies. See WORLD WAR: 1918: II. Western front: g, 9, iv.

CHIPPEWA, Battle of. See U. S. A.: 1814 (July-September).

CHIPPEWA INDIANS. See ALGONQUIAN FAMILY; OJIBWAS OR CHIPPEWAS.

CHIPPEWYAN INDIANS. See ATHAPASCAN FAMILY: CHIPPEWYANS; Tinneh; Sarcees.

CHIRICAQUI INDIANS. See APACHE GROUP.

CHIRIQUI INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in South America: Chibcha area.

CHISHOLM vs. GEORGIA, Case of (1793).—"When the Constitution was submitted to the people, a principal objection urged against it was that it exposed a State, although a sovereign commonwealth, to be sued by the individual citizens of some other State. . . . The power as well as the dignity of a State would be gone if it could be dragged into court by a private plaintiff. Hamilton . . . met the objection by arguing that the jurisdiction-giving clause of the Constitution ought not to be so construed but must be read as being subject to the general doctrine that a sovereign body cannot be sued by an individual without its own consent. . . . However, in 1793 the Supreme Court, in the famous case of *Chisholm vs. The State of Georgia*, construed the Constitution in the very sense which Hamilton had denied, holding that an action did lie against Georgia at the suit of a private plaintiff; and when Georgia protested and refused to appear, the court proceeded (in 1794) to give judgment against her by default in case she should not appear and plead before a day fixed. Her cries of rage filled the Union, and brought other States to her help. An amendment (the eleventh) to the Constitution, was passed by Congress and duly accepted by the requisite majority of the States, which declares that 'the judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State or by citizens of subjects of any foreign State.'"—J. Bryce, *American commonwealth* (1891), v. 1, pp. 231-232.—See also SUPREME COURT: 1789-1835; 1835-1864.

CHITIMACHA INDIANS. See INDIANS, AMERICAN: Cultural areas in North America: Southeastern area; also ATTACAPAN FAMILY.

CHITON.—"The chiton [of the ancient Greeks] was an oblong piece of cloth arranged round the body so that the arm was put through a hole in the closed side, the two ends of the open side being fastened over the opposite shoulder by means of a button or clasp. On this latter side, therefore, the chiton was completely open, at least as far as the thigh, underneath of which the two ends might be either pinned or stitched together. Round the hips the chiton was fastened with a ribbon or girdle, and the lower part could be shortened as much as required by pulling it through this girdle. . . . Frequently sleeves, either shorter and covering only the upper arm, or continued to the wrist were added to the chiton. . . . The short-sleeved chiton is frequently worn by women and children on monuments. Of the sleeveless chiton, worn by men over both shoulders, it is stated that it was the sign of a free citizen. Slaves and artisans are said to have worn a chiton with one hole for the left arm, the right arm and half the chest remaining quite uncovered. . . . It appears clearly that the whole chiton consists of

one piece. Together with the open and half-open kinds of the chiton we also find the closed double chiton flowing down to the feet. It was a piece of cloth considerably longer than the human body, and closed on both sides, inside of which the person putting it on stood as in a cylinder."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, pt. 1, sect. 41.—"The principal, or rather, the sole garment, of the Dorian maidens was the chiton, or himation made of woolen stuff, and without sleeves, but fastened on either shoulder by a large clasp, and gathered on the breast by a kind of brooch. This sleeveless robe, which seldom reached more than half way to the knee, was moreover left open up to a certain point on both sides, so that the skirts or wings, flying open as they walked, entirely exposed their limbs. . . . The married women, however, did not make their appearance in public 'en chemise,' but when going abroad donned a second garment which seems to have resembled pretty closely their husbands' himatia."—J. A. St. John, *The Hellenes*, bk. 3 ch. 6.

CHITRAL, a highland state in the northwest frontier province of British India, bordering on Kafiristan.

1895.—Defense and relief of. See INDIA: 1895 (March-September).

CHIUSAFORTE, a town of northeastern Italy, the scene of fighting on the Austro-Italian front, 1918. See WORLD WAR: 1918: IV. Austro-Italian theater: e, 14.

CHIVALRY.—"The primitive sense of this well-known word, derived from the French Chevalier, signifies merely cavalry, or a body of soldiers serving on horseback; and has been used in that general acceptance by the best of our poets, ancient and modern, from Milton to Thomas Campbell. But the present article respects the peculiar meaning given to the word in modern Europe, as applied to the order of knighthood, established in almost all her kingdoms during the middle ages, and the laws, rules, and customs, by which it was governed. Those laws and customs have long been antiquated, but their effects may still be traced in European manners; and, excepting only the change which flowed from the introduction of the Christian religion, we know no cause which has produced such general and permanent difference betwixt the ancients and moderns, as that which has arisen out of the institution of chivalry. . . . From the time that cavalry becomes used in war, the horseman who furnishes and supports a charger arises, in all countries, into a person of superior importance to the mere foot-soldier. . . . In various military nations, therefore, we find that horsemen are distinguished as an order in the state. . . . But, in the middle ages, the distinction ascribed to soldiers serving on horseback assumed a very peculiar and imposing character. They were not merely respected on account of their wealth or military skill, but were bound together by a union of a very peculiar character, which monarchs were ambitious to share with the poorest of their subjects, and governed by laws directed to enhance, into enthusiasm, the military spirit and the sense of personal honour associated with it [see also MILITARY ORGANIZATION: 13; 15]. The aspirants to this dignity were not permitted to assume the sacred character of knighthood until after a long and severe probation, during which they practised, as acolytes, the virtues necessary to the order of Chivalry. Knighthood was the goal to which the ambition of every noble youth turned; and to support its honours, which (in theory at least)

could only be conferred on the gallant, the modest, and the virtuous, it was necessary he should spend a certain time in a subordinate situation, attendant upon some knight of eminence, observing the conduct of his master, as what must in future be the model of his own, and practising the virtues of humility, modesty, and temperance, until called upon to display those of a higher order. . . . In the general and abstract definition of Chivalry, whether as comprising a body of men whose military service was on horseback, and who were invested with peculiar honours and privileges, or with reference to the mode and period in which these distinctions and privileges were conferred, there is nothing either original or exclusively proper to our Gothic ancestors. It was in the singular tenets of Chivalry,—in the exalted, enthusiastic, and almost sanctimonious, ideas connected with its duties,—in the singular balance which its institutions offered against the evils of the rude ages in which it arose, that we are to seek those peculiarities which render it so worthy of our attention. . . . The education of the future knight began at an early period. The care of the mother, after the first years of early youth were passed, was deemed too tender, and the indulgences of the paternal roof too effeminate, for the future aspirant to the honours of chivalry. . . . To counteract these habits of indulgence, the first step to the order of knighthood was the degree of Page. The young and noble stripling, generally about his twelfth year, was transferred from his father's house to that of some baron or gallant knight, sedulously chosen by the anxious parent as that which had the best reputation for good order and discipline. [See also EDUCATION: Medieval: 9th-15th centuries: Chivalry.] . . . When advancing age and experience in the use of arms had qualified the page for the hardships and dangers of actual war, he was removed, from the lowest to the second gradation of chivalry, and became an Escuyer, Esquire, or Squire. The derivation of this phrase has been much contested. It has been generally supposed to be derived from its becoming the official duty of the esquire to carry the shield (Escu) of the knight his master, until he was about to engage the enemy. Others have fetched the epithet (more remotely certainly) from Scuria, a stable, the charger of the knight being under the especial care of the squire. Others, again, ascribe the derivation of the word to the right which the squire himself had to carry a shield, and to blazon it with armorial bearings. This, in later times, became almost the exclusive meaning attached to the appellative esquire; and, accordingly, if the phrase now means anything, it means a gentleman having a right to carry arms. There is reason, however, to think this is a secondary meaning of the word, for we do not find the word Escuyer, applied as a title of rank, until so late as the Ordonnance of Blois, in 1579. . . . In actual war the page was not expected to render much service, but that of the squire was important and indispensable. Upon a march he bore the helmet and shield of the knight and led his horse of battle, a tall heavy animal fit to bear the weight of a man in armour, but which was led in hand in marching, while the knight rode an ambling hackney. The squire was also qualified to perform the part of an armourer, not only facing his master's helmet and buckling his cuirass, but also closing with a hammer the rivets by which the various pieces were united to each other. . . . In the actual shock of battle, the esquire attended closely on the banner of his master, or on his person if he were only a knight bachelor,

kept pace with him during the mêlée, and was at hand to remount him when his steed was slain, or relieve him when oppressed by numbers. If the knight made prisoners they were the charge of the esquire; if the esquire himself fortune to make one, the ransom belonged to his master. . . . A youth usually ceased to be a page at 14, or a little earlier, and could not regularly receive the honour of knighthood until he was one-and-twenty. . . . Knighthood was, in its origin, an order of a republican, or at least an oligarchic nature, arising . . . from the customs of the free tribes of Germany [see COMITATUS], and, in its essence, not requiring the sanction of a monarch. On the contrary, each knight could confer the order of knighthood upon whomsoever preparatory noviciate and probation had fitted to receive it. The highest potentates sought the accolade, or stroke which conferred the honour, at the hands of the worthiest knight whose achievements had dignified the period. . . . Though no positive regulation took place on the subject, ambition on the part of the aspirant, and pride and policy on that of the sovereign princes and nobles of high rank, gradually limited to the latter the power of conferring knighthood. . . . Knights were usually made either on the eve of battle, or when the victory had been obtained; or they were created during the pomp of some solemn warning or grand festival. . . . The spirit of chivalry sunk gradually under a combination of physical and moral causes; the first arising from the change gradually introduced into the art of war, and the last from the equally great alteration produced by time in the habits and modes of thinking in modern Europe. Chivalry began to dawn in the end of the 10th, and beginning of the 11th century. It blazed forth with high vigour during the crusades, which indeed may be considered as exploits of national knight-errantry, or general wars, undertaken on the very same principles which actuated the conduct of individual knights adventurers. But its most brilliant period was during the wars between France and England, and it was unquestionably in those kingdoms that the habit of constant and honourable opposition, unembittered by rancour or personal hatred, gave the fairest opportunity for the exercise of the virtues required from him whom Chaucer terms 'a very perfect gentle knight.' Froissart frequently makes allusions to the generosity exercised by the French and English to their prisoners, and contrasts it with the dungeons to which captives taken in war were consigned both in Spain and Germany. Yet both these countries, and indeed every kingdom in Europe, partook of the spirit of chivalry in a greater or less degree; and even the Moors of Spain caught the emulation, and had their orders of Knighthood as well as the Christians. But even during this splendid period, various causes were silently operating the future extinction of the flame, which blazed thus wide and brightly. An important discovery, the invention of gunpowder, had taken place, and was beginning to be used in war, even when chivalry was in its highest glory. . . . Another change, of vital importance, arose from the institution of the bands of gens-d'armes, or men at arms in France, constituted . . . expressly as a sort of standing army. . . . A more fatal cause had, however, been for some time operating in England, as well as France, for the destruction of the system we are treating of. The wars of York and Lancaster in England, and those of the Huguenots and of the League, were of a nature so bitter and rancorous, as was utterly inconsistent with the courtesy, fair

play, and gentleness, proper to chivalry. . . . The civil wars not only operated in debasing the spirit of chivalry, but in exhausting and destroying the particular class of society from which its votaries were drawn."—W. Scott, *Essay on chivalry*.

CHIVALRY, Courts of: Functions. See MILITARY LAW: Origin.

See also: **ARTHURIAN LEGEND:** Reflex of age of chivalry; **GARTER, KNIGHTS OF THE ORDER OF;** **TEMPLARS;** **TOURNEY:** TOURNAMENT: Joust; **WOMAN'S RIGHTS:** 300-1400.

ALSO IN: G. P. R. James, *History of Chivalry*.—H. Hallam, *State of Europe during the Middle Ages*, v. 3, pt. 2, ch. 9.—F. P. Guizot, *History of civilization in France*, 6th lecture, 2d course (v. 4).—C. Mills, *History of chivalry*.—H. Stebbing, *History of chivalry and the crusades*.—L. Gautier, *Chivalry*.—K. H. Digby, *Broadstone of honour*.—J. Doran, *Knights and their days*.

CHLADNI, Ernst Florens Friedrich (1756-1827), German physicist, famous for his discoveries in acoustics and inventions of acoustic apparatus. See **MUSIC: Modern:** 1800-1908.

CHLAMYS.—"The chlamys [worn by the ancient Greeks and Romans] . . . was an oblong piece of cloth thrown over the left shoulder, the open ends being fastened across the right shoulder by means of a clasp; the corners hanging down were, as in the himation, kept straight by means of weights sewed into them. The chlamys was principally used by travellers and soldiers."—E. Guhl and W. Koner, *Life of the Greeks and Romans*, pt. 1, sect. 42.—See also **COSTUME: Rome**.

CHLODOMER, or Clodomir, second son of Clovis, king of Franks, 511-524. See **FRANKS:** 511-752.

CHLOPICKI, Gregorz Jozef (1772-1854), Polish general and dictator during the Revolution of 1830; resigned, 1831, to enter the army as a private. See **POLAND:** 1830-1832.

CHLOROFORM: Used as anæsthetic in 1832.—Later development. See **CHEMISTRY:** Practical application: Drugs.

CHOATE, Joseph Hodges (1832-1917), American lawyer and diplomat. Ambassador to Great Britain, 1890-1905; first United States delegate to peace conference at The Hague. See **HAGUE CONFERENCE:** 1907.

CHOATE, Rufus (1799-1859), American lawyer. In 1830 he entered Congress as a Whig; became the recognized leader of the American bar; succeeded Daniel Webster in the United States Senate, 1841-1845.

CHOCIM, or Choczim. See **KHOTIN**.

CHOCTAW INDIANS, a North American tribe now settled in Oklahoma but formerly occupying southern Mississippi and western Alabama.

See **FLATHEADS:** Salishan family; **MUSKHOGEAN OR MASKOKI FAMILY**.

1832-1855.—Migration to Indian territory.—Settlement of boundaries on reservation.—Separation from Chickasaws by treaty. See **OKLAHOMA:** 1824-1837; 1830-1844; 1844-1856.

1861-1865.—Position in Civil War. See **OKLAHOMA:** 1860-1865.

1893-1920.—Relations with United States government.—Status. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN:** 1893-1899; 1920: Facts on Oklahoma Indians.

CHOCUYEM. See **MOQUELUMNAN FAMILY**.

CHOISEUL, Étienne François (1719-1785), French statesman. Became lieutenant general, 1748; appointed ambassador to Rome, 1756, and a few months later to Vienna; minister of foreign affairs, 1758. By his "Pacte de famille" brought about the alliance of all the Bourbons against foreign aggression, 1761; suppressed the Jesuits, 1764; brought Corsica under French dominion, 1768; dismissed from office, 1770, through the influence of Madame du Barry. See **FRANCE:** 1723-1774.

CHOLA, ancient kingdom of India. See **INDIA:** B. C. 240-A. D. 1290.

CHOLERA, Epidemics of. See **PLAGUE:** 19th century.

CHOLM, a Polish city about 130 miles southeast of Warsaw and near the river Bug; captured by the Germans in 1915. See **WORLD WAR:** 1915: 111. Eastern front: 1, 3.

CHOLULA, an ancient Mexican town about 8 miles northwest of Pueblo; visited by Cortés, who massacred a number of the inhabitants, in 1519. See **MEXICO:** 1519 (October).

CHONEK INDIANS, or Tzoneca. See **PATAGONIANS AND FUEGIANS**.

CHONOS INDIANS. See **INDIANS, AMERICAN:** Cultural areas in South America: Pampean area.

CHONTALS and POPOLOCAS.—"According to the census of 1880 there were 31,000 Indians in Mexico belonging to the Familia Chontal. No such family exists. The word 'chontalli' in the Nahuatl language means simply 'stranger,' and was applied by the Nahuas to any people other than their own. According to the Mexican statistics, the Chontals are found in the states of Mexico, Puebla, Oaxaca, Guerrero, Tabasco, Guatemala and Nicaragua. A similar term is 'popoloca,' which in Nahuatl means a coarse fellow, one speaking badly, that is, broken Nahuatl. The Popolocas have also been erected into an ethnic entity by some ethnographers, with as little justice as the Chontallis. They are stated to have lived in the provinces of Puebla, Oaxaca, Vera Cruz, Mechoacan and Guatemala."—D. G. Brinton, *American race*, pp. 146-153.

CHONTAQUIROS INDIANS, or Peru City. See **ANDESIANS**.

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